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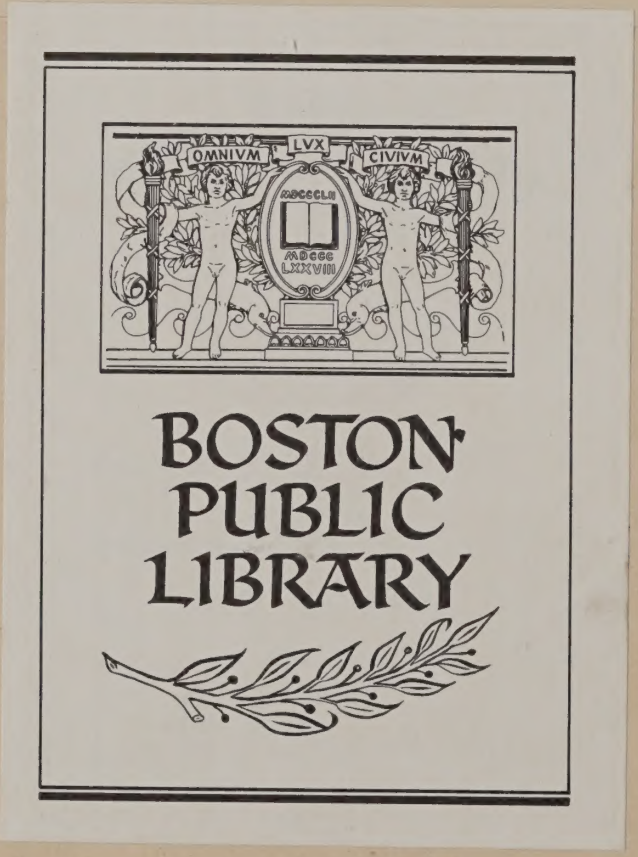

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The Week.

THE leading incident in the Maine controversy during the week was a calm and cogent letter from Mr. Lot M. Morrill, the ex-senator, to Governor Garcelon, urging him to submit the question of the legality of his course to the judges for their opinion, which the Constitution empowers him to do. To this the Governor returned a somewhat guarded answer, offering to submit any point not already adjudicated—an unnecessary reservation, as the court would of course adhere in its reply to previous adjudications on any point. He, however, asked Mr. Morrill to furnish the questions of which he desired the submission. Mr. Morrill has done so, and they cover the whole ground of the controversy, and the judgment of the court upon them would undoubtedly either put the Governor in the right or very much in the wrong, and if the latter, would give him and the Council an opportunity for honorable escape from their present very unfortunate position. In the meantime the public excitement, if anything, seems to increase, and talk of an appeal to arms is very common; much of it, we regret to say, coming from ministers in their pulpits. For this there is absolutely no excuse. Governor Garcelon's action is, at best or worst, simply preliminary. He summons to the Legislature those whom he thinks *primâ facie* entitled to seats, or, in other words, who in his judgment appear to be elected. The Legislature thus assembled passes on the qualifications of its members, and all objections to the members summoned by the Governor can then be produced and examined in detail. So that legal redress is not exhausted until the majority of the *primâ facie* Legislature refuses to admit the Republican members to their seats. Even then the time for civil war has not come. Should there be resistance to the State government thus constituted, the President would be called on to put it down with troops, and he it is, or Congress, which would decide whether the government of Maine was a lawful government, and any blood shed in the matter would be shed vainly. There is no room made for civil war in a State, on any question whatever, under the United States Constitution. Any man, therefore, who countenances, or calls for it, or brings it on, whether lay or clerical, incurs the guilt of bloodshed. There is, under these circumstances, something shocking in the appeals of Christian ministers in houses of worship for the decision by force of quarrels which can be, and are sure to be, decided by legal machinery.

A great many throughout the country besides our correspondent last week have been asking themselves how it has happened that the present crisis in Maine has not arisen before now. The town and city officers are, on Governor Garcelon's undisputed showing, very careless in making up the election returns, and must for a good while have been careless about following minutely the provisions of the law, and the questions now before the public cannot be new. We believe that the answer to this is that these irregularities occur every year, and that returns have every year been thrown out for defects of form by Republicans as well as Democrats, but never before enough to change the result of the election, and give the majority in the Legislature to the party defeated at the polls. The reason, probably, why the Fusionists apply the screws with such severity this year is that the failure of either party to obtain a majority has thrown the election of the Governor into the Legislature, and the reason why the Republicans were excited and alarmed about the matter, almost before the returns had reached the Governor, is that this is the Presidential year, and Maine sends a Favorite Son to the Convention, and it will not do to send him there without his State behind him. Some uncharitable people are attributing to this latter cause Mr. Blaine's extraordinary violence of language. He, too, is threatening bloodshed, his enemies say, not only because he is really angry, but because he wants to show the party that he too can be a "Strong Man" on a pinch.

The Maine trouble is doing the country and the world one valuable service in showing how much alike human nature is under all circumstances and in all latitudes. A reader of the Maine papers, and especially of Mr. Blaine's "home organ," during the last ten years, would suppose that it was only in South Carolina and Louisiana that people threatened armed resistance when they didn't like the goings-on of their State government; but it seems that the Maine people resort readily to the same baneful practice. We could hardly believe our eyes when we saw that a load of State arms, in charge of a State officer, was stopped by a mob in the streets of Bangor on Christmas day and forcibly returned to the arsenal, and when we read the Mayor's written defence of it, on the ground that "our people" were "excited," and had to act in this way when they "got mad"—for all the world like the wicked, turbulent "ex-rebels" down in Louisiana. We supposed, too, that it was only in the poor, barbarous, benighted South that people were threatened with assassination and assault when their political action was displeasing to "the citizens"; but it appears Governor Garcelon receives dozens of such threats every day. We supposed that social and business "ostracism" of obnoxious politicians was unknown outside the cotton States; but it seems that people in Maine are withdrawing their custom from the members of the Council, cutting them in the street, and refusing to invite them to their houses. To crown all, it is not Southern pastors only who recommend battle, murder, and sudden death as a remedy for political grievances. The Maine pastors have been engaged in the same holy work. They want, as one of them has said, no "mob violence," but "systematic war," just to see which side the God of Peace likes best. Of course we know all these things are wrong when done by Brigadiers and ex-rebels, and right when done by law-abiding Maine people; but is it not singular that the bad and good when they get angry show it in so nearly the same manner? By the way, why are not "troops" called for in Maine? Isn't Governor Garcelon an excellent subject for "troops"?

It is generally admitted that Ouray will be unable to fulfil his engagement to deliver up the White River Utes who murdered Agent Meeker and attacked Thornburgh's party. Secretary Schurz, it is asserted, still entertains hopes that this will be done, but the War Department has already instructed General Sherman to direct all military detachments in the neighborhood of the Ute country to be on the alert, and a war is considered imminent. Meantime, the latest reports from General Hatch place him in a position of some danger, and the troops nearest the Ouray agency have been ordered forward for his protection. Until he has been heard from again, however, the Interior Department will continue in its control of the matter. If a war should ensue, it cannot be said that anything has been lost by the delay due to the Commission's negotiations; providing, of course, General Hatch's safety is secured. The weather is less favorable than it was at the time of the attack on Thornburgh's command, but the army is much better prepared now to "settle this whole Ute business," in the words of General Sherman's report, than it was then, according to his admissions; and the experiment of the Commission was certainly worth making, even if it should be found to have led to nothing but a postponement of hostilities. For one thing, it saved the lives of the white women, even if, as now appears, they suffered a treatment commonly regarded as worse than death itself. A question has been raised as to whether the Government should assume that the White River Utes have forfeited their treaty rights and deal with them as if no treaty had ever been made with them, or whether it should regard

the entire tribe as a unit and assume all the Utes to be as guilty as the White River murderers whom they decline or are unable to surrender. In order to settle this point, mooted by Representative Belford, of Colorado, Secretary Schurz is engaged on "a careful study of the treaty."

In Boston, on Sunday night, a great fire recalled by the date and site of its outbreak the wholesale destruction of 1872, and for a time created a feeling of anxiety that might easily have been turned into a panic. Within the space of three hours four or five stores in one square were consumed, at a loss of something like a million of dollars. The district, on Franklin and Federal Streets and Winthrop Square, being in the heart of the paper, wool, and dry-goods commission businesses, is highly combustible, and was wholly burnt over in 1872. The restriction of the fire in the present instance was due partly to the greater efficiency of the fire department, and partly, no doubt, to the solider construction of the restored buildings. In fact, a huge corner structure, occupied mainly by a printing establishment, though surrounded by the progress of the flames, was saved by its fire-proof walls and stand-pipes, aided, to be sure, by an admirable fire service from within. Still, it is clear that fortune more than prudence was the goddess of the occasion, and that several attainable safeguards were neglected—namely, automatic fire-signals for reporting a fire in its earliest stage; fire-proof floors, to confine the fire as much as possible to the story in which it originates; and fire-proof shutters which shall practically make the rear of a building like one side of a chimney. One of the consequences of the shrinkage in prices since 1872 is that the burnt buildings can more than be replaced for an insurance representing their original cost.

The specie imports for the week were confined to driblets, aggregating $111,000, the rates for foreign exchange having ruled against importing specie. Since January 1 the total imports have been $83,854,128, of which $77,600,019 arrived in the last five months of the year. Except for the "bull" speculation here in breadstuffs, provisions, and cotton, probably $15,000,000 to $20,000,000 more specie would have been received; but the prices of the principal exportable commodities have been so advanced in our markets as to carry them above even the necessities of the foreign markets. Not only this; but the amount of bank facilities needed to support the speculation has taxed the domestic money markets to their fullest extent, and had it not been that the Treasury came to their relief by beginning on the 29th ult. to prepay without rebate the January interest (about $17,500,000), it is likely that the last week of the year would have witnessed such a stringency in the New York loan market as has not been experienced during the year. The banks entered upon that week with only $212,000 above the legal reserve. The anticipatory Treasury disbursements, however, kept the loan market from being more than active at about 7 per cent. At the Stock Exchange the early part of the week was characterized by depression, and the latter part by advancing prices, in anticipation of the rise which usually takes place in January, when the half yearly income of holders of securities is reinvested. It is estimated that, inclusive of the United States Treasury disbursements, the amount of January income to be reinvested this year will reach, if it does not exceed, $50,000,000, the profits of all kinds of corporations during the year having been large. The high prices for Western and Southern staple products have given producers unusual profits, and these they retain for the present in their personal possession. This is one reason why currency has not returned to New York this season as in previous years. In course of time this residue of profit will be spent and the money come back to the commercial centres. The London market has been featureless, with money at 2½ to 3 per cent. and securities firm. The market for silver bullion has been stagnant. The bullion value here of the 412½-grain silver dollar at the close of the week was $0.8778. It is said that silver certificates are to be pushed into circulation; if so, the hoard of idle silver in the Treasury vaults will become practically an active part of the currency, and the inflation which the silver advocates worked for will begin. All that will be wanted then for the practical establishment of a single silver standard will be such a turn in the foreign exchanges as will cause specie to be exported.

At this season of the year the city papers publish copious extracts from country papers expressing high admiration for the paper which reproduces them—its enterprise, its fairness, the completeness of its news, the vigor and brilliancy and high moral tone of its editorial articles, and the magnitude of its influence on this day and generation. Each paper in quoting eulogies on itself is, however, preaching to the converted. Its own readers believe all this, or some of it, already, so that the space devoted to it is, to a large extent, wasted. We would suggest, therefore, that each should exchange eulogies with its city contemporaries, so that the readers of the *Tribune* should see what some of the country papers think of the *Times*, and those of the *Times* what some of the country papers think of the *Tribune*, and so on round the circle. In this way a knowledge of the real value of the newspaper press would be diffused, which is now confined to a comparatively small circle. As a general rule each man thinks his own paper is the only one worth reading, whereas there is within easy reach evidence that there are four or five other papers of as great, if not greater, power and goodness. By this plan, too, we may add, the reputation of editors for modesty, which is now much obscured, would be vindicated and made plain.

A man named Howard stole some plumbers' material the other day, and when caught pleaded a desire to get food for a hungry wife far gone in consumption. The attention of the charitable was attracted to the case. Several ladies and gentlemen went to see the wife and found she was far gone in consumption, and thereupon rushed to the conclusion that no further enquiry about the husband was necessary. They supplied both his wants and those of his family profusely, and found him well paid employment, and then discovered that he was a well-known thief and swindler, and that there was not a word of truth in his story except that his wife was dying of consumption. The lesson of this affair—that it is essential in all these cases to act through charitable organizations and not to trust to appearances—has been illustrated and preached *ad nauseam*, and yet every now and then cases like Howard's seem to show that we have a large body of benevolent people among us who have never heard of it.

One of the worst railway disasters of recent times occurred on Sunday evening in Scotland, a passenger train from Edinburgh for Dundee breaking through the famous bridge of the North British Railway Company across the Tay estuary. The number of lives lost was at first reported to be three hundred, but later accounts agree in placing it at about ninety. The singular thing about the accident is that there were no survivors, and consequently the loss of life can only be estimated, as yet. There was a gale blowing and a high sea running at the time of the disaster, and the citizens of Dundee, who very bravely made every possible effort, were unable to find any further trace of the unhappy victims than the débris of the wrecked train and bridge. Since then one body has been washed ashore badly mutilated, and it is probable that most of the rest, certainly the passengers, perished before they could extricate themselves from their locked carriages. There is to be an official enquiry, of course, into the causes of the accident, which, at present, can only be guessed at. The train fell eighty-eight feet to the river, which is forty-five feet deep at that point, and is probably by this time imbedded in the quicksands at the bottom. It is possible that these quicksands, aided by the strong winds and tides of the Tay, had weakened the piers of the bridge, of which thirteen girders of the longest spans (eleven of 245 feet each) are gone, and possible, on the other hand, that the wind blew the train from the track, and that it carried away the truss-work of the bridge with it.

The bridge was one of the monuments of English engineering, two miles in length, and with the longest spans of any structure of the kind in the world. It was begun in 1871 and finished in 1878, and its construction was supposed to be an extraordinary triumph of the skill of Sir Thomas Bouch, the engineer. "Nevertheless," a singular article in the New York *Times* observes, "that bridge is a fatal wreck," and it proceeds to satirize in a plaintive but bitter strain what it mockingly calls "unerring science." The moral it draws from the disaster is, apparently, that any one who fancies himself "secure in the hands of science" is a kind of simpleton. To what travellers are to trust if engineering proves untrustworthy is not specified. Possibly, however, the Government investigation of the Tay accident may discover some fault of engineering remediable in future, and thus maintain the general confidence that, as a rule, properly-built bridges do not break down. Otherwise there seems nothing for it but to stay at home.

General Roberts reports from Afghanistan a complete victory over Mahmoud Jan's force, which seems to have lost a good deal of time making merry over its first success and did not attempt an attack on the cantonment at Shirpur until Tuesday last, and then made it in slovenly style. Roberts appears to have waited until they had clearly revealed their point of real assault and massed a column for the purpose soon after daybreak, and he then shot out a force of cavalry and artillery, which took them in flank and utterly routed them in a few minutes. Since then they have dispersed in every direction, and he has reoccupied Kabul and seized on Yakub Khan's female relatives, who, it appears, have done much to encourage the enemy. He has also reopened communications with General Gough, who was advancing to his relief, and also with Jalalabad. The ease with which these victories over the Afghans is achieved is well shown in the ridiculously small losses of the British force. There appear to have been just seventy-seven killed, and not much over two hundred wounded, in all the late operations. In repelling the attack on the cantonment and dispersing the hostile army the British appear to have had two men killed in fight and three by an explosion. This makes the merciless severity shown towards the Afghans in the burning of villages and wholesale hanging of prisoners all the more unaccountable and indefensible.

This severity is exciting rapidly-increasing indignation among the English Liberals, as the details of the "punishment," as it is called, begin to crop out in spite of the military censorship. It found strong, even violent, expression in an article of Mr. Frederic Harrison's in the last *Fortnightly Review*, in which he exposes the unsoundness of the theory on which General Roberts is hanging his captured enemies. The prisoners taken in arms are hanged as "rebels" or "mutineers," although the only person, on the English showing, entitled to their allegiance is Yakub Khan, who is now in custody as a public enemy, and must, therefore, if the charges against him are true, have approved of the conduct of his troops. The Mollahs, too, or Mohammedan priests, have been hanged for preaching resistance to the invader, as if this was not their business and as if the ministers of all denominations did not do it in all wars. The fact is that no Indian officer ought to be trusted among conquered "niggers" without being followed by public opinion in the shape of newspaper correspondents. The Afghan mode of resistance is, of course, exasperating, but it is the only mode they have, and it is difficult to see how they ever lost their right to defend their soil against invasion. The sham treaty of Gundamuck certainly cannot have deprived them of it, and if they retain it they are entitled when taken in fair fight to the privileges and immunities of prisoners of war. General Roberts reports that he has been prevented by a heavy fall of snow from following the "rebels" towards Kohistan to "punish" them for coming to attack him—that is, of course, to burn their villages and turn their women and children out on the snow. One can readily see what a store of endless hate all this is laying up.

M. Freycinet has succeeded in forming a Ministry, in which he himself takes M. Waddington's place as President of the Council and Minister of Foreign Affairs; and M. Mangin, M. Léon Say's as Minister of Finance, and General Farre, General Gresley's as Minister of War. Jules Ferry remains in the Ministry of Public Instruction, and Admiral Jauréguiberry in that of the Marine. It cannot be said that the combination is a strong one, or much more likely to last than the previous one, but it is more moderate than the Conservatives feared it might be, and will for a short period appease the Radicals simply as a change. It has the fatal defect of its predecessor of not being the real seat of power in the Chamber; but some observers, the London *Economist* for one, are inclined to believe that the subordination of the Cabinet to some other body or set in the legislature may be evolved as a normal feature of the French Government, though a novelty in the parliamentary system.

The situation in Spain has not sensibly changed. The Canovas Ministry, the advices by mail seem to show, occupies somewhat the same position as the De Broglie-Fourtou combination in France, and is probably not destined to a much longer duration. It represents the conservative, monarchical, protectionist, and pro-slavery element, which was most largely instrumental in restoring the Monarchy, but did not venture on attempting to maintain it single-handed. The programme on which the Martinez-Campos Ministry fell included the abolition of slavery in Cuba and the deliverance of the island, as part of a plan of conciliation, from the old Colonial régime, which gives Spain the monopoly of supplying Cuba with Spanish products by differential duties, both in their favor and in that of Spanish bottoms. This, for instance, completely shuts out American wheat. The arguments by which the Conservatives defend this oppressive régime give Spanish politics a very hopeless look.

Another attempt has been made to assassinate King Alfonso within a few weeks of his second marriage. This cannot but shake his nerves and those of his wife seriously. There is, under the influence of the late ministerial changes, said to be a good deal of revival of strong Radical excitement, and this nowadays seems pretty sure to find expression in a shot at a king. The people and the army are with Campos. Queen Marguerite, of Italy, is said to be broken down in health owing to witnessing the attempt on Humbert a year ago in Florence, and the Czar must certainly have been terribly shaken by the two last attempts on his life. These attempts to assassinate sovereigns rarely succeed, mainly owing to the agitation of those who perpetrate them; but it is easy to see that if fanatics or desperadoes could be found in sufficient numbers to make them often, the profession of king might be made so distasteful that few would follow it.

The news from Russia grows worse and worse. The Nihilists, who have thus far made no impression on the peasantry, have, it would seem, at last succeeded in spreading the report that the Czar had directed a division among the peasants of the estates of the landed proprietors. Those living in the neighborhood of Count Shuvaloff's property, therefore, it is reported, finding he was not making the division, sacked his house. They were expelled by troops, but they resisted, and have been joined by others in keeping up the disturbance. Most Russian troubles hitherto have arisen out of the spread of some delusion among the peasantry, and if the Nihilists could add this to their arsenal on any extensive scale they would enormously increase the perplexities of the Government. They have issued a manifesto, since the late attempt to blow up the Czar at Moscow, in which they exult in the attempt and denounce him in the most ferocious language, and declare his extinction and that of his Government to be their aim; and they propose that he should be replaced by a National Assembly freely elected by universal suffrage. This is the nearest they have come yet to proposing anything constructive, but the plan does not indicate much thoughtfulness or fertility of resource. In practice it would, of course, mean anarchy on an immense scale.

THE OLD YEAR.

THE year which has just closed has, of course, supplied the same material as all years for reflections on the uncertainty of human affairs and on the probability of the unforeseen. These will doubtless be made in the usual profusion by hosts of writers and speakers during the present week. They will, however, probably be of a less melancholy cast than those of the past six years, owing to the revival of business in the two nations in which most moralizing is done by the press, America and England, and will contain fewer commendations of frugality and simplicity of living as the true source of happiness. Business prosperity does, in fact, seem to have returned, but, we regret to say, in a way which sheds little or no light on the causes of the late widespread and long-continued depression. The discussion of the subject has naturally ceased in the presence of renewed industrial activity, but it has left behind no lesson or warning with which the world was not already familiar. As regards this country, the events of the year have justified neither the tariff-men nor the free-traders, although the tariff-men are as jubilant as if the panic had occurred and continued under a low tariff, and prosperity had come back with a restoration of high duties. The only financial prophets whom the year has plainly discredited are the silver men and the paper-money men. The former predicted great gain from the recoinage of silver, with the same boldness with which they ascribed the fall in the price to our demonetization of it in 1873, when there was none of it in circulation, and have been plainly confounded by its remaining stored in the Treasury vaults while every branch of industry has begun to feel the pulses of a new life. The latter were quite certain that bringing paper to par in gold was not possible without completing the ruin of the country, and that, even if specie payments were resumed, the resumption could not last for more than a few days, owing to the rush for gold on the part of the holders of paper which would surely take place. The facility with which this class has hidden itself since resumption under the mantle of silence, is a striking illustration of the small impression which any one, or even any hundred, voices make on the public mind, owing to the tumultuous manner in which discussion is carried on. When so many people are talking, one can almost venture to say anything without exposing himself to the shame or inconvenience of subsequent refutation by the course of events.

The gain of the year in politics is not so apparent as in business. The folly of the majority which obtained possession of Congress in 1874 and 1876, worked up most ingeniously and successfully into an appearance of preparation for "a new rebellion" by the Republican press, resulted in a revival of "Stalwartism," or the cultivation of hostility to the South, as the great and sole aim of the Republican party, early in the spring. Its natural consequence was the diversion of the attention of the party almost wholly from questions of legislation, and a very marked restoration of influence and activity on the part of politicians who had been discredited, and some of them relegated to private life, in consequence of their complicity with the scandals of the Grant régime. Several of the most prominent, such as Messrs. Carpenter, Logan, and Chandler, reappeared in the Senate, with aims and standards apparently entirely unchanged, and Mr. Conkling, from this State, was re-elected without opposition, and resumed the working of his Machine with increased power, in spite of a defeat from the Administration regarding the management of his Custom-house. Abuse of the South rapidly became the principal material of party oratory and of party platforms. The prospects of those who had been looking for a new departure in politics would have been gloomy indeed if a very gross abuse of power in this State, in the nomination of a "henchman" for the Governorship, had not roused a small body of young and comparatively unknown men into active and organized opposition. This opposition, although not sufficient to attain all its objects, revealed the fact that New York could not be depended on to support the nomination of a pronounced Stalwart or "Strong Man" for the Presidency; and the support of New York being necessary to both sides, this apparently insignificant movement turned out the most pregnant political fact of the year. It promises to disarrange the plans of those who hoped to conduct the campaign on a platform of hostility to the South, and undoubtedly is a source of more or less embarrassment to those who have undertaken to bring General Grant into the field for a third term.

At the same time striking evidences of the increased desperation of the struggle for the Presidency, and of the injurious effects on Northern political morals of the spectacle afforded by Southern disorders during the past ten years, have been revealed in the exposure of an attempt to bribe the electors of South Carolina in 1876 for the benefit of Mr. Tilden, and more recently in the attempt of the Governor and Council of Maine to secure the control of the incoming State Legislature for their party by the device of suddenly enforcing the minutest forms of the law in the examination of the returns, and thus reversing the result of the election as declared at the polls. This has been followed by the production, with more or less probability of its adoption in case the programme of the Maine Democrats is carried out, of a scheme either for the election of the Presidential electors by districts, which would make sure of part of the vote of this State for the Republicans, or their election by the Legislature, which would make sure of the whole of it. In fact, both parties seem to have reached a state of mind in which almost anything seems fair in order to get or keep power, and to have reached the end of the year bent rather on getting the better of the enemy, by fair means or foul, than on any correction of their manners and excesses. The moral sense of the bulk of the party would be healthy enough to put a stop to this increasing resort to trickery if it were not so deeply impressed with the wickedness of the other side. The Grant movement is, on the other hand, apparently somewhat on the wane, and it now seems as if he had come home too early, and that if he cannot be nominated within a month or two his chances will be slender.

Abroad the year has been much more changeful than at home. The most striking fact in European politics is the tenacity with which Socialism, or that nondescript form of social and political discontent called Nihilism, holds its ground in Russia. The repeated assassinations or attempted assassinations of high functionaries, from the Emperor down, and the successful distribution of incendiary documents, seem to indicate beyond question a condition of moral and intellectual anarchy, if not among the peasantry, among the wholly-educated or half-educated class, so deep and widespread that the most savage means of repression are not sufficient to prevent its showing itself. The relegation of Russia, which even ten years ago was looked on as a sort of bulwark against the disorganizing social theories of the West, to the category of revolutionary states, is a political fact of immense moment, and promises to have a profound influence on the march of events during the coming ten years. Germany, too, has undergone a change little short of another revolution. The National-Liberal party, which may be said to have accomplished the work of establishing the national unity, has lost its hold on the executive and on the march of affairs, and is in danger of total extinction. Prince Bismarck has, mainly for the sake of revenue, but partly through fear of the Socialists, flung himself into the arms of the reactionary party, and a law is at this moment before the Federal Council, under his auspices, which, by restricting the sessions of Parliament to every second year, and making the taxes votable for two years at a time, will substantially restore the régime which existed before 1866, and take Germany out of the list of parliamentary countries. The outlook there would indeed be dark if it were not almost certain that this policy is dependent for its permanence on the life of the Emperor and his Chancellor. But then it must be said, too, that the future of the Empire after the Chancellor's death is by no means clear.

In England the popularity of the Beaconsfield Ministry has steadily declined under the sobering influence of events everywhere. The campaigns set on foot in Africa and India, either under direct instructions from home, or under the influence of the "Imperial" spirit infused into the viceroys and high commissioners

and military men abroad, have proved costly and inglorious. That in Afghanistan has turned out a small affair in a military way, but full of prolonged trouble in every other. The Turkish question, too, is evidently far from being settled by the Treaty of Berlin, and the task of reforming Asia Minor assumes more formidable proportions as the years roll on. Popular pride is humbled by the discovery that the great "place of arms" in Cyprus, from which Russia was to be watched and held in check at Kars, is a piece of leased ground too malarious for a garrison. The prolonged depression in business, combined with the serious attack made on the agricultural interest by American competition, have once more brought domestic questions into the foreground, and when the popular mind begins to be fixed on these the Liberals are looked to to deal with them as naturally as the Tories are looked to for the promotion of adventures in foreign politics. Liberal fortunes, too, have within a few weeks received some assistance from the revelation of Mr. Gladstone's amazing popularity in the provinces, made by his journey to Scotland, and by the uncommon vigor of mind and body displayed in his speeches. Men of all parties are disposed to be proud of a statesman who, at the age of seventy, after forty years of public service, is capable of such an amount of oratory within so short a space of time, and probably would be, even if the oratory were not of a very high order, if not of the highest order, of excellence.

Over the whole of Europe, however, in spite of the undeniable advances made everywhere in science and literature and arts, in security for person and for property, and in the comforts and graces of life, there hangs a great cloud in the shape of standing armies of a size never before witnessed or thought of. The drafts they make on the material resources of the country, great as these are, are, however, only a part, and the smaller part, of the evil they cause. Their worst effects are seen in the drafts they make on the talent and inventiveness and ambition of its ablest men. The amount of thought and research and intellectual industry bestowed at this moment by a large body of carefully-trained men of the highest capacity, on the production of improvements in the means of destroying human life, is a draft on civilization itself the extent of which it is, of course, impossible to calculate, but which must be set down as one of the greatest hindrances to the world's progress, both moral and material, in our day. Nor is it possible to consider the training in habits of order and discipline which young men receive in the ranks as offsetting the complete suppression of the spirit of initiative and of habit of thoughtful self-reliance, to which they are exposed during the most important period of their lives. Italy is probably the only country to-day in which the army is rendering undeniable service to the nation as an instrument of education.

THE ANALOGY BETWEEN MAINE AND LOUISIANA.

SOME of the Republican papers are trying to persuade themselves that there is no analogy between the case of counting-out which is now pending in Maine and that which took place in Louisiana in 1876; but they will cease to do so if they look into the matter more closely. The wrath of Republicans in Maine is not roused simply because so many of their representatives have been displaced on technical grounds to make way for Fusionists. If the courts should decide that the Governor and Council have acted legally, and could not have acted otherwise without violating the law, the hostility to them would cease at once, for the reason that it is not the loss of the Legislature which troubles the Republicans, but the feeling that they have lost it through corrupt action on the part of the Returning Board. They will accept the very same results from the hands of a court of law without a murmur. Now, why do they suspect the Governor and Council of corrupt action? Not because they are men of known bad character, or because they have ever done anything of the kind before, but simply and solely because their action causes great gain to their own party, and corresponding loss to the opposing party. If the Board had so counted the returns as to give the Republicans the majority, and had unseated Democrats only or Democrats mainly, the Republicans would not have accused them of dishonesty. On the contrary, they would have seen in their action a strong indication of their integrity, as going against the interest of their own party. The Republican esteemed contemporaries will thus perceive that the essence of the Maine affair, through which it must be compared with the Louisiana affair, is not the question which side really had the majority, but the question, Under what motives did the Returning Board do its work? It is to this, therefore, that they must direct their attention.

The Louisiana law, it is true, gave the Returning Board the power to throw out the returns of any parish in which there had been in their opinion sufficient disorder and intimidation to prevent a fair vote, and the evidence of this disorder or intimidation was to be furnished by affidavits attached to the returns by the officers conducting the election on the spot. There was nothing objectionable in this law *per se*. If there was sufficient intimidation and disorder to prevent a fair vote, it was perhaps right that the returns of any parish in which these things occurred should be thrown out. Had this been done by a proper tribunal after sufficient investigation, the Democrats would not have had a word to say against it. That there was *some* intimidation in 1876 we think nobody denies; but was there enough properly-proved intimidation—and just enough—to furnish reason for throwing out the eight thousand majority of votes cast for Tilden and the resulting award of the Presidency of the United States to his competitor? The answer to this depends on the answer to some other questions: Was the tribunal which tried the fact of intimidation and determined its amount, and measured the effect it should have on the total vote cast, a tribunal offering the ordinary guarantees of character and capacity? Were the men composing it persons whose antecedents, both political and private, ought to have inspired confidence? Did it conduct the enquiry in such manner as to disarm suspicion? Did it rigidly follow the law, and, finally, was its decision profitable to its members personally and to the party to which they belonged? These questions, it will be readily seen, place the Louisiana case in precisely the same category as that of Maine. In both everything turns on the character and motives of the Returning Board. If the Louisiana Returning Board was a tribunal of high character and recognized capacity, if its members were men of good standing in the community, if no doubt had previously been cast on the integrity of any one of them, if the enquiry was conducted according to the established procedure of courts of law, if the Board rigidly obeyed the law, and if the decision rendered did not profit, and when rendered was not likely to profit, those who rendered it, then the Democrats were utterly unreasonable in complaining of it, and have not a leg to stand on when they compare the case to that of Maine.

But if an unfavorable answer must be returned to every one of the foregoing questions—as it must—then the Louisiana case only differs from that of Maine in being considerably worse; and it is difficult to characterize in temperate language the conduct of those leading Republicans who went down to Louisiana, not to hold this Returning Board to rigid integrity, but to encourage it in disregarding the reasonable suspicions of the Democrats; not to make sure that no injustice was done, but to make sure that their own man got the Presidency, and who, when they came back, wrote an elaborate eulogy on the members of the Board, on the strength of an acquaintance of two or three weeks. It is also difficult to compare the course of the Republican press in whitewashing the Louisiana Board and its doings, with great violence of language, with the attitude of the Democratic press at this moment towards the Maine affair without being driven to conclusions extremely unfavorable to the former. The only excuse that can be made for the Republican press is that it behaved no worse than most of the active moralists of the Republican party. Too many of those who make most noise about morals in politics were either silent and looked the other way, or else openly winked and smiled while this great wrong was being perpetrated.

We return to the subject because we would fain warn the people who only take an interest in politics under the influence of great

excitement that we are in imminent danger of seeing party contests degenerate into a series of tricks perpetrated by each party alternately. We have no doubt whatever that if the Louisiana fraud did not directly suggest the sharp practice in Maine—we will give it no stronger name now until we hear what the judges say about the law—it stimulated the unscrupulousness in which that sharp practice originated. We think, too, that there is much reason to fear that the Maine affair will, especially if successful, lead either to the gerrymandering of this State in preparation for the Presidential election, or else to the appointment of electors by the Legislature, so as to secure it for the Republicans beyond doubt. If this is done—and it is now seriously talked of—Democratic States will retort in kind, we may be sure, and the unscrupulous and reckless of both parties will throw off the restraints which they still feel, and do their utmost to convert the Presidential election into a mere game of thimble-rigging. The time to stop this tendency and to bring the tricksters on both sides to their senses is now, but it is impossible not to see how much the force of the criticism of the Republican press, or of Republican moralists, especially ministers, on the Maine transaction is weakened by their attitude towards the Louisiana fraud in 1876.

"NON-SECTARIAN THEOLOGY."

PROFESSOR EVERETT has an article in the first number of the new *Harvard Register* (a medium of communication between the College officers and the rest of the world), which, as he has himself indulged in freedom of speech with regard to the motives of those who have argued against the connection of the College with the Divinity School, we shall take the liberty of pronouncing somewhat sophistical for a Doctor of Divinity. He says: "It has been somewhat absurdly suggested in some quarters that in an unsectarian school a teacher of theology would not be at liberty to utter his own views." We can hardly be mistaken in supposing that by "some quarters" he means the *Nation*. Nothing of the kind has been, to our knowledge, suggested in any quarter. What *we*, at all events, said was that a teacher in such a school would *have* to be at liberty to utter his own views, and therefore, there being many teachers, the theology taught would be in no proper sense unsectarian, and would excite the distrust and hostility of the greater part of the Christian world. He also says: "It has been urged that a school of theology cannot be wholly unsectarian because the teachers must incline to the views of one denomination or another." What we said was, that if "unsectarian theology" included Christian theology, the teachers must take up some position with regard to such leading Christian doctrines as the Atonement—that is, must either affirm or deny their truth; and that, whichever they did, their theology would be, *ipso facto*, sectarian. We have heard nothing to change our belief on this subject. Professor Everett further adds:

"But it is said that there is this great difference between theological and other studies: that no person believes that a young man's eternal salvation is imperilled by false views of political economy, of philosophy, or of science, while this danger is felt in regard to theology. The truth is, however, that the Roman Catholic Church and a large portion of the Protestant Church do believe that a false system of philosophy, or even a system of science which they deem to be false—that of evolution by natural selection, for instance—may imperil the safety of a soul, while political antagonisms are as violent as religious antagonisms. From these facts it follows, not that these subjects should not be taught, but that they should not be taught by bigots and partisans. It should be further noted that those who offer the argument just considered do not urge it seriously. They do not themselves believe that any system of science, philosophy, or theology puts in peril the soul's welfare. They simply place themselves for the moment on the side of a blind prejudice, such as the higher education has had to contend against at every step of its advance."

We can hardly be mistaken in supposing that what he has here in mind is the following passage in the *Nation* of July 31, 1879, replying to a correspondent:

"It is 'non-sectarian theology' which the Harvard Divinity School is, we are told, going to teach, and, as well as we can make out, 'E. H. H.' sees no more difficulty in teaching it than in teaching political economy or agriculture. This is something rather odd, coming from a minister, for he knows that the great majority of the Christian world hold not only that certain theological beliefs are essential to a man's eternal happiness, but that they contain the sources of his morality in this life. Unitarians and Universalists may not hold this, but then it is admitted that Harvard University is not intended for the exclusive use of Unitarians and Universalists, so that their readiness to accept 'non-sectarian theology' does not meet the emergency. He knows also that this is not true of economical or agricultural opinions. No father thinks his son will be damned eternally or suffer in character if he does not believe in free-trade, or in a high tariff, or entertains singular views about manures or the rotation of crops."

Professor Everett has, therefore, not only misrepresented the position he was assailing, and ascribed to us the use of two illustrations (science and philosophy) which we did not use and on which we made no observation whatever, but has also suggested a thoroughly sophistical analogy between the methods by which science is taught in a scientific school and those by which theology is taught in a divinity school. He has, however, gone further than this, by asserting that our objection to the analogy between theology and political economy and agriculture was put forward as an expression of personal belief that certain "systems of science, philosophy, or theology put in peril the soul's welfare," and then that this personal belief does not exist, and therefore the argument was "not urged seriously." When we find this sort of thing in a daily newspaper we call it "journalism," but we confess we hardly know what name to give it when we find it in an article by a Doctor of Divinity and a Professor of Non-Sectarian Theology. We do not need to remind our lay readers that we were, in the passage we have quoted above, plainly endeavoring to show that a non-sectarian divinity school would not attract those who valued divinity schools, but repel the great bulk of them, and that therefore its sphere of usefulness, if it had any usefulness at all, would be very limited, and that it was a great pity to raise money for it which was sorely needed in the academic department, to which all sects resort, and which is now undermanned and underpaid. Professor Everett's imputation is, therefore, both impertinent and baseless, and is calculated to prejudice people in advance against "unsectarian theology."

If anybody wishes to subscribe money to establish a school in which professors learned in the history of theological opinions and fond of theological speculation themselves would lecture to persons interested in such themes, we see no reason in the world why he should not do so. But there ought to be in raising money for such a scheme perfect candor in describing it to the world without. In doing so no old phrases or terms should be used in a new sense. If it is proposed to teach "unsectarian theology," for instance, this theology ought to be defined beyond the possibility of misunderstanding, because it is an absolutely new and to most people unknown thing. Persons asked to subscribe or approve ought to be informed whether this theology is Natural Theology or Christian Theology, and, if Christian, in what manner the doctrines of the Atonement and of Future Punishment and the Inspiration of the Scriptures will be dealt with by the professors, and what the "unsectarian" view of such subjects is, and whether the cultivation of the unsectarian view is likely to make of the students believers or critics merely. There ought to be no vagueness or fog in the programme of the institution, which will in many ways be a very remarkable one. There is no other like it in the world. It ought to announce boldly that theology will be taught in it in the same spirit and by the same methods that chemistry, biology, and astronomy are taught in the scientific schools—and with the same complete indifference to the spiritual and moral effects of the teaching.

We have given already what we consider several weighty reasons why Harvard College should not embark in any such enterprise, or further it in any degree whatever. President Eliot's suggestion last summer that such an institution would promote interest among the students at large in "God and immortality" was, we are sure, thrown out hastily and would not be seriously defended. The school would exert no influence whatever on anybody in the College beyond the small number who resorted to it for the pursuit of theological speculation. The present Cambridge Divinity School, whatever the aims of its founders or of its present conductors, has thus far practically served the purpose of a training-school for Unitarian ministers. As long as it preserves this character it should have no more connection with the College than the Episcopal Seminary. In the present condition of the academical and scientific departments of the University it is much to be regretted that any power the College authorities possess of raising money should not be employed exclusively for their benefit. They are both suffering from lack of funds. They are doing a work which everybody understands, and for the benefit of which thousands are eager. It would be a great pity under the circumstances to see the energy which is due to them expended on the cultivation of "unsectarian theology," concerning the nature of which, we will here add, we have questioned promi-

nent theologians of various schools and have invariably found the enquiry treated as a humorous one.

MR. GLADSTONE'S POLITICAL POSITION.

LONDON, December 15, 1879.

MR. GLADSTONE has accomplished what Lord Beaconsfield calls his pilgrimage of passion. The Irish peasant, in one of Carleton's stories, impressed with awe as to the numbers and strength of the "Black Presbyterians," describes them as extending all the way right from Belfast to Enniskillen, and all the way back again from Enniskillen to Belfast. The enthusiasm which Mr. Gladstone has evoked has extended, in like manner, all the way from Chester to Glasgow, and all the way back again from Glasgow to Chester. It has pursued him like a prairie fire. He might seem to have been fleeing from the flames which his presence and speeches kindled. Never was there such a *tour de force*. As a mere exhibition of physical strength it was wonderful. Mr. Gladstone, like the spider in Pope's verse, lived along the line ; and, excelling the spider, spoke along it too. Wherever the train stopped for ten minutes, and he could find a perch and a standing-place, at carriage windows or on railway bridges, he poured out words to listening and excited crowds. Railway bells, and the signals of station-masters, and the moving of the train stopped him in the middle of sentences—inventing a new form of that rhetorical figure which is known as *aposiopesis*. There has seldom been a better illustration of his own definition of the orator, as one who gives back to his audience in a shower that which he received from them in vapor. All these were speeches by the wayside. They were so many voluntaries thrown in as preliminaries, or as sequels, or as interludes, in the performances regularly arranged for. Probably no man has ever lived through a period of more continuous and intense physical and mental exaltation. The men who lift hundred-weights of iron in their teeth or hold them up by their little fingers must yield to Mr. Gladstone in physical prowess. He has fairly earned the designation of "the strongest man in the world." The intervals of these exploits have not been intervals of rest. The fatiguing labors of society have been interspersed between them. Mr. Gladstone has had to play the part of lion at country houses, as the guest of great nobles and squires, before the notables of half a county. One day of seclusion was devoted to the composition of his address as Lord Rector of the University of Glasgow. Whatever its intrinsic merits, Mr. Gladstone's fortnight of speaking and travelling was as wonderful a performance as the world has ever seen. It is unique, and is likely to remain so, unless Mr. Gladstone supplies a parallel to his own achievement or makes an advance upon it. The showman in the *Spectator* (the *Spectator* of Addison and Steele, not of Wellington Street, Strand) described his beast as "the largest elephant in the world except himself." Mr. Gladstone's claims to pre-eminence as a popular orator admit only of a similar qualification.

So much as to the performance itself. What as to its results ? Is the enthusiasm which he has kindled, a fierce flame which burnt itself out in his presence, and which will smoulder for a few weeks and then expire, leaving only dust and ashes behind it ? This is not probable so far as Scotland is concerned. The Scotch nature seems to have been in Mr. Gladstone's hands wax to receive; by its intrinsic qualities it is marble to retain. Behind the thousands and tens of thousands who heard him are hundreds of thousands who are now reading him. In farm-houses and in the back-parlors of town shop-keepers cheap editions of his speeches are being pored over for the time as only Burns and the Bible are conned. But Scotland was safe already. The reaction of 1874 extended to but few counties and boroughs, and those would have been won back without the transcendent effort which Mr. Gladstone has put forth. On the northern side of the Tweed he was preaching to the converted. But his speeches, though made in Scotland, were really made to the whole United Kingdom, and their effect there is a matter more doubtful. Mr. Gladstone's influence is largely an affair of classes, though there are, of course, numerous exceptions of disapproval and admiration in every class. Among what we call here the higher orders—among the aristocracy, the permanent officials, and the wealthier middle classes bordering upon the aristocracy—Mr. Gladstone's Scotch speeches have worked alienation and repulsion. Among the Nonconformists, a certain portion of the High-Church party, the shop-keepers, and the working classes they have stirred a hero-worship something akin to the devotion of the Irish to O'Connell in his palmy days. Curiously, and yet naturally enough considering Mr. Gladstone's early training and career and the conditions of official and political life in this country, it is with the former classes alone that he has any sort of habitual communication. An official statesman belongs to the aristocracy, or is adopted by them, and Mr. Bright, who some years ago was as ignorant as Cetewayo of the use and meaning of a dress coat, is now the guest of Walmer Castle and of Chatsworth. The classes whom Mr. Gladstone has somewhat repelled were the classes which needed to be won over ; the classes whose ardor and energy he has stimulated were his already. To the former, the course which he has followed of late years has exhibited the conversion of the statesman into the demagogue. To the latter, it has seemed like the elevation of the statesman into the prophet. Mr. Gladstone, to a large portion of the people of England, is a preacher of political righteousness. They regard him as being essentially a Christian statesman. There is, of course, the exaggeration of a Puritan and Bible-reading enthusiasm in this view ; but it is truer than the opposite one. Mr. Gladstone is the moralizer of politics. This is the function which he has deliberately chosen since his retirement from the leadership of the Liberal party ; and it is one to which, with the inconsistency of a merely personal devotion and attachment, his less discreet followers complain that he is restricted.

In many provincial newspapers, and in one or two London journals, Mr. Gladstone has been acclaimed as the necessary leader of the Liberal party in the coming electioneering struggle. He has been bidden to resume his old functions in the House of Commons, and to hold himself ready for the Premiership in the event of a Liberal majority being secured. Lord Granville and Lord Hartington are invited somewhat peremptorily to withdraw from posts in which they have only been tolerated as stop-gaps, to make confession of incapacity, and to entreat Mr. Gladstone to come back to the position which he renounced in 1875. One thing is now certain, that Mr. Gladstone will either be the head of the next Liberal Administration or he will not be in it at all. The suggestion thrown out by Sir Wilfrid Lawson, Mr. Otway, Mr. Chamberlain, and others, that he possibly might consent to act as Chancellor of the Exchequer in a Granville-Hartington ministry, does not find favor at Hawarden Castle. The subject of this speculation treats it as wholly inadmissible. In a private letter, not designed to be wholly private, he has described it as putting him back thirty years in political life. Mr. Gladstone declares that in 1875 he not only retired from party and Parliamentary leadership, but renounced an official career for the future. Unhappily, perhaps, for his own tranquillity, and for the public acquiescence in his resolution, this renunciation is not accepted by those nearest to Mr. Gladstone. The closest and most intimate influences are brought to bear upon him, and upon others who it is thought may be able to sway him, to reconsider his determination. In these little schemes of management and intrigue the leadership of the Liberal party is spoken of as if it were for Mr. Gladstone to take it up and to lay it down at his pleasure. It is assumed that his name as the future Prime Minister is necessary in order to secure a Liberal majority in the next Parliament. The assumption is more than doubtful. It is probable that the effect will be of the opposite kind. The success of either party at the next general election depends in a great degree upon its acquisition or retention of that mass of floating opinion which sways now to this side, now to that, and turns the scale in the direction in which it moves. Frightened Liberals and men neutral as between the two parties were of late gradually dropping into the Liberal ranks. The discontent with the present Government was growing. But there is reason to believe that Mr. Gladstone's Mid-Lothian speeches, accompanied by the designation of him in certain quarters as the next Prime Minister, is driving them back again. A short time ago political managers, central and local, were sanguine and even certain about the coming elections at Sheffield and at Barnstaple. Now they are shaking their heads very gloomily over their prospects. Mr. Gladstone, it is feared, has frightened off the half-Liberals who were coming back, and whose votes cannot be dispensed with. They would have accepted him as one of the influences in the Liberal party, the most powerful influence, but an influence acting through the more cautious and deliberate temper of Lord Granville and Lord Hartington. But they dread him as a political dictator. The Sheffield election will probably have been decided before these words appear in print, but the certainty of a Liberal triumph has disappeared within the last few days. Mr. Gladstone's acceptance of the leadership is not, therefore, by any means a certain way to victory. If Lord Granville and Lord Hartington were set aside, their removal would be resented not only as an affront to them personally, but as an insult to the whole of their class and of their section of the Liberal party. It would throw a great social force into the hands of the Conservatives, or at any rate neutralize it for Liberal purposes. Suppose that Mr. Gladstone is named leader ; and the

consequence is a Liberal minority in the new House of Commons. Will he undertake the work of leader of the Opposition through the whole of another Parliament? or will he throw it up and require the party to choose new chiefs? If so, who will consent to serve after the lesson of Lord Granville and Lord Hartington's experience? Mr. Gladstone was willing to be Prime Minister if the election of 1874 had given him a majority; he declined to lead the Liberal party when, mainly through his doings, it found itself in a minority. The same rule might guide his conduct in 1880 or in 1881. There are Liberals to whom the honorable understanding entered into between the present leaders and the party counts for nothing, but even they may shrink from the dilemma of finding themselves left in the lurch by Mr. Gladstone after cavalierly dismissing Lord Granville and Lord Hartington. † † †

RENAN'S CHRISTIAN CHURCH.

PARIS, December 12, 1879.

AMIDST the confusing noise of our political parties Renan continues his great philosophical work on the origin of Christianity. Sometimes he gives a word of advice to his contemporaries, as he did in the 'Moral and Intellectual Reform of France' and in his 'Sequel to the Tempest, or Caliban'; then he returns to his favorite studies. His long series already comprised the 'Life of Jesus,' 'The Apostles,' 'Saint Paul,' 'The Antichrist,' 'The Gospels'; he has just added to it a sixth volume, under the name of 'The Christian Church.' The seventh and last volume will be called 'Marcus Aurelius.'

This new volume extends from 117 to 161 A.D., and covers the two reigns of Hadrian and Antoninus Pius. From a merely mercantile point of view it is not surprising that the success of the work has been constantly diminishing. The 'Life of Jesus' was one of the most extraordinary successes of the time; it was in everybody's hand, as if a sort of religious novel; it became the occasion of the most ardent polemics. Since that time M. Renan has abandoned the fields of conjecture, the exegete has more and more given place to the historian; but public opinion has not followed the historian as it did the exegete. The only people who buy these later volumes are those who wish to complete their collection; the 'Life of Jesus' is almost forgotten, and the current of popular favor has taken other directions. In my opinion, the new volumes of M. Renan are perhaps more interesting than the first; they are more solid in their construction, they are less arbitrary, less artificial; they deserve a place in the library of all historians and of all philosophers. If you wish to write the life of Jesus you can, after all, do nothing but paraphrase more or less the Gospels, and a true artistic mind will always prefer the original texts to any commentary. Where are all the commentaries of Dante, once so much praised? They are despised and forgotten; but we all read the 'Inferno,' and we try ourselves to find our way in its sublime obscurity. The historical part of the 'Beginnings of Christianity' forms, on the contrary, a subject eminently fit for a writer like Renan, familiar with the Oriental churches and with the Latin civilization. It is the contact of two worlds, of two intellectual worlds.

Trajan died at Selinus, on the coast of Cilicia, on the 11th of August, 117, and the Empire was given to Hadrian.

"He was," says Renan, "a man of doubtful morality, but he was a great sovereign. Clever, intelligent, curious, he had more largeness of mind than any other Cæsar. From Augustus to Diocletian he was the most organizing emperor. His administrative capacity was extraordinary. According to our ideas he administered too much, but he administered well. He was the definitive organizer of the Imperial government; he marks a capital epoch in the history of the Roman law. Hitherto the house of the Prince had been the house of the first personage of the state—a house like any other, composed of servants, of freedmen, of private secretaries. Hadrian organized the Palace; to attain to the palatial offices it became necessary to be a knight; the domestics of the house of Cæsar became functionaries. A permanent council of the Prince, composed chiefly of lawyers, took on special functions; the senators attached to the Government became *comites* (counts); everything was done in the bureaux; . . . it is despotism, but a despotism similar to the old French monarchy, tempered by councils, courts, and independent magistrates. The social reforms are still greater; a good and great spirit of true liberalism and humanity is manifested everywhere—the position of the slave is surrounded with guarantees; the condition of women rises; the excesses of paternal authority are limited; what remains of human sacrifices is suppressed."

Hadrian was fond of Epictetus; his mind was inquisitive, he took pleasure in the Eastern religions, impostures, oracles. Like Nero, he was an artist, a literary man, on the throne. He wrote verses; everything with him ended with a smile, even those verses which he murmured before dying: "Animula vagula, blandula . . ." Such a mind could not be intolerant. He did not suppress the restrictive laws against the Christians, but he personally never tried to enforce them. His reign was a continual journey through the empire. He abandoned, on mounting the throne, the newly-conquered provinces, Armenia, Mesopotamia, and Assyria, returned to Rome, visited Gaul, the Rhine, Spain, Mauritania, Carthage, as an *amateur* as well as an emperor, ordering everywhere great public works. Then he revisited the East, wishing to see everything, with a court of architects, of rhetoricians, of philosophers. He wanted to rebuild everything; what he did was really prodigious. "The world had never hoped so much. The barbarians beyond the Rhine and the Danube were hardly felt. The liberalism of the Emperor diffused everywhere a sort of contentment." The Jews themselves hoped that Hadrian would rebuild Jerusalem. The Emperor had visited its ruins. "For fifty-two years the city had sat in its desolation, offering nothing to the eye but immense blocks thrown on each other. A few poor houses only, chiefly Christian, stood detached on the top of Mount Zion. The place where the Temple stood was full of jackals." Hadrian conversed with some famous rabbis, but the Jews would not, could not, bear toleration. Hadrian, who was an eclectic, conversed also with the Christians of Palestine, and the Christians would not see the Temple rebuilt. Still, some works were ordered, but the new temples of Jerusalem were dedicated to Jupiter Capitolinus and to Venus. This last temple was not far from Golgotha.

Hadrian seems to have been sometimes drawn toward the ideas of Christianity. He had some churches built which remained undedicated, and were called *hadrianæ*. To be sure, he also deified Antinous; but, as Renan says, even his follies with Antinous became an element of Christian apologetics. "Such a monstrosity seemed the culminating point of the reign. This new god, whom everybody knew, became a weapon against the old gods more difficult to seize. The Church triumphed." It was at this time that the first mention was made of a new Gospel, of the Gospel of John, the beloved disciple of Jesus. The new book came from Ephesus. M. Renan accepts the system which places John in his old days in this town. He does not think that the Gospel was written by John himself, and attributes it to some disciples of his. "We incline to think that the fourth Gospel represents the traditions of a certain *Presbyteros* and of Aristion, traditions which possibly go back to John himself." He thus sums up the spirit of the fourth Gospel: "To prove Jesus to those who do not believe in him, but especially to enforce a new conception of Christianity—these are the author's two objects. The miracles being essentially the proof of a divine mission, he abounds even more than the primitive Gospels in stories of prodigies." He says also:

"The fourth Gospel is a writing of no value if you wish to know how Jesus spoke, but it is superior to the synoptical Gospels in what relates to the order of facts. The sojourns of Jesus in Jerusalem; the institution of the Eucharist (which, according to our author, results from a habit of Jesus and not from a word pronounced at a precise moment); the anticipated agony of Christ, not spoken of the day before the Passion; a number of circumstances concerning the Passion; the resurrection and the post-mortem life of Christ; many particulars such as those which concern Cana, the Apostle Philip, the brothers of Jesus, the mention of Cleophas as a member of the family of Jesus, are so many features which assure to the pseudo-John a historical superiority over Mark and over the pseudo-Matthew."

John is very often in accordance with Luke, whom Renan considers as the most exact of all, historically speaking. "What," he says, "is really artificial and devoid of traditional truth are the speeches placed in the mouth of Jesus. Critics ought to place these speeches in the same category as the conversations which Plato attributes to Socrates. Two omissions are characteristic: there is no parable mentioned, nor a single apocalyptic speech on the end of the world and the Messianic appearance. The hope of a coming light in the clouds had, it would seem, lost a part of its strength." I must cite this also; after accusing John of being too obscure and metaphysical, Renan says:

"These defects were a consequence of the exaggerated attitude given by the author to Jesus. Such an attitude excluded simplicity. Jesus proclaims himself the Truth and the Life; he declares himself God; it is only through him that the Father can be approached. Such heavy and solemn affirmations cannot be made without the air of a shocking presumption. In the synoptical Gospels God does not affirm himself; he reveals himself by the charm of his impersonal speeches. Here God argues in order to prove his divinity. It is the rose arguing to prove its own perfume."

This is Renan all over, the Renan of the 'Life of Jesus,' who put so many people almost beside themselves by the very peculiar way in which he was capable of treating religious emotions and religious subjects.

This fourth Gospel, inspired with Greek ideas, had a signal success, after fifty years of indifference or opposition. Books did not make their way then as they do now; they were written for a few people, and only shown with much reserve. At the end of the second century, however, we find that the fourth Gospel has beaten the synoptical out of the field. It was much more in harmony with the Greek genius. The belief in the end of the world had been excluded; Judaism was forgotten in it, with its millennium, its Messiah, its apparitions; the Jews are positively condemned; they are looked upon as murderers. "This Gospel disembarrasses Christianity of a number of original encumbrances; allowing it the thing that is chiefly necessary to the creations which want to live, namely, ingratitude towards what has preceded them." Christianity became a sort of new religion and philosophy, unknown to Peter and to Paul, full of antipathy against the Jews and Judaism, ignoring the doctrine of justification by faith; it became idealistic.

"The idealist," says Renan, "is always the strongest of revolutionists. The definite rupture with Judaism was the indispensable condition of a new religion. Christianity could not succeed if it did not become a pure religion, independent of any material symbol. 'God is a spirit, and those who worship him must worship him in spirit and in truth.' Thus understood, Jesus ceases to be a prophet; Christianity is no longer a branch of Judaism: it is the religion of reason. The fourth Gospel gave to the apostolic work consistency and duration. Its author, whoever he was, was the cleverest of all the apologists."

While the Christian Church finished, as it were, its dogmas, it organized also its discipline and its hierarchy. The church of Jerusalem and those founded by St. Paul had received no organization; they were mere conventicles of latter-day saints making ready for the apparition of God. By degrees the Church felt that it must organize itself for life and reconcile itself with the Empire It became a regulated society. It lost its democratic character and became episcopal. Each class of persons, women included, received a place, a function in the Church. Orthodoxy made its appearance as well as the episcopate. Heresy became a crime. You will find the natural development of all these novelties in the Epistles to Timothy and to Titus. The "New Testament" was formed out of the Gospels and the Epistles, and became the "holy book" of Christianity. A senseless rebellion of the Jews ended in a fearful massacre and in the disappearance of the Jews as a nation. Two hundred thousand Jews were killed; still, Pausanias writes quietly: "In my time ruled this Hadrian, who showed so much respect for all gods, and who had the happiness of his subjects so much at heart. He undertook no war without being obliged to do so. As for the Hebrews who dwell near Syria, it was only because they revolted that he crushed them."

Correspondence.

THE BALTIMORE ELECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: For "Second Legislative District," in my recent communication anent "Maryland Bull-dozing," please read "Third Legislative District." I find that the error was that of a copyist in the office of my newspaper.

I confess that I am somewhat startled at the doubt as to my own existence which is sprung by an individual signing himself "Charles J. Bonaparte" in your last issue. I admit that I have never given this question the attention which it perhaps deserves, and, as my own evidence on the point does not seem to be convincing to the party who makes use of that name, I respectfully call attention to the enclosed clipping, from the issue of the *Evening Bulletin* of Baltimore which appeared on the day your last reached this city, and also to an editorial note in reference to the alleged "Charles J. Bonaparte" in the *Telegram* of to-day—which you will find on your exchange-table. I trust you will consider the two items as at least contributing towards the elucidation of what is (to me) a matter of some importance—namely, the question whether there is or is not such an objective reality as

J. T. Ringgold.

Baltimore, Dec 27, 1879.

THE NEGRO VOTER—A PROGNOSTICATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The results of the fall elections in different parts of the South have thrown additional light upon the negro's position as a voter, and the part he is likely to play in the future political history of the country. It may be that race prejudice had much to do with the opposition of the Conservative element at the South to placing the ballot in the hands of the negro; but it is certain that many of the Southern leaders, who were able to divest themselves of this prejudice, were opposed to it on principle, because they foresaw evil to come. And evil did come of it, first in the shape of "carpet-bag" governments; and now it threatens disastrous results in another direction. For a long time the "carpet-bagger" played upon the ignorance of the negro with promises of untold benefits to accrue to him if he voted the Republican ticket, and he was led to the polls and voted for—he knew not what. With the non-fulfilment of these promises the eyes of the negro were slowly opened to the fact that he was being used as a pliant tool to foist into office men wholly unfit for responsible official positions. This awakening was followed by a political lethargy on the part of the colored voters, which was misconstrued by the people North, but which was fully understood here. It was hard for Northern men to realize that States like Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana, which had been largely Republican, could be so suddenly converted into Democratic strongholds without the use of unfair means, and the result was attributed to wholesale "bull-dozing" and ballot-box-stuffing. While there may have been isolated cases where unjustifiable means were resorted to by the taxpayers of the South to wrest their local governments from the hands of the thieves who were plundering them, it is very certain that, with the fewest exceptions, the negro has been free to vote as he pleased and has had his ballot counted as it was cast. The falling off in the Republican vote South is due to the fact that the negroes have lost, to a very great extent, their interest in national politics, and cannot be brought to the polls except in an election involving matters of *local interest*. And herein lies a danger to which the attention of the Southern people is now being directed; and that is, an alliance of the negro voters with the worst element of white voters in the control of our local politics.

The "race issue" is year by year growing weaker. Neither the whites nor the blacks can any longer be rallied on the "color line." With the breaking up of this issue the negro vote has come to be a thing to be bargained with, and some of the very men who a few years since were the bitterest opponents of negro suffrage are now ready to use it as a means of accomplishing their personal and political designs. Thus far in the country and in small towns and villages the negro vote has been controlled, in the majority of cases, in the interest of the better classes of people; but in the larger towns and cities, and notably in the recent State election of Virginia, it has been used to further the designs of political adventurers and malcontents, who are always ready to foist themselves into position and power by some campaign catchword or some plausible appeal to popular prejudice. The question which confronts us in the near future is not whether the negro will vote with the Democratic party or with the Republican party; but whether in local questions, involving the honor and well-being of State and municipal governments, his vote can be controlled by the conservative, taxpaying element or by adventurers and malcontents.

The *Nation* of December 11, commenting upon the letter of a "Virginia Democrat," says: "The alliance of the negroes with the Republicans, and of the Southern whites with the Democrats, is purely artificial, accidental, temporary—a defensive measure on both sides, which will be abandoned just as soon as the two races establish their just relations on the spot where they were born and must live." When the prediction of the *Nation* is fulfilled—when the breaking up of the present political organizations is accomplished—two parties will emerge from the politics of the future: the one, a *conservative* party embracing in its membership the better classes of Democrats and Republicans in the North, and the "Brigadiers," with a majority of their constituents, in the South—embracing, in fact, all citizens of both sections who desire to see a peaceful and prosperous country, and who are willing to pay honest debts with honest money; the other, a *radical* party containing Greenbackism, Hoodlumism, Nationalism, Negroism, and all other *isms* which, having nothing to lose and everything to gain by internal commotions, are ready to embark in any revolutionary scheme, social, financial, or political.

McC.

Tuscaloosa, Ala., Dec. 20, 1879.

THE REWARDS OF COUNTING-IN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you be kind enough to state in your columns the names of the men connected with the "counting-in" of President Hayes who have been rewarded with Federal offices; also the posts they enjoy? A friend

of mine denies that those men were thus rewarded, and I cannot prove it to him.—Respectfully, Y. Y.

Boston, Dec. 28, 1879.

[We believe the following list, taken from the public records, to be correct. It is part of a much longer one which appeared in the New York *Sun* of March 5, 1879.—Ed. Nation.]

Names.	Political employment in 1876.	Office held now.	Salary
J. Madison Wells...	President Returning Board...	Surveyor Port of New Orleans....	$4,500
Thos. C. Anderson.	Member Returning Board.....	Deputy-Collector Port of N. O....	3,000
L. M. Kenner.....	" " "	Deputy Naval Officer.....	2,500
G. Casanave.....	" " "	Brother of U. S. Storekeeper, N.O.	1,460
Chas. S. Abell.....	Secretary Returning Board...	Inspector Custom-house.....	2,500
York A. Woodward	Clerk Returning Board.....	Clerk Custom-house.....	1,800
W. M. Green.....	" " "	" "	1,095
B. P. Blanchard....	" " "	" "	1,400
G. P. Davis.....	" " "	" "	1,200
Chas. Hill	" " "	" "	1,400
Geo. Grindley.....	" " "	" "	1,600
Jno. Ray.....	Counsel for Returning Board.	Special Agent Treasury Dep't and counsel for Mr. Sherman.....	2,500
S. S. Wells	Son of J. Madison Wells.....	Inspector Custom-house.....	1,095
A. C. Wells.....	" " "	Special Deputy-Surveyor, N. O..	2,500
F. A. Woolfley.....	Affidavit-Taker.....	United States Commissioner.....	Fees
R. M. J. Kenner....	Brother Returning-B'd Kenner	Clerk Naval Office.....	....

COLLEGES AND COLLEGES.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : Allow me to trespass upon your space to the extent of a few lines to explain and justify the use of the statistics in regard to the colleges of Massachusetts and Georgia.

No matter what was the rule of classification adopted by the census-taker, it must be supposed that it was applied fairly to each State. This resulted in a showing greatly in favor of the two Southern States given. Three-fourths of those claimed as colleges in Georgia might be stricken out and yet leave it upon an equality *numerically* with Massachusetts. Of course I do not pretend that the colleges of the former can compare with those of the latter in what we may call "quality." But this does not destroy the value of the figures. The number and distribution of institutions of polite learning indicate the general esteem in which it is held, while the perfection to which they are carried may be a question of age, geographical position, or of material wealth. Except to one studying to become a teacher, it is of little consequence whether or not he reads an additional ode or goes a little deeper into transversals. A certain curriculum, extending through from three to four years, has generally been followed with more or less fidelity by all institutions claiming the title of college, and a local demand for such may safely be taken as indicating some degree of substantial culture.

Florida.

[Our correspondent's point was as to "real culture and refinement." If this is to be proved by a comparison of institutions for the higher education, "quality" is of the first importance, as "Florida" now concedes. But unless we know exactly how far the "colleges" of Georgia differ from and surpass the high-schools and academies of Massachusetts, even the numerical comparison becomes worthless. We will not insist on the patent defects of the census of 1860, but we may be sure the census-taker's rule of classification involved no nice distinction between names and things. We remark that the census of 1870 does not contain the division "Colleges," but includes these institutions under "Schools—Classical, Professional, and Technical."—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Macmillan & Co. have issued the second part of Mr. Skeat's 'Etymological Dictionary of the English Language,' the general character of which we discussed in No. 735 of the *Nation*. The third part is announced for July 1, 1880. A fourth concludes the work.——By the Boston fire on Sunday last Messrs. Houghton, Osgood & Co., we regret to record, suffered severely, losing so much of their stock as remained after the heavier sales of the season, and the whole of their heliotype plant. The Riverside Press, happily, is remote from the Boston office, and the production of books will be uninterrupted.——Mr. Frederick Prime, jr., has reprinted from the Transactions of the American Institute of Mining Engineers his "Catalogue of Official Reports upon Geological Surveys of the United States and Territories, and of British North America." It forms a pamphlet of 71 pages, of which 21 are devoted to the Rocky Mountain region. The arrangement is chronological. Outside of the Territories the earliest document cited is a survey of Albany County, N. Y. (1810); the earliest State survey that of North Carolina (1824).——Henry Holt & Co. publish immediately T. H. S. Escott's 'England : her People, Polity, and Pursuits'; 'Popular Romances of the Middle Ages,' by George W. Cox and Eustace H. Jones ; and 'The Child's Catechism of Common Things,' by J. D. Champlin, jr., author of the meritorious 'Young Folks' Cyclopædia,' which has reached a third edition.——The Superintendent of Schools in Cincinnati has begun the practice of celebrating at the school-houses the birthdays of famous poets and prose writers. Whittier was thus first honored. ——J. W. Bouton will be the American agent of Mr. Edward Walford's new monthly magazine, the *Antiquary*, an elegant quarto which will take cognizance of almost everything that is time-honored and capable of being made a relic of. The list of contributors is imposing.——Director Draper's report for the past year of the New York Meteorological Observatory at Central Park, being the tenth since the establishment of that institution, indulges in a summary of its history and of the several annual reports, and describes, with the aid of woodcuts, the ingenious self-recording instruments made and for the most part invented at the Observatory. The usual tables for 1878 are appended. From these it appears that the hours of sunshine were nearly seven-tenths of the possible number, and that during 77 days no cloud passed over the sun. Twelve of these were in October.——An enlarged French translation of Prof. Thurston's 'History of the Steam-Engine' has just been issued in Paris, in two volumes. It appeared here as one volume of the International Scientific Series.——In the present turning towards etching, especially in France, it may be well to remember that etchings are sometimes as bad as the crudest "process"-work. Even France now and then puts forth a set of most worthless plates. As bad as any we have ever seen are the thirty-five plates of "Les Théâtres de Paris," etched by M. P. Loiseau-Rousseau, which are poor in printing as well as in drawing. This is especially to be regretted, since the theatres of Paris are architecturally well worthy of the needle of a good etcher, as M. Gaucherel showed in his plate of the Comédie-Française, printed at the head of M. Sarcey's 'Comédiens et Comédiennes.'——Milton's face, when he was at his best, was a face of power and resolution such as wait upon an iron will. The nose is long and fleshy, the jaw square and full, and there is no waste of forehead. In the print just revived by Mr. Snare from the etching by Jonathan Richardson, sen., in 1734, and which is commended by the poet's last surviving daughter as a strong likeness of her father, the head looks like one of the statesmen or warriors of the following of William III. of England. Doubtless the reception which welcomed Munkácsy's noble picture, "Milton dictating 'Paradise Lost' to his Daughters," on its arrival at the Lenox Library, has drawn attention to the surest way of securing the one authenticated portrait of the great English poet, and hence the photogravure of Richardson's etching is timely and likely to prove of general acceptability (M. T. Wynne, 75 East Thirteenth Street, New York).——Dr. Kiepert has followed his admirable 'Manual of Ancient Geography,' published last year in two volumes, with a shorter 'Leitfaden' for use in high-schools (Berlin : D. Reimer ; New York : L. W. Schmidt). The work commends itself not only on account of the high authority of its compiler, but because it has been purposely cast in a readable form, instead of being a mere catalogue of names like the "Register" at the end. It is accompanied by a school-atlas comprising twelve maps of ancient history by Dr. Kiepert, twelve of mediæval and as many of modern history by Dr. Carl Wolff, not to mention a large number of side-maps; all of which are neatly executed, but when it comes to the lettering are somewhat trying to the eyes.

—We should think there could not be two opinions as to the originality of Mr. Moses King's monthly *Harvard Register*, or as to its interest and value to all graduates and friends of the University, or, finally, as to the tastefulness of its mechanical execution. The *cadres* in the first number are not all filled, but no one will complain of the paucity of information conveyed in these sixteen pages. The articles are naturally not only commendatory and even laudatory of Harvard in its several departments, but assume on occasion a defensive tone, as in Professor C. C. Everett's rejoinder to the *Nation's* criticism of a University Divinity School (on which we have commented on another page), and Professor Winsor's argument for liberal cataloguing. Still, the main object is to report progress, with incidental appeals for a larger endowment here and there. Views are given of the new gymnasium, the

Bussey Institution, and of the Quincy and Sumner statues, together with a good likeness of the late Walter Hastings, whose bequest of half a million to the University has had no parallel in magnitude, although the giver (departing from the example of three generations of ancestors) was not a graduate of the college. Under the heading, "Statues and Other Memorials," is printed a circular soliciting contributions to a permanent memorial to the late William M. Hunt. "New Books by Harvard Graduates" is another title. Under "Notes" and "The Graduates" there is a general conspectus of Harvard men and their doings, and place is even found for marriages, births, and deaths, which are, of course, announced gratuitously. The form of the *Register* is quarto, and paper and press-work are of the best.

—A correspondent writes:

"In your issue of December 4 you say of the so-called 'second edition' of 'Our Early Emigrant Ancestors,' published in New York by J. W. Bouton, with the date of 1880, 'that it does not profess to be revised.' This is a mild statement of the facts. I have seen a copy of the edition of 1874 transformed into a 'second edition' by means of a new title-page tipped in. The latter edition sells for six dollars and is bad enough, but the present one, which bound in cloth sells for five dollars, is simply a mass of miserable blunders. A comparison of the two volumes leads to the conclusion that the so-called 'second edition' was printed *first*, having been discarded as worthless until now. Indeed, the accompanying index was not made for it, while the introduction to this *new* edition bears the date of 'May, 1873.' For the credit of the trade this disgraceful publication should be withdrawn."

—At last is published the long-promised memoir of Charles Méryon and the catalogue of his engraved work by M Philippe Burty. It appears in English dress only—a translation by Mr. Marcus B. Huish from the manuscript. It was in 1863 that M. Burty's papers on Méryon were published in the *Gazette des Beaux Arts*. The great artist was then alive and capable of work. In that year and the next he engraved several plates, and his friend's papers were intended to aid him as much as to serve the general cause of art. For Méryon's comfort and for his life they came too late. His mind was hopelessly diseased, and three years later he became for the second time an inmate of an asylum for the insane, where he died in 1868. But for his fame they have done good service. They were the first public announcement of the importance of his engraved work, and for sixteen years they have afforded the only catalogue of reference, and the only guide to students and collectors of the few and rare prints which are practically all that remain of him. Of late the demand for these prints has increased rapidly. Several articles about them and their author have appeared in English journals, and one of them, by Mr. Wedmore, afforded us a text for a paper a few months ago. But the same Mr. Wedmore has just now issued a little book, consisting of the article just alluded to, with what is called a "descriptive catalogue of the artist's work," an edition "limited to 113 copies," very select, very pretty in its get-up, very dear, but certainly not creditable to its author, being most inadequate. Moreover, the book has all the appearance of having been hurried into the world just in time to antedate the Burty-Huish book, which, as we have said, has long been expected and for some time positively announced.

—Of this larger and more complete work we have now only the French preface signed by M. Burty to deal with. It is curious in its statements:

"This work . . . has been ready for several years," he says. "I no longer hoped to meet with anything that would modify it. . . . I had been solicited to publish it. But France is still the prey of the Academic school. The critics and amateurs who assail that impregnable Bastille are not numerous. Their influence is insufficient to prevail, in our centralized country, against the protection exclusively accorded to the Academic doctrines by ministers, directors of museums and libraries, writers of reviews, and the rest. . . . Méryon never received a single official honor. Our national establishments have allowed his most important works to leave France. Justice is only now beginning to be done to him."

But, he goes on, in England the case is different, and Méryon's works are eagerly sought; therefore when Mr. Huish asked for the publication of his work he was unable to say no. All this strikes us oddly. We fondly supposed that, strong as the "Academic school" is in France, the innovators had some chance. In 1859, indeed, when the *Gazette* commenced, it is easy to believe that M. Burty found few listeners when he talked of Méryon. He was told that he "encouraged openly the abandonment of tradition." And, four years later, after the second article [on Méryon, *Gazette* for July, 1863], there was in the office of the *Revue* [*sic*, does he mean the *Gazette?*] a very lively scene. One of the directors asked, ironically, "how many numbers would be given to Raphael, since two were allowed to a living etcher?" This reads as if related of the eighteenth century.

—Professor Geikie's "Geology" is, considering both extent and value, the great article of volume x. of the new 'Encyclopædia Britannica' (Little, Brown & Co) Separately printed, it would form an octavo volume of four or five hundred pages. "Geography," of which the physical portion is also by Professor Geikie, and "Geometry," by Professors Henrici and Cayley, are of much more moderate dimensions. "Germany," the history and literature of which are the contributions of James Sime, occupies a hundred pages, that is, little more than half the space allotted to "France" in the preceding volume; but, if the sections which we have examined in both articles may be taken to indicate their respective merits as wholes, the article before us is vastly superior to the other. The entirely new historical and literary matter in it—that which refers to the last two decades—is very pleasant reading, and marked by sound judgment. The dates are not numerous, and not entirely without errors. France did not declare war against Prussia "on the 15th July, 1870," but on the 19th—though Ollivier's declarations in the Corps Législatif on the 15th left no doubt that war was determined upon—nor was the peace which terminated the struggle concluded at Frankfort "on the 6th May," 1871, but on the 10th. That the "seven weeks' war" of 1866 is told without an allusion to the fact that Italy was a party to it—which virtually decided the issue by dividing the forces of Austria—cannot be excused on the ground that the 'Encyclopædia' treats (or will treat) the same subject also under "Austria," "Italy," and "Prussia," for no cross-reference reminds us of these articles. Neither in the history of the war of 1866 nor in that of 1870–71 is the name Moltke mentioned. Less important omissions are easily discoverable in the literature of "Germany," which, on the other hand, deserves praise for the strict correctness of its titles.

—The revision of the foreign words, including Hebrew, marks, on the whole, a continued improvement in the editorial management of the work, though single minor articles are occasionally still disfigured by frequent inaccuracies. Thus, the notice of Austrian Galicia has "Stanisl*awow*" and also "Stanisl*au*" for Stanislaw, "Rzesz*now*" for "Rzesz*ow*," and other misspellings. The dates of the notice show equal carelessness: Louis the Great of Hungary is stated to have succeeded Casimir the Great in Poland, in 1377, and his daughter to have married the grand-prince of Lithuania (Ladislas II. of Poland) in 1382; in fact, however, the former event took place in 1370 and the latter in 1386. Spanish Galicia is entirely forgotten. The biography of the volume embraces a considerable number of interesting lives, among them those of Galileo, Gallatin (by H. Cabot Lodge), Garrick, Garrison (by Oliver Johnson), Gassendi, Gay-Lussac, Gentz, Gervinus, Ghirlandajo, Gibbon, Gluck, Goethe, and Goldsmith. The appreciation of the merits of Gibbon, even as the author of "the famous fifteenth and sixteenth chapters" of the 'Decline and Fall,' shows a commendable spirit of toleration, and the very extensive article "Gospels," by Dr. E. A. Abbot, the most learned production in this field which has as yet appeared in the 'Britannica,' is ample evidence that the editors are determined to keep the pages of their work open to untrammelled research in every branch of knowledge, provided the customary decencies are strictly observed. In other Scriptural articles we have noticed a few slight slips—among others, in "Gog," the statement that the great Scythian invasion of western Asia, of which Herodotus speaks (i. 103 *et seq.*), took place "about the time of Isaiah." It occurred nearly a century later, in the time of King Josiah, for which name "Isaiah" stands, perhaps, by misprint.

—The Italian Opera has begun its provincial tour. The noticeable event of the past week was the performance of Handel's "Messiah," on Saturday, by the Oratorio Society. It was, particularly as regards the work of the chorus, by far the best which has been given here by the same Society and under the same leader (Dr. Damrosch). Some of the familiar choruses, such as "For unto us a Child is born," "All we like sheep have gone astray," the triumphant phrases of "Lift up your heads," and the ever young "Hallelujah," were given with unusual power and splendid spirit. The solo parts were not all in good hands. Miss Thursby cannot sing Handel: she lacks everything to qualify her for such work—fulness and breadth of voice, and dignity of style. Mr. Simpson has a very pretty, sympathetic tenor voice, but his delivery is exceedingly dull and uninteresting. His first bright, joyful song, "Every valley shall be exalted," was given in a very gloomy and dismal manner. Mr. Remmertz, on the other hand, rendered the celebrated bass air, "Why do the nations so furiously rage together?" with great vigor and spirit. Miss

Drasdil is never more at home than in the majestic, solemn strains of the sacred compositions by the old masters. The great alto aria, "He was despised and rejected"—the magnificent second part of which, "He gave his back to the smiters," was unfortunately omitted by Dr. Damrosch—she sang with a subdued fervor and elegiac pathos truly admirable. Steinway Hall, both at the rehearsal and at the concert, was crowded to overflowing, hundreds of people being unable to find seats. The chorus was considerably stronger than on former occasions, the orchestra selected from the best forces New York can muster. The stage was beautifully decorated with flowers.

—Some of the religious newspapers are engaged in an exciting discussion, into which they were plunged by a remark of the *Independent* to the effect that "our best schools" teach the doctrine that "man was, at least so far as his physical structure is concerned, evolved from irrational animals." The *Observer* at once challenged this, and wrote to the presidents of nine of "our best schools," namely: Yale, Princeton, Amherst, Williams, Brown, Lafayette, Union, Hamilton, and Rochester; omitting Harvard for what it possibly regarded as obvious reasons. All these gentlemen, with one consent, made reply scouting the statement of the unlucky *Independent*. President McCosh may perhaps be excepted; at least the *Independent* infers as much from his reply, that he does not "oppose development, but an atheistic development," and from his remark before the Evangelical Alliance, that "it is useless to tell the younger naturalists that there is no truth in the doctrine of development; for they know that there is truth which is not to be set aside by denunciation." But most of the rest are better represented by President Seelye's reply, which is in these terms: "This college does not yet teach groundless guesses for ascertained truths of science. So long as the notion that man is evolved from the monkey has not a single fact to rest upon, and is in flat contradiction to all the facts of history (*sic*), I think we may leave it with the sciolists." This is rather grotesquely rhetorical, and, considering that its author is at the head of an educational institution, exception may be taken to it on grounds of taste; we question if at Amherst the nebular hypothesis is referred to as a "notion," although it is a guess of the same kind as the development theory, and for aught we know may be in as "flat contradiction to all the facts of history." But it appears that neither at Amherst nor elsewhere are the students thus taught, and this is the instructive and suggestive part of the whole matter. The *Independent* points out that the Amherst professor of geology is "an unreserved theistic evolutionist," and, similarly, that at most of the other colleges in question the specific instruction in biology, palæontology, zoölogy, and so on is in harmony with the doctrine of evolution. From one point of view this is satisfactory, since—between "infidel" parents who would not send their sons to an institution that elevated the book of Genesis above the results of scientific research as science, and Christian parents who would object to the implication inseparable from such language as that of President Seelye, that there is anything seriously hostile to Christianity in any scientific theory—the opportunities for good of several colleges of the country would be appreciably diminished. On the other hand, it is certainly advisable that its president should be the mouthpiece of a college, and should both know what it teaches, and have the frankness—Christian or other—to declare it.

—The dead of 1879 include many men of action, and not a few whose labors have eminently contributed to the welfare of the race; but on the whole the list is not a shining one. The one ruler whose taking off was significant was Shir Ali, the luckless Amir of Afghanistan. An imperial pretender, the young Prince Napoleon, and an ex-queen *in petto*, Madam Patterson-Bonaparte, marked by their careers the beginning and the end of a dynasty. In Jacob Staempfli the Swiss Confederacy lost an ex-President—one of the Geneva Arbitration Commission, it will be remembered. Espartero lacked the name of sovereign, but more than once had held in his patriotic hands the destiny of his country. He ranks equally among the great statesmen and commanders. In the latter category stands first, for organizing ability, General Von Roon. A number of meritorious generals in our civil war, on both sides, Joseph Hooker, John B. Hood, John A. Dix, T. W. Sherman, Jeff. C. Davis, James Shields (a Mexican veteran also), and Dick Taylor, are among the missing; and Suleiman Pasha and Major Cavagnari may both be set down as victims of British Russophobia. Statesmen or politicians other than those already mentioned were Pierre Magne, of financial fame; John Arthur Roebuck, now buried under a Liberal successor; Isaac Butt, the Home-Ruler; Caleb Cushing, and Zachariah Chandler. A useful legislator was lost to Congress in the person of Gustav Schleicher, the Texan Representative. Mr. Delane, of the *Times*, had a more than parliamentary scope and power. He survived by a few months his fellow-journalist James Grant, of the *Morning Advertiser*, as well as Jean Hippolyte de Villemessant, editor of *Figaro*, Charles Appleton, editor and founder of the *Academy*, and Morton McMichael, editor of the Philadelphia *North American*. In this same city Dr. Isaac Hays edited for fifty-two years the *American Journal of Medical Science*, and Mrs. Sarah Josepha Hale, who was born with the Republic, was for fifty years editor of the *Lady's Book* and of the *Ladies' Magazine*, which she merged in the former.

—Literature proper loses William Howitt; Charles J. Wells, a rehabilitated poet; G. W. M. Reynolds, the novelist; Hepworth Dixon, who may stand between the romancers and the historians; George Long, the historian and editor of the 'Penny Cyclopædia'; George S. Hillard, who might also have been mentioned among the journalists: Col. Brantz Mayer, who wrote of Mexico's past and present, and of the slave-trade in his 'Captain Canot,' and was the founder of the Maryland Historical Society; Eliza Meteyard, the biographer of Wedgwood; Mrs. Adelaide Sartoris; Annie Keary, an historian and writer for children; John Weiss; Dr. Joseph P. Thompson; Jacob Abbott, the creator of the "Rollo" literature; Solovieff, author of a 'History of Russia' (unfinished) in thirty volumes; and Octave Delepierre, an antiquarian scholar. Voluminous writers, of course, were the political economists, Henry C. Carey and Michel Chevalier. The most famous of contemporary librarians, Sir Anthony Panizzi, of the British Museum, deserves the next place to authors. Among publishers conspicuous were Thomas Longman, whose own pen helped swell the book-list of his firm; John Blackwood, the last surviving son of the founder of his house; and John Blair Scribner.

—Science experienced its greatest loss in the premature death of Prof. W. K. Clifford and Prof. James Clerk Maxwell, both remarkable as mathematical and speculative geniuses. Prof. H. W. Dove, who has been called the Father of Meteorology; Bernhard von Cotta, the geologist; and Sir Thomas Maclear, astronomer, are the chief remaining names of distinction. Keith Johnston, whose devotion to the science of geography led him to risk his life in the heart of Africa; and George Chaworth Musters, the Patagonian explorer, come next in order. Art regrets Thomas Couture, the French painter, and his sometime pupil, William Morris Hunt; Sir Wm. Boxall, the English portraitist; John Adams Jackson, a Maine sculptor, who died in Italy; Dr. William Rimmer, sculptor and teacher; Honoré Daumier and Amédée de Noé ("Cham"), excellent caricaturists; Charles Henry Jeens, a remarkable engraver; and especially Viollet-le-Duc, architect, antiquarian, and critic. Charles Fechter is the only actor of prominence who has passed away within the twelvemonth. Among the deceased philanthropists and benefactors are found Sir Rowland Hill, the champion of cheap postage; William Lloyd Garrison; Elihu Burritt, an apostle of peace; E. C. Wines, the prison reformer; and Dr. Jacob Bigelow, a botanical author, whose chief monument is Mt. Auburn Cemetery, which he founded, and its host of imitators. We might also add to these Erastus B. Bigelow, the inventor of the carpet-loom and of so many improvements in manufacturing machinery, but for a doubt whether we did right in omitting him from the class of politicians and statesmen, he being the virtual author of our unequal and pernicious tariff on wool. A certain tie—that of "millionaire"—connects Lionel Nathan de Rothschild, the first Jew who ever sat in Parliament; Asa Packer; and Daniel Drew, unless one prefers to connect the two latter as "self-made men." Theology figures but little in the necrology of 1879, even if we include the founder of Drew Theological Seminary; Immanuel Hermann von Fichte, son of the great Fichte, is almost the solitary name of any consequence.

—The life and character of the late John Blackwood are summed up in the December number of the magazine he edited by "the humblest of the band of authors whom he gathered around him and maintained loyal to their allegiance." The article is naturally in the nature of a eulogium, and is written in a somewhat heightened manner, which, however, is in itself evidence of the writer's feeling of inability to do full justice to the dignity of his subject. Mr. Blackwood's life was apparently placidity itself; if it was at all eventful, it was not in any way which concerns the public, to which he was always hardly more than a name. He was one of the younger children of William Blackwood, the founder of the *Magazine*, and was born in Edinburgh December 7, 1818. He was graduated from Edinburgh University, and went abroad to travel and reside on the Continent for a term of three years. In 1839 he entered the house of Whittaker & Co., of London, to learn what was to be the business of his life,

and after a short probation he was placed in charge of a branch of the Edinburgh house which was at that time opened in Pall Mall. During the six years that he held this position his successes were marked. "As one of the first magnitude," his securing of the late Lord Lytton as a contributor to the *Magazine* is mentioned. Among his intimate friends were Thackeray (who, by the way, never contributed to *Blackwood*) and the late John Delane. In 1845 he returned to Edinburgh, and on the death of his older brother, Alexander, succeeded in the following year to the editorship of the *Magazine*—a position for which he may be said to have been all his life in training, and which he admirably filled. His knowledge of English *belles-lettres*, of modern English and Continental politics, and an intimacy "with what may be called the 'inner life' of the Conservative party from the days of Catholic emancipation downwards," are specified as a portion of his equipment. His memory was excellent, though it did not prevent him from being "anxiously sensitive" and exact in regard to all matters of fact; in his literary judgment he was "absolutely self-reliant," and once told the redoubtable Christopher North politely but firmly to mind his own business; "the rapidity with which he got at the gist of a book or an article" is, of course, referred to; he had the faculty of accomplishing much in a short time; his sense of humor gave him great tact in editorial management, though he was always a firm disciplinarian; in politics his well-known Conservatism, "if strong, was enlightened and progressive," we are assured, and it in no way affected his literary alliances. In 1852 the death of his brother Robert put him at the head of the publishing house, and he married two years later.

—The recent expression of English indignation at the proposal to "restore" the façade of St. Mark's has called out a report from the Italian Ministry of Public Instruction—which has been transmitted by the Minister of Foreign Affairs to General Menabrea, the Italian Ambassador in London—to the effect that, in the judgment of the Ministry, "the meetings in England had no *raison d'être*, inasmuch as the necessary instructions to secure the integrity of the Basilica had already been given some time ago." The report admits that it had been intended to rebuild the principal façade in the same way in which the northern front had been reconstructed by the Austrian Government, and the southern, more recently, by the Italian authorities. But this intention has now been changed; the "Ministry, having been legally authorized to provide directly, let no time be lost, but wrote in the month of May last to the Prefect of Venice to summon the Commission for the Preservation of Ancient Monuments to examine what had been done up to the present time and determine clearly what might be necessary, studying well the questions of preservation and restoration, and laying down exact regulations as to the course to be followed for the future." A thorough inspection having been made which showed that "errors had been committed in the restorations," an "order was given, which was instantly obeyed, and is still in force, that no further works should be executed by the *fabbriciere*, either in the reconstruction of the mosaics or in any of the decorative parts of the Basilica." This seems to make it plain that the total destruction of the principal façade by rebuilding is not any longer contemplated. But just what conclusions the Ministry will arrive at, as the result of their study of the "questions of preservation and restoration," and what "exact regulations as to the course to be followed in the future" they will be likely to lay down, remains to be seen. Judging from the ruthless and needless havoc which has been already made, and is still making, of the most precious monuments of mediæval art, under the name of restoration, almost everywhere in Italy, without any interference on the part of the Government, those who value the finest works of past art cannot feel much security in the results of their deliberations. Still, it is to be hoped that the newly-awakened sense of the seriousness of their responsibilities in this regard may have some salutary effect, and that at least those needless and truly shameful forms of so-called restoration—such as the tooling over of sculptures, the scraping down or unnecessary rebuilding of walls, and the repainting of pictures—may be in some measure stopped. Meanwhile the English protest has done good in rousing an angry feeling among the Italians against the meddlesome and patronizing spirit of the British public, a feeling which will naturally by degrees react against the public functionaries who expose them to the humiliation of having to confess that foreigners care more than Italians themselves for the integrity of the monuments of Italian glory.

—In Norway some comment has been caused by the differences which have arisen between King Oscar and Björnson, the author. The latter does not bear the King any malice, as has been frequently asserted; but he is a republican in his political views, and recently made an attack on monarchy in a poem entitled "The King." Shortly afterwards Björnson published a drama, "Leonarda," which, owing to its radical political tendencies, created intense excitement in Norway. Björnson offered the piece to the directors of the theatres in Christiania, Stockholm, and Copenhagen, but it was rejected. In Norway there is still a dramatic censorship. The present incumbent is Professor Molbech, who does not regard modern literature with much favor and is particularly prejudiced against the realistic direction of Björnson's writings. Molbech not only rejected "Leonarda," but, worse than that, recommended a sentimental production of his own. Then arose a perfect storm in the Scandinavian press, and even Danish newspapers called for an explanation. Everybody expected Molbech's dismissal; but, instead of this, the King decorated him with a medal of high order, a course which has been openly condemned by the press. By a singular coincidence the dramatic censor in Berlin has refused to allow Ristori to perform in Giacometti's "Maria Antonietta," for fear lest one or two scenes might have an exciting effect upon some of the audience. In a debate on this subject in the Landtag it was freely asserted that acts like this on the part of the Government would seriously injure the dramatic and literary reputation of Berlin.

FARRAGUT.*

THE Pacific Ocean, belying its name, seems to foster naval battles of peculiar violence. In November last the news came of the capture of the Peruvian *Huascar* by the Chilian *Blanco Encalada* and *Admiral Cochrane*, after a bloody resistance, in which the attempts of modern naval architecture to secure invulnerability seem to have been powerless to save life. This recalls another action in the same waters which came much nearer home to us. Sixty-six years ago, in the bay of Valparaiso, some seven hundred miles south of the scene of this Chilian fight, the *Essex*, under Captain Porter, a Boston boy, was captured by the *Phœbe* and *Cherub* of the British Navy. There is some analogy between the two engagements. The *Essex*, like the *Huascar*, had had a successful and destructive career; like her, she was caught in harbor; and, like her, she defended herself against heavy odds to the last extremity and with unusual loss of life.

On board the *Essex* was a young lad of twelve years, who had received a midshipman's warrant when he was only nine, and who had already, at the age of eleven, had command of a ship as prize-master. From the journal of this lad, written out after he had become the greatest sailor of his generation, we learn of the feeling of awe with which he saw the hostile ships approach, and read with his quick boyish perceptions in the faces around him the hopelessness of the case; of the sickening horror with which he saw the first man torn to pieces by a ball; and of the steadiness of nerve which action at once drew out from a bravery in the gristle that in the bone was to be the pattern and the praise of the world. During the fight he was actively employed carrying messages, serving at the guns, and taking a hand at anything. He was knocked down a companionway by the dead body of a man, but escaped with some bruises. He called to a sailor to dodge a ball he saw coming, and pulled him towards himself, but not in time to save the sailor's leg. A report was brought to the captain that a quarter-gunner had deserted his post. "The only reply of the captain," addressed to the boy, "was, 'Do your duty, sir'; whereupon he seized a pistol and went in pursuit of the fellow, but did not find him." The next morning he went on board the *Phœbe* "so mortified at our capture that he could not refrain from tears." In this condition he discovered the pet pig of the *Essex* in possession of a young reefer. He claimed him, and was told he could have him if he could whip his captor. A ring was formed and at it he went, beating his enemy handsomely. "So I took Master Murphy under my arm, feeling that I had, in some degree, wiped out the disgrace of our defeat." "I was sent for by Captain Hillyar (of the *Phœbe*) to come into his cabin, where Captain Porter was, and asked to take some breakfast, when, seeing my discomfiture, he remarked in a very kind manner, 'Never mind, my little fellow; it will be your turn next, perhaps.' I said I hoped so, and left the cabin to hide my emotion."

After this experience of the most stirring scenes of life, the young Farragut went North on parole, and used his leisure to go to school. He was prompt to improve similar chances for education during his youth, but they were few, short, and disconnected. He showed fair ability in

* 'Life and Letters of Admiral D. G. Farragut. By his son, Loyall Farragut.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879.

his studies and had a facility for modern languages, speaking French, Spanish, and Italian fluently, and picking up some knowledge of Arabic and Turkish at Tunis. His principal school was the best of all for a sailor, an old-fashioned sailing man-of-war. His intelligence was good, his observation keen, and his zeal and ambition unflagging to master every detail of his profession. When, at twenty-two, he obtained his first command, he was a consummate sailor. His father was for a short time a sailing-master in the Navy, with a fondness for salt water; the exploit of his life on which he prided himself most was sailing an open pirogue from New Orleans to Havana. His father's father was a Spaniard of Minorca. His mother's mother was a Scotchwoman named McIven. To her blood, rather than to his connection with the nation of Columbus, Anglo-Saxons will be prone to attribute his aptness for the sea.

Farragut was an industrious officer, passing an unusual portion of his life afloat, and winning a high but not pre-eminent reputation for soundness of judgment, character, courage, and efficiency. From a boy he had been peculiar for a natural command of men. On two occasions in particular he was in merchantmen threatened by pirates. Assuming the command which nature alone had given him, he infused his spirit into the dismayed crews, made dispositions for defence, and came off safe. His own relatives and those of his two wives were Southern, and his feelings were naturally with them. But his loyalty and his judgment never wavered. One morning at Norfolk the choice presented itself to him, and with characteristic decision that same afternoon he sailed with his wife for the North and the Northern cause. He was at first put on a retiring board. When the expedition against New Orleans was resolved upon, three men were under consideration to lead it. Mr. Welles selected Farragut, and the history of his uninterrupted career of success and fame from that time is well known. At the beginning of the war he was a hale, active man of sixty, of well-built and powerful figure, keen eye, quick and resolute step, kindly face, and the easy, winning manners that come of large intercourse with men. As he sat in an arm-chair on the quarter deck of the *Hartford* in Mobile Bay, with a chart on his knee and some of his favorite young officers leaning on the back of his chair, looking over his shoulder, and as he talked with them with his animated face and pleasant voice, he suggested more the idea of an elegant, hospitable planter than the typical god of war. He was fond of society, enjoying it whenever occasion offered; of implicit and undoubting self-reliance; with a pleasant appreciation of his own abilities and attainments; and an intense and reverent devoutness. The impression he gave was especially one of character, frankness, and manliness.

It is instructive to see how the training of Farragut's life prepared his success. Not that the training or the occasion for its use were exceptional, so much as that the training was so thorough that it was equal to any emergency that could arise in a ship. He notices the excellence of the fire department in the *Essex* when he was a boy, and the advantage of it. The excellence of his own fire department saved the *Hartford* when she was set on fire in front of Fort St. Philip. In the *Essex* also he observes that many "fine fellows bled to death for want of tourniquets." When about to pass Port Hudson he brought to his only son, who was on board, a tourniquet, and showed him how to use it in case of need. When landing in New York after the *Essex* fight the vessel he was in was fired at by mistake for some time by a battery. He made up his mind then that "it was not such an awful thing to lie under a battery"—the opinion he acted on some fifty years after. In the *Washington*, "a crack ship" in 1816, the misery of the men made him determined never to have a "crack" ship if it was only to be attained by severity. In the war he was so far from being a martinet as to call for additional strictness on the part of his fleet-captain.

His victories were victories of character rather than of intellect. His expeditions were prescribed for him by the Navy Department, and other men might have been assigned to them with fair hope of success. He used the regulation crews, ships, and guns. He owed no advantage to juggling device or shrewd ingenuity. His tactics were simple and without novelty. His favorite theory was that "the best way to save yourself is to injure your adversary." He used to maintain that he would pass forts with anything that would float his guns. His preparation for every attack was most thorough, minute, and painstaking. Nothing was left to chance that could be anticipated. When the time for action came his composure, quickness of perception, resolution, and command of his fleet proved invincible. The lesson of his life is that his success was no accident. The growth of sixty years burst into blossom in the six hours' actual fighting that covered his career. In his attacks on forts he re-established the principles held by military engineers, that fleets even of sailing vessels, with leading wind and tide, can pass by forts with considerable confidence; and that guns afloat are powerless to inflict much damage on elevated earthworks. His contests with vessels marked the close of the old era and the beginning of the new. They showed how much and how little reliance is to be placed on unarmored vessels in great superiority of force, highly efficient, and perfectly fought, when opposed to the modern inventions of torpedoes and armored vessels.

The poverty of the article in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' on Admiral Farragut shows how scanty the knowledge of him apart from his exploits has been. This want has at length been most happily supplied by the life just written, at his request, by his only child. It is largely composed of the journal kept by the Admiral himself and of his letters, with an occasional explanatory commentary by the author. There is little that is new after the beginning of the war. The reports had been published before, and the history of his exploits has long been familiar. The latter part is rather tedious with its guide-book descriptions, repeating the voyage of the *Franklin* printed some years ago. But the story of Farragut's early life, the letters to his family, and the revelations of character make the book a marked addition to literature. His son has performed his pious duty with excellent taste and modesty, and justified to the world the affection which such a father naturally won.

RECENT POETRY.

THE sisters Elaine and Dora Read Goodale have followed 'Apple Blossoms' with another volume of short poems entitled 'In Berkshire with the Wild Flowers' (Putnam), which indicates that the authors are a year older, we think, though it seems possible that several of the verses were written some time ago. They are, however, so far the most attractive upon our list that consideration of the age of the writers in the way of making allowances, or looking at them as promises rather than performances, seems quite out of place. The Goodale sisters have, moreover, a distinct note of their own, which is more than can be said for many writers of verses who have nevertheless won popular recognition as "poets," and we do not see any evidence that time is changing its character or doing anything but developing it, as it does the genius of every young writer before he reaches his full power of expression. This note was as perceptible in the first published verses of these young girls as it is in those before us, though it has naturally grown maturer. It is still thoroughly simple, and, what is more, still distinctly poetic; it still seems almost without effort. We are obliged to say "almost" because the conditions of the task attempted prevent its being wholly spontaneous, perhaps. To characterize twenty-nine different wild flowers so as to make a book called 'In Berkshire with the Wild Flowers,' and to characterize them poetically—that is to say, to avoid botanizing—is a piece of literary work in which a far more practised hand, given the same poetical force, would be unlikely to conceal all traces of effort. And yet it is done here so successfully in the main that we are inclined to think that most of the poems were written, or wrote themselves, so to speak, before the book was thought of. In those written by the younger writer especially there is no strain whatever discoverable. The genius of the two is strikingly similar, but we confess that just at this stage, if we may so express ourselves, we find the pieces of Miss Dora a trifle more attractive, because, evidently, she does not feel that any burden of responsibility rests upon her shoulders. To make matters even, however, we may add that her sister's work is a trifle the maturer, and that at the age of Miss Elaine she will probably be paying the same penalty, and finding it difficult to make her tongue utter the thoughts that arise in her. We ought not to imply that the older sister has lost any of the facility of expression which has been so marked in both, but it is evident that she is getting beyond mere imagery into the domain of sentiment, and her reflection seems, for the present at least, a little less spontaneous than her observation. Nevertheless, although it may at times appear too much pondered, or even labored, it manages to maintain its poetic quality, and so to avoid the commonplace which, minus its poetry, the idea might sometimes become. One of the best, if not the best, of her poems is that on "Indian Pipe," and it illustrates this exactly. There is a hint of ambitiousness about the verses, indicating that to the writer "a primrose by the river's brim" is by no means only a yellow primrose any longer, but embodies a sentiment or suggests an idea. It is a very pretty idea here, too, no one can gainsay:

> "The wonder by her was formed
> Who stands supreme in her power;
> To show that life by the spirit comes
> She gave us a soulless flower!"

But as a whole the verses display a determination to find a significance in simple things which is only quite satisfactory when it seems to disclose itself. The same may be said of the verses on "The Thistle," in which the conceit is more than fanciful and is really grotesque; though in both instances it is poetic, it should be borne in mind. What we like best, and what will for some time yet, probably, continue to be most attractive in the poetry of the sisters, is such purely pictorial verses as those of the younger on "The Daisy." There is so much vividness and such a pretty movement in these that we must find room for a stanza or two:

"The air is sweet with a strange perfume
That comes from the depths of the woodland places;
The fields are hid in a wealth of bloom,
And white with the sweep of the ox-eye daisies!

. . . . . .

"And then when the wind across it blows,
And the wavering lines of silver follow,
We catch the gleam of her heart of gold,
While over her skims the fleet-winged swallow."

It is clear that *she* is not yet full of thoughts that do lie too deep for tears.

Mrs. Mary Mapes Dodge has made a book of a number of her poems that have already appeared in various magazines, supplemented by enough that are now for the first time published to make a little volume of 135 pages, called 'Along the Way' (Scribner). They are of a "homely" character, it may be said, if by that somewhat vague term be understood that which is not only domestic, but in any way familiar, intimate, sensible, and, though not wholly superficial, at least the reverse of recondite. Some of them recount little incidents of a pathetic or other nature, such as that entitled "Motherless," in which his little girl first brings the tears to her father's eyes by allusion to her dead mother, and then kisses them dry with many childish endearments—an incident which, if told in rhythm, cannot but be touching however ill done, and here it is well done. Others are short poems on such subjects as "Faith," "Trust," "Death in Life," "Long Ago," "Once Before," the character of which will not be inferred amiss from the several titles. Each was undoubtedly the result of a genuine impulse, is entirely straightforward and unaffected, and displays a good ear and practised hand at rhyme and metre.

'Idylls and Poems' (Putnam) is the title of a rather more ambitious volume, by Anna Maria Fay. For example, the first poem, 'The Pilgrim Pair," though called an idyll, has a moral, or rather philosophical, purpose, which is to allegorize Plato's idea that "the true lover and not the counterfeit must be loved by his love." Accordingly, from a height above a charming landscape the youth at first looks out over the world, then descends to enter the cool groves, when suddenly he beholds the maiden pondering

"What has been said by the dear Master sage:
When heaven a soul has there dissevered,
The parted mates meet here on this rude stage,
That Love may win the plumes for their home pilgrimage."

She looks up, and the two recognize each other as their respective affinities. They become separated, and the youth is partially enthralled by the Siren, whose spell, however, is of brief duration, and when the shipwreck comes he is the only one of the revellers who survives. He is cast ashore, and since he repented before the danger threatened, the maiden appears to him again, and, after a meeting of "rapturous pain," the "Pilgrim Pair" are translated. We do no justice to the poem by such a bald epitome. It is written in Spenserian verse, and with a full enough vocabulary and a sufficient amount of skill to make the frequent use as dissyllables of such words as "grievèd," "closèd," "bruisèd," "soothèd," and so on, inexcusable; unless they are designed to give an archaic flavor to the poem, which, in other respects, certainly it does not possess. We note also an obscurity needless for the same reasons To the writer's expertness in versification various rondeaus, rondels, ballads, songs, and sonnets testify.

Of 'Risk, and Other Poems,' by Charlotte Fiske Bates (A. Williams & Co.), and of 'Out of the Shadows: A Song with Variations,' by James B. Kenyon (Lippincott), we do not need to speak at any length. In the former there is to be remarked an extraordinary variety of subject, together with considerable identity of treatment; in many of the poems a heroic vein is hum-ored at the expense, now and then, of poetic feeling, as, for example, in an address to Shakspere beginning "Adam of Poets"; in many there is a melancholy note, and we feel that Miss Bates takes life quite as seriously as, upon the whole, any one is called upon to do. Mr. Kenyon's alternative title accurately describes his book; it consists of a succession of short songs and sonnets on such plaintive variations of the theme love as "Gone," "Supplication," "Unrequited," "A Tear," "Desolation," "A Winter Hope," etc. He has a faculty for landscape-painting; some of his verses are sweet and musical, and the fervor with which he treats the tender passion, which is his main subject, is both real and, for the most part, restrained.

'Holy Songs, Carols, and Sacred Ballads' (Roberts Brothers) is a fresh illustration of the difficulty, notwithstanding the assistance generally furnished by the subjects, of writing good hymns and sacred songs. 'Lord Stirling's Stand, and Other Poems' (Lippincott), contains all the poems Mr. W. H. Babcock has ever written that he thinks worth preserving. He wants, he says, "to do some good where I cannot go, and make some friends whom I may never see," and we may wish him all success, while pointing out that this is no spirit in which to approach the muse, and omitting to linger over his rather lively and brisk verses. He is especially stirred up about the wrongs of the Indian.

Appleton's Dictionary of New York and Vicinity. Compiled by Townsend Percy. (New York: D. Appleton & Co.)—Mr. Percy, as in duty bound, gives Mr. Charles Dickens due credit for the invention, in his alphabetic 'Dictionary of London,' of the general plan of the present work; but it may safely be said that the New York Dictionary is better than its model. A careful and thorough reading of it and a random search have failed to reveal any misleading cross-references (which Mr. Dickens did not wholly avoid) or any serious errors of omission or of commission, though the American task was far more difficult than the London. The abundant labors of antiquaries and of popularizers like the late Walter Thornbury and Mr. Edward Walford had smoothed the path of those seeking for knowledge of old and new London. More, indeed, has been done for New York's antiquities than Mr. Percy has taken cognizance of: still, if the stranger within our gates wishes to know where Mackerelville is, or the Swamp, or Murray Hill, or any of the other places known to the oldest inhabitant, but rarely set down as such on the map, he can find out by consulting the 'Dictionary of New York,' along with particulars of all the leading churches, societies, hospitals, libraries, theatres, clubs, art-galleries and art-dealers, banks, restaurants, hotels and apartment-houses, public offices, railroad and steamboat lines, newspapers, etc., etc. All the suburbs and places in the neighborhood of New York are to be found, each under its name, with information as to the ways and means of getting there. All the prominent places in the city, squares, and special regions, are to be found here—Union Square, the Battery, "Africa," and "Germany," although we have been able to find no reference to a quarter smaller than the German or the negro, but still distinct and of interest—the French. In general the information given is surprisingly accurate and brought well down to date. Now and then a trifling exception may be noted. The St. Germain Hotel, for instance, is now in process of reconstruction; and in the newspaper list the long-defunct *Britannic* appears, while the change of address on the part of our lively contemporary, *Puck*, is not set down.

In a prefatory note the publishers announce that, although many business names are by the very plan of the work required to be mentioned, there are no advertisements in disguise in the book, and it is evident to any one who reads the Dictionary with even ordinary attention that private interests have been impartially treated by one who has ample knowledge, and is a very good judge of what is best worth seeing in the city and best worth doing. In conclusion, nothing remains to be said but that for nine visitors out of ten to the metropolis this 'Dictionary of New York' is an admirable guide, and that to many a resident of the city it will prove not only entertaining, but useful, and, in some senses, at least, indispensable.

A Lady's Life in the Rocky Mountains. By Isabella L. Bird, author of 'Six Months in the Sandwich Islands,' etc., etc. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1879-80. 12mo, pp. xii. 296.)—Miss Bird is an intelligent, refined, and now much-travelled English lady, whose idea of happiness consists not in making merely fatiguing journeys, unprotected, to the ends of the earth, but in such incidents as riding in Rocky Mountain snow all day long and alone, with the mercury from 30° to 50° below the freezing point, in herding cattle with the mountain herdsmen, and in climbing Long's Peak under the escort of the wildest of Rocky Mountain desperadoes. Add that Miss Bird's first adventure consisted in being pitched over her horse's head by the appearance of an enormous bear; that, in spite of this beginning, she rode eight hundred miles (astride) through the wildest and remotest parts of Colorado, and you have the picture of one of those inexplicable northern characters which are the despair of criticism. Happily

we are not called upon in this instance to make a psychological analysis, but simply to accompany the writer in one of the roughest tours that were ever begun and continued, even by an Englishman, for the sake of pleasure. Miss Bird left San Francisco on the 1st of September, 1877, for the Rocky Mountains, and regretfully quitted them about the middle of December, being actually congealed out of the country, the thermometer marking 20° below zero when she reached Cheyenne. Meanwhile she had "stopped over" in the Sierras to see Lake Tahoe and Donner Lake, and had explored the wild region of the foot-hills between the Pacific Railway and Long's Peak, spending great part of her time in Estes Park; to describing the beauty of this high and secluded valley much of her narrative is given. She indulges too much, perhaps, in description of the Rocky Mountain scenery; the reader's last impression of it remains, however, that which she expresses in the first sentences of her book—namely, that it is "not lovable, like the Sandwich Islands, but beautiful in its own way; a strictly North American beauty: snow-splotched mountains, huge pines, red-woods, sugar-pines, silver spruce; a crystalline atmosphere; waves of the richest color." Miss Bird is after all an enthusiast over the Rocky Mountain views, but her enjoyment of them appears to have been due more to the pure atmospheric and sunlight effects of a brilliant climate and a great elevation than to the real charms of mountain forms and color.

As to the observation of Western men and manners, Miss Bird's book suggests Mrs. Trollope's famous 'Domestic Manners,' though it cannot compare for a moment with the careful fulness of those vivacious studies. Miss Bird has lost an opportunity here. She would have made a better book had she told us less about the sunsets and more about the people that she saw. But her notes on manners are frank and interesting as far as they go, and they have a reflected interest in the fact that they depict precisely the same character in which Mrs. Trollope found so much to censure. The same narrowness, intolerance, and bigotry, the same dislike to courtesy of manners—"to say a man is 'polished' here is to give him a bad name"; the same aversion to foreigners, and particularly to the English; the same prevailing dishonesty in business dealings, and the universal discomfort of the settlers' daily lives—all these traits, and others which Mrs. Trollope noted in the "far West" of 1828, Miss Bird notes, with unconscious repetition, forty-five years later; all, according to her testimony, are accurately reproduced in the life of the far West to-day. The habitat of the pioneer character is changed, but the character, as these two observers draw it, remains the same. It is to be regretted that Miss Bird did not take the trouble, as Mrs. Trollope did, to record actual conversations at length. The faults of her book are haste (the whole being composed of rapidly-written and scarcely-edited private letters), and the consequent prolixity and constant repetitiousness of the style. It is not an easy book to read from cover to cover.

The Military Religious Orders of the Middle Ages. By F. C. Woodhouse, M A., Rector of St. Mary's, Hulme, Manchester. (London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge; New York: Pott, Young & Co. 1879. 8vo, pp. xvii. 360.)—The title of this book, only a part of which we transcribe, is, as Macaulay said of the title of Nares's Life of Burleigh, "as long as a preface." The preface and each of the chapters are preceded by short extracts, generally from some poet or chronicler, after the manner of Scott's novels. These external indications lead one to expect a somewhat enthusiastically written book. On the contrary, whenever the author himself tells the story it is languid, though the nature of the subject does not permit it to be dull. The history of the crusading knights of the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries is in itself so attractive, especially to the younger class of readers, that hardly any one capable of writing passable English could avoid making a readable book. The present volume is "published under the direction of the Tract Committee," which is, perhaps, a sufficient reason for its containing only so much of the history of the principal orders of knighthood as most people of literary tastes would like to know. The style is colorless, the facts are authentic, and the moral reflections are entirely proper. The history of the Knights-Hospitallers, or, as they were variously called at different periods, the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, Knights of Rhodes, and Knights of Malta, occupies considerably more than one-half the volume. The two most interesting and important events in their history were the siege and final capitulation of Rhodes in 1522, when Philippe Villiers de l'Isle-Adam was Grand Master of the Order, and the siege of Malta in 1565, when the knights, under the command of the Grand Master Jean de la Valette, succeeded in repulsing the Turks. Whoever takes pleasure in reading of what can be accomplished by skill, fortitude, and daring, exerted to the extreme of human ability, will peruse with interest the history of these two sieges. Mr. Woodhouse, however, does not take advantage of his opportunities. He does not court a comparison between himself and the many able writers who have treated the subject. The story of the siege of Rhodes is, in great part, told in the words of an anonymous writer, and the narrative of the most interesting portion of the siege of Malta is taken, with due acknowledgments, from Prescott's 'Philip II.'

The history of the Knights-Templar (Part ii.) and the Knights of the Teutonic Order (Part iii.) is treated much more briefly. Of the fifty-four pages devoted to the Templars, one-half is occupied with the revolting story of their suppression by Philip the Fair in France and Edward II. in England (1307-13). It could not be expected that the book would throw any new light upon the question of the truth or falsity of the charges against the Templars. It does not belong to the class of works which are made after grubbing among faded original documents and mouldy government archives. Mr. Woodhouse wisely abstains from attempting to clear up matters which historians like Hallam and Schlosser have investigated without arriving at any certain result. The matter, however, is of secondary historical importance. The guilt or innocence of the Templars had nothing to do with their fate. They were rich, and the kings wanted money. Hence they were seized and tried by those who were directly or indirectly to profit by their destruction. They were in due course racked and burned at the stake, and the kings confiscated their estates. In that age of the world such methods had become almost commonplace. Part iv. of the work consists of a dozen pages devoted to the Spanish and Portuguese Orders, and Part v. of half as many touching the English Orders. They call for no special notice.

The appendix, which fills forty-four pages, may be of some use for reference, and to most readers will be curious. It gives a brief account of the origin and history of more than two hundred Orders of Chivalry, "Legendary, Honorary, and Modern." There is no index, and neither the number of the part or of the chapter, nor the matters treated, are indicated at the top of the page; but the paper is white, the print large, the margins broad, and the binding neat. It would no doubt prove an acceptable book to those who have graduated in Scott and James and would "like to read some history."

Chequer-Work. By Thomas G. Appleton. (Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1879.)—Mr. Appleton's volume is of the kind which one identifies sufficiently in saying that it affects unpretentiousness. A collection of trifles, having no closer relations to each other than beads strung on a string, each bodying forth some light or pensive mood of the author's mind, or recording some slight adventure, or photographing some memory, and each polished to the degree of refined elegance, is the description which the preface it lacks would have given of it, we may fancy. At least it is the work of a dilettante, and no one is so little likely to exaggerate the import, however he may overestimate the quality, of his work as the dilettante. Not the least attractive of its contents are two photographic reproductions of Tanagra figurines which accompany the paper on "The Artist of Tanagra." This is designed to be an imaginative sketch, of a fleeting perfume and exquisitely light touch, about Athens and Bœotia in the days "before the world was mad with locomotion," when the figurines were modelled; it describes Phidias taking the young Bœotian sculptor by the hand and saying: "Be of good cheer, for I, who encourage you, am Phidias." A romance is interwoven with the web of essay, or *vice versa*. The next paper is on "The Love of the First-Rate," and is the most characteristic, perhaps, in the volume. It is an elaborate parallel between the ancient and "the modern Athens," and its title is suggested by the chief trait of the latter. Indeed, "it is unquestionably this ardent, this passionate quest of excellence which has had much to do with the name it has achieved of 'the modern Athens.'" "The very air in its crystal purity reminds the traveller of the sky of Hellas," and though "the purity is here too great," and, to say nothing of pulmonary troubles, "the distance asserts itself with a startling audacity," still it is enough like the air of Greece to mislead even the inhabitants. The best English in America is written there, "the thunders of the rostrum as well as its music" echo Demosthenes, and though "our Frog-pond certainly is no Ilyssus, we have a *bema* in Faneuil Hall." The topography of the two cities is similar; the gilded dome of the State-House suggests the Parthenon in some occult but sufficient manner; the Rev. Joseph Cook expounding "the ways of God to a ravished auditory" recalls the lectures of the Academy; and Greek

liberalism in religion is typified by the Boston creed which "finds the reasonable God of Unitarianism the natural expression of its sedate maturity." The satirist is always in some degree a libeller, and it is pleasant to observe that Mr. Appleton has no inclination towards satire; he could not otherwise be so minute and, at the same time, so just. The reader feels there must be something in what he says even if it bears against the Athens of to-day, and that, however unconsciously made, the charge involved in such a statement as "our very courtesy is best expressed when tempered with pity" is not wholly groundless. Or this, which is even more subtle: "If our conditions, through race and climate, are less favorable to certain ends than befriended our ancient namesake, still the temper of the town has always been resolute and sleepless to follow in her footsteps"; or this: "There are people here who simply cannot enjoy. They are not mellow and foolish enough for that." Here the parallel begins to be dropped, and, indeed, the feeling left by the rest of the paper is that its title should rather have been "The Desire for the Love of the First-Rate." The remaining sketches are less suggestive. That called "The Gashed Helmet" is an unterrifying ghost story; "May a Monkey possess Genius?" is debated with humorous intention, we fancy, in another; still another discourses of "The Philistine"; another pleads the cause of Protection in a vein which shuns polemics and is so good-natured that the most rabid free-trader will find nothing in it to provoke retort; and there are eight others on various matters, making fourteen trifles in all.

Anderson's Historical Series. A History of Rome. Amply illustrated with maps, plans, and engravings. By R. F Leighton, Ph.D. (Lips.), author of 'Critical History of Cicero's Letters ad Familiares,' 'Latin Lessons,' 'Greek Lessons,' etc. (New York: Clark & Maynard. 1879. 12mo, pp. 515.)—Mr. Leighton's 'History of Rome' is much more than a school text-book; it is an attempt to present in a compendious and consecutive form the results of the latest scholarship in the field of Roman history and antiquities. It is, therefore, designed for college classes rather than for schools; it deserves also to be strongly recommended to all teachers of ancient history as an almost indispensable part of their apparatus; for nowhere else in the English language can be found much of the matter contained in this volume. Mommsen's history is almost the only work of recent German scholarship in this field which has been translated into English, and Mr. Leighton is by no means a slavish follower of Mommsen, having been, indeed, at Leipsic a pupil of Mommsen's great rival, Lange. Moreover, those who would fully understand Mommsen's views upon controverted points must go to his other works, for in his history he seldom takes the pains to set forth his reasons. Now, Mr. Leighton aims not merely to arrive at independent conclusions, but in many cases to weigh opposing views and present the arguments for the one he adopts. This is a very difficult undertaking, and on the whole we may fairly congratulate him on his success in it. He has not always been able to resist the temptation to enter more into detail than is wise; his erudition has sometimes mastered him—for instance, who cares whether the name of Pompey's captain, mentioned on page 353, was Menas or Menodorus? Very properly most of the antiquarian matter has been put in foot-notes or in separate chapters; the text is, on the whole, reasonably free from irrelevant matter, while the notes contain a really surprising amount of valuable and interesting information. We find, however, an occasional lack of proportion, and sometimes even repetitions; and on the whole one would say that Mr. Leighton's aspect was that of the antiquarian rather than the historian. The text abounds in graphic and interesting anecdotes, but there is a lack of elasticity in the narration, and of the vivid presentation of events and of causes in which the highest value of history consists.

It is not that the historical sense is wanting; this is shown most distinctly in the admirable maps, which often contain information that is to all intents and purposes new. We do not remember, for instance, ever to have seen brought out so distinctly as in Map 5 (Gaul in the time of Cæsar) the political condition of the border land separating Cisalpine and Transalpine Gaul—that which was afterwards organized into the two petty provinces of Alpes Maritimæ and Alpes Cottiæ. See also Map 4 for the Mithridatic War. There should, however, also be a map giving the provincial system and the successive divisions of the Empire in the fourth and fifth centuries. Among the many points which deserve especial mention we will note the prominence given to the native (Umbrian) inhabitants of Etruria (conquered by the Rasenna) as an element of the Roman nationality (p. 11), and the recognition of the maritime position of Rome and its liberal laws of trade as one cause of its early rapid growth (p. 14); the chapter on the military organization also contains much new and valuable material. The view of the *patrum auctoritas* here given is based upon Lange's profound and philosophical application to this point of the principles of gentile society; its further development and special relation to the *lex curiata de imperio* seem to us very doubtful. When the second triumvirate is mentioned (p. 348) it ought to be stated that it was a real magistracy, not a mere "ring" like the first. The guilds re-established by Clodius (p. 307) were not the old trade-guilds, but political clubs which ostensibly had a religious foundation.

The Reader's Handbook of the American Revolution. 1761–1783. By Justin Winsor, Librarian of Harvard University, etc. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1880. 12mo.)—This book is defined in the preface as being "like a continuous foot-note to all histories of the American Revolution. It points out sources, but it includes also the second-hand authorities, though not all of them." If this volume prove practically useful it is to be followed by "others covering themes of History, Biography, Travel, Philosophy, Science, Literature, and Art." Of this practical utility we should think there could be no question. Neither does the book consist of notes exclusively, but each division is headed by a very brief sketch of the events in question; so that the student will find, scattered through the volume, what is really an abridged history of the period. To illustrate the method, we open at random at the battle of Camden, Aug. 16, 1780 (p. 229). Here we read: "Gates was confronted by Cornwallis at Camden, and the American army was routed." Then follow "American Accounts," 10 lines; then "De Kalb was mortally wounded," with references; then "British Accounts," 10 lines; "Maps," 4 lines; and at the end a reference to Simms's novel, 'The Partisan.' There is, of course, a good index.

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The Week.

THE Maine judges have promptly replied to the twelve questions submitted to them by Governor Garcelon touching the powers and duties of the Governor and Council acting as a canvassing board. The questions cover almost all, if not all, the important points in the controversy, but of course are only interesting, outside the State, through their effect on the composition of the Legislature. The answers go against the Governor and Council on every point, and affirm the great principle that constitutional requirement regarding the form of returns is largely directory, and "does not aim at depriving the people of the right of suffrage or of their right of representation for formal errors, but aims at avoiding such results." The answers of the judges will, it is calculated, if heeded by the Legislature, seat thirty-seven Representatives and nine Senators. What the Governor will or can do seems at this writing not to be known, but if he is wise he will, for his own credit, do whatever he can by way of acquiescence. The affair will be very useful by way of warning to both parties, and we believe it has done much good to many Republicans by bringing home to them the true nature of "counting in," and teaching them the danger even of doing good by processes of this sort. It would often be pleasant and convenient if doubtful means could be reserved for good men in pursuit of noble ends, but unfortunately the wicked are very sharp and learn the tricks of the righteous with deplorable rapidity.

On New Year's Day Governor Robinson vacated his office and Mr. Cornell entered upon it. The former gave his successor a solemn sketch of the nature of the duties he would have to perform, and propounded the somewhat startling theory that "every appropriation of public money not necessary for the proper administration of the government" is a violation of "the Eighth Commandment of the sacred Decalogue." Men's views of what is "proper" administration of the Government differ so widely that we fear this rule would not be of much use in practice. We believe Governor Robinson considers the new State Capitol entirely unnecessary, but he can hardly believe that all concerned in erecting it are a gang of thieves and receivers. Mr. Cornell's address to his predecessor was very complimentary, and gave a very different account of him from that current in Republican newspapers during the late canvass. Who would suppose that this described a miserable old rascal who had been prostituting all the powers of his office to promote the ends of Tilden, whose tool he was, and from whom he was in constant receipt of depraved inspiration?

"Governor Robinson, for twenty years you have occupied an influential position in the councils of the State. Chosen repeatedly to the Legislature, and for several terms elected Comptroller, you served with such steadfast ability as to win promotion to the Executive office by an unprecedented vote. As chief magistrate you have vigorously and fearlessly exercised your official prerogatives, and given your administration high rank with those which have preceded it."

There is a rumor, at this writing, that Governor Cornell, besides doing other bad things, will renominate Smyth as Superintendent of the Insurance Department, an office charged with very important and, indeed, in view of the nature of life insurance, somewhat sacred functions. Smyth has been holding this office, and was impeached last year for gross abuse of his trust. The evidence showed a shocking state of things; but Smyth, being an active and valuable henchman of Senator Conkling's, was acquitted in the teeth of it by a combination between the Tammany and Republican "Machine" Senators. We do not know what there is to warrant the supposition that Mr. Cornell now means to reappoint him for another term, but we do think the *Times's* appeal to him not to do this thing, and to turn over a new leaf in making his appointments generally, is one which he would be fully justified in disregarding. There was no mention of State affairs in the platform on which he was nominated, and no mention was made of them by his supporters in the canvass. He was elected with strict reference to the affairs of Louisiana and Mississippi and South Carolina, and about them we have no doubt his conduct will be irreproachable. He will discountenance murders and the disagreement of jurors in murder trials in those States. He will also set his face like flint against the seizure of the United States Government by the Brigadiers, and the levy of a tax of $1,000,000,000 (or was it $2,000,000,000?) on the people of the North for the payment of "rebel claims." These are the things, apparently, for which he was elected. As regards the Insurance Department, his supporters in remaining silent about it virtually acquiesced in his acting as his antecedents must have led them to suppose he would act—*i. e.*, as a henchman and Machine politician. The *Times* gave him but a poor support, but it helped vigorously to create the state of feeling about the "Solid South" and "State-rights" which, combined with the Kelly bolt, made his election possible.

The Supreme Court has denied Mr. Edmunds's motion to advance the Butler-Chittenden legal-tender case on the calendar, on the ground that it will not hear constitutional cases in the absence of a full bench. Judge Hunt's place is now vacant, and we shall therefore have to wait for it to be filled before the case can come up. This is, perhaps, a wise rule, in view of what happened in the Hepburn *v.* Griswold case; but we hope it is not true that the Court as it now stands is equally divided on this point, and that the new justice will thus have the casting vote, for, if so, the temptation to find out the opinion of the lawyer who is nominated before he gets the nomination will be very strong, if not irresistible.

Mr. Parnell and his coadjutors arrived here on Saturday and addressed a large meeting in Gilmore's Garden on Sunday evening. His audience is said to have numbered seven thousand, and was very noisy and obstreperous, and by no means in a deliberative frame of mind, and applauded all strong language frantically, apparently without caring much what it meant. The speech was a curious one. Mr. Parnell confessed that he had originally intended coming out here to solicit contributions for the Home-Rule organization, of which he is the head, and "which is ultimately to effect the regeneration of Ireland," but the famine coming on before he started he determined to solicit contributions for the relief of distress also, but "the funds for these purposes will be kept distinct." He referred to the comments of the *Herald* on his mission, and to the letters from Irish landlords which have appeared in that paper, and then devoted himself exclusively to the question of reforming the Irish land-laws, taking ground about entail, transfer, titles, and so on which is substantially that of the English land-reformers, and produced a programme which must, of course, be carried out by British legislation, and the discussion of which in detail in New York, before an uproarious crowd, was in the highest degree absurd, and seems to confirm the reports which have long been current about Mr. Parnell's want of humor. His speech showed clearly that his plans had been disarranged by the reception given him by the press, and that he does not well know what tack to take now. The *Times's* suggestion, that when Irish politicians get into trouble of any kind the first thing that occurs to them is "to take up a collection" in America, after the example of the boys caught in a storm in a boat, who proposed this as the only religious exercise they could think of, has a diverting but painful appropriateness to Mr. Parnell's mission.

The momentum of the "hard-cider" campaign which made General Harrison President was acquired by nominating him at

Harrisburg in the December previous to the election of 1840. Action almost as premature seems to have been thought necessary by the present Republican managers, or we may as well say by Senator Don Cameron, who has selected February as a proper time for holding the Pennsylvania Republican convention. There is a general agreement that this selection, which meets with strong condemnation even from Republican organs, has reference to the Grant boom in some way, but it does not seem to settle the question whether the Chairman of the Republican Executive Committee is working for Grant or for Secretary Sherman. The convention will doubtless find resolutions prepared for it indicating its preference for the party candidate at Chicago; it will humbly confirm the appointment of the delegates now being carefully picked for the Chicago convention; and it may with less grace instruct these delegates to the effect that the voice of the majority shall be the voice of the body, in every contingency. In political calculations a unit, of course, causes far less trouble than independent fractions. Now, one view of the situation appears to be this, that Mr. Cameron, having made sure of his majority, will induce the convention to name General Grant plumply as its favorite; and that this will be easy because the boom, although on the wane as is alleged, will still be potent enough in February. By the time the Chicago convention assembles, however, the boom will have dwindled to such an extent that Grant's chances will be good for nothing; and when this becomes apparent, Mr. Cameron's majority will quietly carry over the delegation to Mr. Sherman.

Mr. Sherman's expressed satisfaction with Mr. Cameron's succession to "Zach" Chandler lends some color to this theory. Another circumstance is open to a two-fold interpretation: we mean the fact of Cameron's appointment by a small majority, consisting in the main of members who represented in the Republican Committee the Southern States—in other words, "goods which they cannot deliver," to use a slang phrase. Mr. Sherman was some months ago accused of "fixing" the Federal offices at the South in his own favor, but the pains might have been better, and may actually have been, bestowed on the Southern members of the Committee, seeing that the nomination, at least, is not going to depend on the home-voting weight of the delegates to the Chicago Convention. On the other hand, the Grant men have been tickled by the recent prospect of a boom at the South, and it must be admitted that their candidate promises greater rewards for party fealty in that region than Mr. Sherman holds out. The motives of Mr. Cameron's supporters are thus open to doubt. Meantime, General Grant in his tour through the South excites but little enthusiasm except among the blacks; and Mr. Sherman continues to be the only Republican leader who has distinctly nominated himself for the Presidency.

Mayor Cooper's message to the Common Council is brief and to the point, in both of which respects it differs from ordinary documents of the kind. It calls attention to the recent judicial decisions which, whether or no they are affirmed on appeal, he rightly considers hampering to his proper administration of the city government; counsels prompt consideration of the recommendations of the Department of Public Works; recounts the unsavory record of the last Board of Aldermen in the matter of granting franchises and private privileges in the public streets, and concisely states the proper policy to be pursued in such matters; reports the state of rapid transit and the public interests affected by it at present; points out, as to finances, that if the Legislature will abstain from interference in behalf of special interests, it will only require an impartial execution of the law to bring many overdue assessments into the city treasury, but that there has been no substantial reduction in the expenses of the city government; and concludes by expressing his conviction that, "while in general terms it is true that the best men who will consent to serve should be appointed to office," it is nevertheless both "impracticable to ignore party lines" and wrong to allow the interests of either party to "suffer." This last is the only weak point in the message, but it indicates how far the Mayor is prepared to go in order to "conciliate" and to conform to the necessities of the municipal situation, so to speak. There is, however, as little prospect this year as there was last that the Aldermen will permit him to administer his office himself; the old coalition between Tammany and the Republicans has been renewed, and no appointments which Mr. Kelly does not approve will be confirmed.

Mr. Tilden and all his co-defendants in the suit for the recovery of the Terre Haute Railroad bonds have surrendered and paid up. It will be remembered that after forming a new company they had a surplus of bonds of the old organization in their hands after settling all claims, and kept them as compensation for their labor and risk as a Committee of Reorganization, instead of turning them over to the new corporation. The morality of the transaction depended on the question whether they were entitled to compensation, and whether they were the proper persons to decide this question. About the legality of it lawyers were divided in opinion. It was settled conclusively against Tilden by all the Republican newspapers in the last Presidential canvass, but has nevertheless hung on in the courts until now. His surrender is pretty strong proof that he saw he had little chance of success, though his lawyer is reported as saying it is because he is not equal to the physical strain of the contest. This hardly tallies, however, with the accounts given by the Republican press of his devouring activity in politics.

The Ohio Republicans have done a very wise thing in nominating General Garfield for the Senate over Mr. Stanley Matthews and Judge Taft. Both these last-named gentlemen held out nearly to the end in spite of their somewhat unfortunate experience of public life, the one having made a curious figure as a financier, and the other having supplied the law under which Mr. Zachariah Chandler managed the last election. General Garfield is one of the few Republican statesmen of the day who is a real orator, and whose speeches one cannot easily sketch before he delivers them—that is, he is not a party hack, and has personal opinions and utters them. The Stalwarts swept him away last year, along with the ebullient Mr. Foster; but if they had not he probably would not have got into the Senate. When he is there he will be able to be himself again. The only serious flaw in his record is his having served as a "Visiting Statesman."

The Talmage affair still drags its slow length along in the shape of an angry controversy between Dr. Van Dyke, one of the prosecutors, and Dr. Spear, the defendant's counsel before the ecclesiastical court. Dr. Van Dyke wants another trial of Talmage for slandering him and others by threatening to expose their "moral rottenness," but Dr. Spear firmly objects to anything of the kind. There is no doubt that in an ideal world Talmage would be tried once a week or thereabouts, but the result of the recent proceedings brings up the question which has so often stayed the hand of justice—"What is the use of trying him?" The material of which the ecclesiastical tribunal is composed does not take the Van Dyke view of morality, and without a standard of right and wrong common to the prosecutor and the jury no criminal can be convicted of anything. The Rev. J. M. Sherwood, who was one of the prosecuting counsel in the last trial, has published his speech, which is curious reading, inasmuch as it enforces on the Synod the desirableness of respecting within the Church the prejudices of the outside world on questions of "fundamental morals." He makes some very severe observations, apropos of this, on the religious press, and produces a quotation from one of those religious papers which objects to trying Talmage for falsehood and deceit, not because he is innocent, but because,

"As it is now the golden time of autumn, when city people are coming back from the country, and churches begin to be full, and ministers preach with new zeal and hope, and look for blessed revivals of religion, it would be a thousand pities if this peace and harmony and the brooding influences of the Spirit were all driven away by the reopening of an ecclesiastical trial which has vexed the ears of the Christian public much too long."

These and other things are making a great many people ask whether some of the churches have not got a good way towards the old pagan idea of religion, which assumed that the favor of the gods was won by prayer and praise simply, and was in no way conditioned on the good behavior of the worshippers.

In the financial markets the week has been dull and uneventful. The foreign exchange market ruled above the rates at which gold can be imported and the total imports of this metal were only $8,090, although $399,907 silver arrived. During the year 1879 the total specie imports amounted to $84,260,495, while those for 1878 were only $19,150,973. The largest specie imports in any previous year in the history of the country amounted to $37,088,413, in the year 1861; and the next largest, $26,217,888, in the year 1876. It is notable that of the total imports of specie for the year 1879 ($84,260,495) the large sum of $78,003,839 arrived in the last five months of the year. It should be remarked here that our gold and silver mines produced, during the year 1879, $71,153,732; of which $32,529,920 was gold and $38,623,812 silver. These figures show that the year 1879 furnished an exceptionally favorable opportunity for the substitution of a value currency for one consisting of the credit of the Government. The reserve of the New York banks continues low, but, as everybody knows that the whole tendency will be towards an increase for several weeks to come, the loan market worked easily, closing at about 6 per cent., which since the first day of the year has been the maximum legal rate of interest in this State. The Stock Exchange was very dull during the week, but the disposition appears to be "bullish" for railroad shares and bonds, as all the roads are doing a large business and at paying rates. Silver bullion in London closed at $52\frac{7}{16}d.$ per oz., and the market was steady and dull. The bullion value here of the $412\frac{1}{2}$-grain silver dollar was $0.8778.

The Chicago *Tribune* continues to prophesy and expound vigorously about silver, gold, greenbacks, and other forms of currency, nothing daunted by the sorry character of his past performances. He ascribes the failure of silver to circulate to the machinations of evil-minded persons, the lukewarmness of the Treasury, the coarse attacks of the Eastern press on the silver dollar, and the discrimination of the banks against the same. In fact, according to him, there is a kind of hellish conspiracy against this beautiful coin; but he reports joyfully that, in spite of it all, $4,000,000 have gone into circulation since September 30. But have not these millions been taken out by charitable persons who felt sorry for silver, at seeing it maligned and kept in dark vaults by a cruel Treasury? We maintain they have; that the circulation of silver now going on is a purely humane movement, excited by the *Tribune's* account of the sufferings of silver, and not a commercial one. The *Tribune* is also much alarmed about the proposal to take away the legal-tender character of the greenbacks. He says that if this is done the banks will have to redeem in gold, and there will be "a run, and the prompt suspension of every bank in the country." The remaining horrors of the situation he will point out at some future day. His unabated cheerfulness and courage are, under all the circumstances, very diverting. We should not be surprised to see him get up a hospital for clipped and mutilated silver coins, where they would have the care and nursing of the best silversmiths. We ought to add that he is looking carefully after the balance of trade, and keeps the fugacious gold ready for "the money kings" of Europe. He is firm as a rock against the heresy of his colleague, the Cincinnati *Commercial*, that the people now want a little gold in their pockets, and declines to do anything to provide them with it.

The English report of quiet around Kabul, and open communications through the Khybar, would be reassuring enough in London if the suddenness of the late attack did not reveal clearly that General Roberts has no accurate information of what is going on outside his lines. The state of anxiety, therefore, continues in spite of the late success, and will last through the winter. Fresh combinations of the tribes may be again looked for any day. He cannot patrol the country except in heavy force, and cannot patrol it at all in winter weather; and there is no telling as yet what the effect of the severe cold will be on the native troops. The exclusion of newspaper correspondents, too, in a case in which their letters could not possibly help the enemy, deepens the suspicion which now attaches to all the official despatches. It has gone so far that one of the London press wags predicts a great victory in Afghanistan just before the opening of Parliament in February. Another bad piece of news is the disappearance from Tashkend, where he was enjoying Russian hospitality, of Abdul Rahman Khan, an Afghan pretender and nephew of Shir Ali.

Parliament meets on the 5th of February, and will, it begins to be believed, be dissolved soon after Easter, when the Budget has been adopted. The presentation of the Budget under Gladstone's criticisms will be a sorry job, from which Sir Stafford Northcote would doubtless gladly be released. The signs of the times still seem to be in favor of the Liberals. They have wrested another seat from the Conservatives, this time in Ireland, in the County Donegal, and without any concession to the Home-Rulers. There is no change in the situation in Ireland, but the extent of the distress seems to be more fully ascertained, and large sums are being raised for the relief of it.

The Spanish minority which withdrew from the Cortes when the Minister refused to remain in the House and offer further explanations of the Ministerial crisis, have issued a manifesto complaining of the discourtesy with which they were treated, but of nothing else, and announcing that they will not come back until he makes his peace with them by an apology. There are reports that he is trying to come to terms with them and induce them to resume their places, but he continues to show in other ways the haughty and intractable temper which has always been the curse of the Continental Conservatives. He has given great offence in Madrid by refusing to allow the military bands to participate in a demonstration in honor of the French Ambassador, in recognition of the aid given by French subscriptions to the sufferers from the inundations in Murcia. Worse than this, he has ordered the prosecution of newspapers which found fault with him on this score, and particularly the organ of Marshal Campos. The Marshal has expressed himself with great severity in the Senate on the conduct of the Government in filling the places of generals who had resigned their commands when he resigned the Ministry, but had withdrawn their resignations on his intercession, which the new Ministers asked for. The bitterness on both sides seems to increase. It is not likely to be diminished by the thinly-disguised threat of *La Politica*, the Ministerial organ, that "those who desert their seats cease to represent their constituents," and that "the electoral districts cannot be deprived for any length of time of their right to representation in the Cortes."

The Municipal Council of Paris has just given what the Ministry finds a somewhat embarrassing proof of hostility to the Church by refusing, by a large majority, to make the annual appropriation for the support of the Catholic churches of the city. The debates drew out some very strong denunciation of the clergy and of "superstition," and demands for the separation of church and state. The vote of the money is made obligatory by law, and the action of the Council was therefore promptly annulled by the Minister of the Interior; but the incident is disagreeable as a sign of the attitude of the capital on the religious question, and is one of the things which compel the Ministry to adopt a more forbearing policy towards the Church than they are really disposed to. But they are enforcing the provisions of the Concordat against the bishops with great sternness, and much to the surprise of the latter, who, under the Empire, were allowed their own way so completely that they had all but forgotten that the Concordat existed.

THE MAINE DISTURBANCE AND THE PRESIDENTIAL COUNT.

THERE is nothing more noticeable about the turn which discussion of the Maine "count" has taken in the press and on the stump than the general avoidance by both parties of all serious consideration of the bearing it has upon the national "count" of the Presidential returns of 1880. Of partisan denunciation and partisan defence of the action of the Maine officials there has, of course, been plenty; but we think it may be said without exaggeration that there has not yet appeared, in the press or elsewhere, the slightest evidence of a belief on either side that it would be worth the while of practical politicians to consider what means ought to be taken to prevent the same sort of civil commotion that is now disturbing Maine, from being repeated a year hence on a larger scale throughout the entire country. The danger of this is only too evident. It is, indeed, the great political danger which threatens the immediate future of the country; and while we are approaching it with a full consciousness of its peril, no one pretends to see or to know how the next Presidential "count" is to be made, and no preparations are made for it, and we are slowly drifting on, in full sight of such a very ugly danger-signal as the Maine dispute before our eyes, with what might to a casual observer pass for blind indifference to the consequences.

It is easy, of course, to explain this condition of the public mind. After an enormous amount of talk in Congress about the abstract merits of one and another different method of counting the electoral returns, and the introduction of a large number of bills on the subject, providing for the settlement of all disputed questions by the States themselves, or by the two houses of Congress, in accordance with some prearranged scheme of disposing of single and double returns, no change has been made, because neither party has been found willing in advance to bind itself by fixed rules which might in the end deprive it of the chance of getting its candidate in by some other method of counting. This inaction on the part of Congress, too, far from being unnatural, is exactly what might have been expected. The members of both houses, and particularly the Senate, have the most direct personal interest in the result of a Presidential election, because their patronage depends upon it. This patronage is itself the means by which nominations to the House and Senate are controlled, and to ask a member of either body to agree upon fixed rules for a Presidential "count" is to ask him to abandon a considerable share of his possible control over his own political advancement, which is undoubtedly asking a great deal. Again, it must be admitted that the settlement of any fixed rules on the subject in advance is surrounded with difficulties growing out of the nature of the subject. The framers of the Government themselves found it a difficult matter to deal with, and it has not grown any easier with the growth of the country. With characteristic sagacity, they made the provisions of the Constitution on the subject as simple as possible. They virtually left the appointment of electors to the States, and made the process of counting in the presence of the two houses a simple act of enumeration of the votes of the State appointees. The election provided for by them was undoubtedly an election by States, and the function assigned to Congress was merely that of recording in a solemn way the result of the States' action. There are obvious difficulties in the way of any other solution of the question, and yet the solution in critical cases proves to be of no value at all. The process of centralization which has been going on ever since the formation of the Government, and which is after all nothing more than the absorption of power where it can be most easily exercised, has converted Congress into a regular returning board, clothed with despotic and final authority, but with powers absolutely vague, unsettled, and in its own discretion—such is undeniably the fact, no matter what view we take of its constitutional prerogatives—and the exercise of this discretion presents a difficult alternative as to how far it will leave the control of its vote to the States, and how far it will itself control the result. In constituting the Electoral Commission in 1876 it merely shirked this responsibility in a temporarily convenient way; but this it will never be able to do again.

To determine in advance how the Presidential vote is to be counted is practically to determine what questions shall be left to the States to settle for themselves, and *how* these shall be settled, and what questions shall not be left to the States. In other words, it is assuming an authority over the States which was certainly never contemplated by the framers of the Constitution. To take a single question—that of double returns—it is easy enough in one sense to provide a means of disposing of such returns in advance. A State sending in double returns can be omitted from the count, or the two houses can vote separately on the States sending them in, and the State can be excluded in case of a disagreement; or, on the other hand, double returns can be prevented altogether by making the decision of the State courts on the subject conclusive upon Congress; but it is really extremely difficult to tell what the ultimate effect of such arrangements would be. The whole matter, too, is complicated by the electoral paradox, which every Presidential campaign makes more and more prominent, that while the direct popular vote determines the relative strength of the *parties* throughout the country, it does not necessarily determine the result of the election. This discrepancy is itself productive of constantly increasing jealousy and distrust. To persuade a popular majority to abide by defeat at the hands of a minority is hard enough under the best circumstances. To persuade them to do so when they have ceased to place confidence in the fairness of the method by which the result is attained, is impossible.

Taking all these circumstances into the account, it is not strange that Congress has not yet found any way to predetermine how the next "count" is to be made; but this fact makes the situation all the more serious. The next Presidential "count" will undoubtedly be settled in some way, and how it will be disposed of will depend entirely (in the absence of all fixed rules) on the temper in which it is approached by Congress and the public. The Maine quarrel seems to us chiefly important as an indication of what that temper is likely to be. It has been marked by a degree of heat and violence hitherto unknown except in the most unsettled Southern States, while they were still garrisoned with United States troops which were being used to prop up unpopular and disreputable governments. Insurrection has been openly advised or suggested by leading public men, and even by ministers of the Gospel. The organization of a double State government, for the purpose of making Federal interference necessary, has been seriously proposed. To say in defence of all this that it is produced by outrageous Democratic frauds is entirely beside the point. The frauds are simply part of the "counting" process as carried on by a State returning board, neither more nor less wise and patriotic than other similar bodies throughout the country are likely to prove in a period of excitement. The acts of Governor Garcelon and his Council are not acts of abnormal crime, as the Republican papers are fond of making them, but are the acts of cunning but at the same time weak men, who are not far-seeing enough to know that they are sacrificing their party's ultimate good for a trifling immediate advantage. They are acts of a character which are not only not surprising, but are certainly to be expected, and are the natural result of familiarity with the "counting" process on the minds of the leaders of a party not remarkable for either the intelligence or morality of its following.

It is certainly deplorable that such a state of affairs should be possible as that which Maine politics have presented to public view for the past month; and the bearing which it has on the question of the next Presidential "count" is very evident. The Republican Stalwarts are already talking of the probability of having to seat their candidate by force, in case the Democrats do not "count" in a satisfactory manner. The Democrats are in control of the two Houses, the President of the Senate, Mr. Wheeler, is a Republican, and not a single question with regard to the counting of the Presidential returns is settled. To allow the settlement of the last Presi-

dential dispute by the Electoral Commission to create any illusions as to the possibility of a similar way out of the difficulty this time would be a great mistake. The Electoral Commission scheme was made feasible by the fact that the two Houses in 1876 were in the hands of different parties. This time Congress will, in all probability, remain in Democratic hands in both branches. The proceedings, too, of the Electoral Commission did not satisfy the Democrats as to its fairness, and they entertain convictions as to the duty of the two Houses to do their own counting no less strong than those of the Stalwart Republicans as to the necessity of meeting fraud with violence. Moreover, with every month's delay the chance that Congress will make any provision in advance for the next count becomes more remote, and whether we get through it peacefully and creditably will depend mainly upon the temper with which we prepare ourselves for it. A repetition of the Maine squabble on a national scale would certainly be a pitiful spectacle.

MR. PARNELL'S MISSION.

THE most significant feature in the reception given to Mr. Parnell and his associates in this country is—if they only knew it—the attitude of the daily press towards them. Twenty years ago there were very few editors indeed, and no politician, who would have ventured to avow a want of interest in the efforts of Irish patriots to free Ireland from connection with England, or express doubts as to their eventual success. To-day all the leading journals in the country seem to unite in ridiculing or throwing cold water on the political part of Mr. Parnell's mission, while ungraciously forcing on him, evidently much to his dissatisfaction, the rôle of a collector of contributions for the relief of hungry peasantry. They all declare that he ought to get plenty of money for this latter object, but none at all to help in effecting changes either in the political relations of Ireland to Great Britain or in the Irish land laws. These things, they say, are the affair of Englishmen and Irishmen to settle between themselves, and not the affair of Americans, who do not understand them and are not on the spot. Whether a peasant proprietary would be a good thing for Ireland, and, if so, what are the best means of establishing it, are questions with which Irishmen living in Ireland must be held exclusively competent to deal; if they are not competent, nobody is. Whether, too, the present legislative relations between Ireland and England are advantageous to Ireland or not, and whether, if not, it is possible to change them, are, *par excellence*, Irish and English questions, to be solved by Irishmen and Englishmen. In trying to make them American questions, and induce Americans to express strong and decided opinions about them supplied by Mr. Parnell himself, American editors seem to hold that he is taking a great liberty, and they resent it all the more readily because they are asked to back these opinions with their money.

In fact, the United States have evidently ceased to be a good field for Irish agitation, and this without any diminution of sympathy for all Irish suffering which Americans can see and understand. They know how an Irishman feels who is cold and hungry, and can tell exactly what will relieve him; but they do not know how an Irishman feels who desires a parliament of his own in Dublin and another man's land rent free, and cannot suggest means of satisfying him without an amount of study which very few are willing to give. Most Americans find in our day the demands of home politics on their attention as much as they can possibly meet. They follow striking events of foreign politics, but the number of those who are willing to master disputed questions of foreign politics, such as the English land laws, or the German "Culturkampf," or the Jules Ferry School Law, or Russian Nihilism, or English rule in India, is exceeding small. Even in the United States Senate, which is directly concerned with the foreign relations of the Government, there can hardly be said to be now a single member who is even passably familiar with leading questions of foreign politics. When Mr. Hendricks went abroad, three years ago, he confessed very naïvely on his return that he was greatly surprised to find a parliament in Austria, having supposed, till he got to Vienna, that that Empire was still governed by an absolute monarch. This state of mind about foreign affairs is, we fear, by no means uncommon among prominent politicians of both parties. Mr. Froude fell into an error on this subject, very like Mr. Parnell's, when he came over here a few years ago with the intention, he said, of following O'Donovan Rossa round the country, and refuting the misrepresentations regarding English rule in Ireland in which he assumed that statesman was sure to indulge, being evidently under the impression that Rossa's lectures would be eagerly attended by native Americans, and his dicta swallowed without question.

This permanent indifference to foreign affairs has been deepened of late years by a great variety of experience. The habit of regarding all discontent as capable of being relieved by rebellion was spread among the Radicals of the whole civilized world by the French Revolution, and found a lodgment in this country through the Jeffersonian philosophy, and showed itself down to 1860 in the practice of "hailing" all sorts of revolts, revolutions, and disturbances as positive gains for humanity. It has died out under more extensive observation. People here are not nearly as hopeful as they were thirty years ago about political experiments begun in bloodshed. They have seen scores of them fail, and have seen happiness attained without them. Hungary is content without achieving Kossuth's ideal; Italy is as well off as she could possibly be without achieving Mazzini's. Castelar's Spanish Republic has turned out a sorry farce. Moreover, we have had a rebellion here which half the world thought, when it began, a noble enterprise, but which is universally regarded now as having contributed greatly to the happiness of mankind by its failure. Then the Irish patriots who during the last forty years have fled to these shores from British oppression have played a part in American politics which has naturally modified the views once held by the average American about the Irish Parliament which it is proposed to set up in Dublin. Very few Americans now feel that they would like to live under that legislature themselves, and they are therefore slow about subscribing money to restore it. In fact, they now claim more knowledge with regard to its character and capacity than Englishmen possess. Mr. Parnell addresses a very different public from that which gave Emmet a home, and, we may add, represents a very different cause.

The Irish emissary who went to France the other day, and wrote letters soliciting French sympathy for the Home-Rulers, has been repulsed by the French Republicans, and for much the same reason which prevents Mr. Parnell from securing political sympathy here, viz., the fact that Irish malcontents do not really belong to the Liberal party of the world. They have, ever since Catholic emancipation, been steadily severing their connection with it, and alienating the sympathies which, previous to that event, it bestowed on them. Their performances in the British House of Commons, however much they may have had to complain of, have been calculated not simply to bring parliamentary government into contempt, but to spread doubts as to their own capacity for working parliamentary institutions. On one great question of European politics during the last forty years—the liberation of government from ecclesiastical control—they have steadily sided with the Church against the state. On the still greater question of popular secular education they have supported the priests. They have displayed extraordinarily little interest in the political struggles of any other race or country. Neither Italy, nor Hungary, nor Poland, nor the Turkish Christians, nor any unfortunate race or nation, has received from Irish politicians a word of encouragement or support. Of course this has entailed on Irish patriots an isolation which would be appalling if they only perceived it. It makes the task of securing foreign sympathy in their hostility to England far greater than it used to be, and without foreign sympathy they seem unable to go on with their work. The world, too, has within the last half-century grown unmistakably harder in temper. Success, or signs of capacity for success, are more sternly exacted than they used to be, both of men and nations. There is much less indiscriminate charity

for all kinds of mendicants. Probably no race of politicians but Irish Home-Rulers would have the face nowadays, in search of contributions, to visit a country in which the Fenian Republic was set up within ten years. The history of that organization and of its treasury and revenue is something with which Mr. Parnell can hardly be acquainted, or he would not suppose that the memory of it could be wiped out by his own efforts and those of his colleagues in the House of Commons. "Obstruction" in a legislative assembly, however attractive it may seem to those who engage in it as a means of bringing a tyrannical majority to reason, has one fatal defect for politicians who mean to supplement it by appeals for foreign aid: it inevitably repels all communities which are working parliamentary constitutions, and especially a community like this, which makes use of forty parliaments. It burlesques government by deliberation and makes it look ridiculous, and substitutes for it an appeal to physical force in its most contemptible form. No free state in our day can afford to make a hero of anybody who glories in gaining his ends in a legislative assembly by incessant filibustering. Anybody, as Cavour said, can govern by a state of siege, and anybody can make himself formidable to a majority by incessant perversion of the rules for the interruption of business. But it is not by such acts as these that great statesmen are raised up or oppressed peoples are led out of bondage, or obscure causes commended to the sympathy of mankind.

THE SITUATION IN AFGHANISTAN.

LONDON, December 22, 1879.

THE telegraph wires will have conveyed to America the intelligence of the perilous position of the English troops at Kabul. This intelligence has taken the nation so entirely by surprise that even now only a man here and there apprehends either its character or extent. I need not say that, as a matter of fact, there is nothing unexpected in it. In the letter which I wrote to the *Nation* immediately after the news had been received of the murder of Major Cavagnari and his escort I pointed out the dangers to which a British force wintering in Kabul would be exposed. So great did these appear to me that I ventured upon the opinion that no attempt would be made to occupy Kabul until the spring. "There is," I wrote, "nothing to be gained and much to be hazarded by attempting an earlier advance. The tribes are at present fired by religious zeal, and would be likely to offer an obstinate resistance. A British army, having to pass the winter at Kabul, would be exposed to very considerable danger. It would be in complete isolation, surrounded by hostile tribes, without magazines, and with no crops upon the ground. It would, in fact, find it impossible to subsist, and fall a victim to famine if not to the enemy." Precisely this is General Roberts's situation at the present moment. Unless something almost amounting to a miracle intervenes it is hardly possible that his force should escape becoming a victim to either famine or the enemy.

Until within the last two or three years most Englishmen conceived that their political liberties were founded upon a rock. It was our peculiar privilege to control our destinies directly according to the will of the people. Lord Beaconsfield's Government has shown us that our liberties depend, like those of France or any other nation, solely on the good faith of the people in power. If these are false to their trust, the English nation can be defrauded of their political powers as easily as any other people; and at present, if we were ruled by the Emperor of Russia himself, we could not, as a nation, have less of a voice in the conduct of our foreign policy. The Cabinet concocts its policy in secret, and, secure in the possession of a mechanical majority, discloses its character and objects to the representatives of the nation only when retrogression is all but impossible. It was by a combination of fraud and secrecy that the nation was decoyed into this Afghan war, assuredly one of the most foolish as well as wickedest wars recorded in history. But in nothing has the deterioration of public spirit been so conspicuously exhibited as in the tameness with which the nation has acquiesced in the Ministerial scheme for the suppression of all information regarding the veritable state of things in Afghanistan. At this moment there is not a single independent newspaper correspondent present with our troops. Whatever information reaches the public passes through official channels, and is carefully doctored before it is allowed to be published. It is for this reason that the peril in which General Roberts finds himself has burst upon the nation with the unexpectedness of that proverbial "bolt out of the blue."

It was clear, however, for some time to the more instructed that a storm was gathering in Kabul. This was partly due to the shocking cruelties perpetrated by General Roberts since he occupied the city. Sound policy, not less than justice, required of us that in occupying the city of Kabul we should treat the people with the utmost humanity. Whether we eventually annexed the country, or entered merely into an intimate alliance with its ruler, it was essential to the success of either experiment that we should disarm the hatred and well-founded suspicion with which the Afghans regarded us, by moderate and conciliatory treatment. But the worst evil which the possession of India has wrought upon us is to make us hard and savage in our dealings with the people of the country. An Englishman in India will consider it a sufficient reason for hating a native that the native desires to be emancipated from the chains of an alien domination. Hence, insurrections against our authority have, nearly always, been stamped out with a pitilessness worthy, perhaps, of a Turkish pasha, but unspeakably disgraceful in a civilized people. When Cavagnari was killed the usual cry for vengeance was set up; and General Roberts set to work to give full effect to the prevailing sentiment. No less than forty-nine soldiers were seized in the villages round about Kabul and executed in cold blood, although no charge was alleged against them except that they had fought in the ranks of the enemy at Kharasiab. This proceeding had an effect exactly the reverse of what was intended. It did not intimidate the Afghans; it exasperated them. They determined to make a combined endeavor to expel the ruthless invader of their barren hills. The three days' fighting which has shut up General Roberts in the cantonment at Shirpur is the first result of that determination. The Afghans have not only defeated the English troops, but their leader has completely outgeneralled the English general.

Rumors of the combination had been conveyed to General Roberts, but were treated by him as of no significance. The first fall of snow, he thought, would suffice to make the "malcontents" disperse to their homes. Unhindered, therefore, by any action on the part of the British troops, two considerable Afghan armies moved upon Kabul, the one from Ghazni, on the south, the other from Kohistan, on the north. The serious fighting commenced on Wednesday, December 10. The Ghazni forces fell upon a British detachment, consisting of four guns and three squadrons of cavalry, under Brigadier Massey, and completely defeated it. One troop of the Ninth Lancers was cut to pieces, the four guns had to be spiked and abandoned, and the English cavalry was compelled to retreat with precipitation. Elated by this success, the Ghazni forces took up a strong position on an eminence to the south of the Bala-Hissar. A division of the British army under General Macpherson attempted to take this position, but failed. On the following day, however, Macpherson received reinforcements; a second assault was made and was so far successful that, after an obstinate struggle, the Afghans relinquished the height they occupied and took possession of another. For a brief while the English general cherished the hope that the Afghans would now disperse to their homes; but it was only for a brief while. The Kohistan troops had now arrived on the scene, and the combined forces made a furious attack on the British troops. All through Sunday (December 14) a continuous battle raged round Kabul. The British general was compelled to relinquish to the enemy the city itself, the Bala-Hissar, and all the open country, and to concentrate his troops in the cantonment of Shirpur. This concentration was, of necessity, a movement in retreat, in the course of which the English rear-guard suffered very heavily. The official report of our losses during the three days' fighting states them at twenty officers killed and wounded and one hundred and three men. No one, however, credits this report. Our losses were indubitably a great deal heavier. It is incredible that for every officer killed or wounded there should be only five men. Anyway, one result of the fighting was that General Roberts sustained a defeat not less decisive than that of the Russians at Dengit Tepe, and much more disastrous in its probable consequences. His communications were severed, and he found himself besieged in the depth of winter in a country which it is most difficult for a relieving force to penetrate.

The Ministerial journals are voluble in their endeavors to keep up the spirits of the Tories. According to them the danger is of the most trifling character. General Roberts will speedily be set at liberty and the subjugation of Afghanistan successfully completed. I have already said that I cherish no such pleasant expectation; and, though my prediction may be falsified before this letter meets the eyes of your readers, I will briefly

state the reasons which have led me to the conviction I hold. The question is not one of fighting, but of food, transport, forage, and fuel. At this time of year there is absolutely no food or forage to be got in Afghanistan. A relieving force marching, say from Jalalabad, would have to take everything requisite for itself and for its baggage animals in sufficient quantity not only for the march, but to subsist on when it arrived at Kabul. Thus heavily encumbered it would have to force its way through passes choked with snow, and so narrow in parts that the fall of a single camel would put a stop to the advance of the entire column. To equip and organize a considerable force—say five or six thousand men—for such an expedition would require the labor of weeks. So heavy, indeed, has been the mortality in camels that I doubt if it would be possible at the present time to equip such a force at all. The camels, exposed to the inclement winter of Afghanistan, would die daily by hundreds; while the larger the relieving force was, the greater the difficulty it would experience in finding subsistence. No attempt, therefore, will be made to relieve General Roberts in force until the spring. The alternative is to send through the passes, in light marching order, a flying column of two thousand men, and this is what the Government of India reports that it is intending to do. But even such a force must take with it, at the very least, a fortnight's provisions; and, assuming that it succeeded in forcing a way through the passes, General Roberts would have had to sustain a siege of three weeks before the flying column could reach Kabul. Is he in a position to sustain such a siege? I think not. We were told that immediately on his arrival at Kabul he set to work to collect supplies for five months, and we are now told that he has collected them. But we are not told the locality in which this food was stored. An ominous omission this, for my impression is that much of it was stored in the Bala-Hissar, in which case it is now in possession of the enemy. It is, however, certain that he is most scantily, if at all, supplied with either fuel or forage. During a three weeks' siege, therefore, not only would there be heavy mortality among his native troops and camp-followers—the latter, we may be certain, will perish to a man—but his artillery and cavalry will be entirely ruined. The gathering of the clans round Kabul will exhaust what remnant of food there still is in that part of the country, so that even should General Roberts be relieved he will have no alternative but to attempt in the depth of winter to withdraw with the remnant of his troops to Jalalabad. Without adequate food or transport, heavily encumbered as he would be with sick and wounded men, and harassed by the tribes along the line of march, but a very small portion of his command would reach a place of safety. His artillery he would, of course, be compelled to abandon before he commenced his retreat. To sum up, the situation at Kabul is briefly this: Five thousand English troops, scantily, if at all, supplied with fuel and forage, are beleaguered in the depth of winter by thirty thousand Afghans. The only troops which can advance to their assistance are about two thousand men, at present waiting for supplies at a distance of some seventy miles, and having between them and their destination a series of probably the most difficult passes in the world. Even if they reach Kabul their numbers will only suffice to make good the losses which General Roberts's army will by that time have sustained from cold and battle. There will still be no alternative for General Roberts except to attempt a retreat upon Jalalabad.

The Ministerial journals are attempting to hide this plain issue by setting forth in grandiloquent language the troops we have at Kandahar, in the Kurram valley, and along our trans-Indus frontier. To people ignorant of the geography of the theatre of war these calculations have brought considerable comfort. But they are wholly irrelevant. None of the troops thus enumerated can exercise the very smallest influence on the march of events at Kabul. They are as impotent for that purpose as if they were cantoned in the moon. For the purpose of calculating the perils surrounding General Roberts the only forces which need to be taken into consideration are the 5,000 men in Kabul—exaggerated to 7,000 in the Ministerial journals—and the 2,000 commanded by General Gough at Jugdulluk. But though the troops at Kandahar are powerless to assist General Roberts's army, should that army be destroyed these troops will be in a position of extreme danger. They are not more than 4,000 strong, and without supports or reserves of any kind. An Afghan victory at Kabul would rouse all Afghanistan as one man, and a resolute endeavor would be made to subject the English at Kandahar to a doom similar to that which had befallen their countrymen in the north.

The news which reaches us from India generally continues to be of an increasingly ominous character. I will reserve an account of this until I have occasion to write another letter.

Correspondence.

THE HARVARD DIVINITY SCHOOL DISCUSSION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am very sure that you will allow me space in your columns to explain certain misapprehensions into which you have fallen in regard to my article in the Harvard *Register*, criticised by you in your last issue.

Your fundamental mistake is in supposing that the article was wholly directed against the utterances of the *Nation*. Criticisms had been urged from many sources. In the space offered to me by the editor of the *Register* I wished to answer as many of them as possible. When I spoke of the absurd notion that the professors in an unsectarian divinity school could not utter their own views the *Nation* was not in my mind, nor did I suppose it would be suggested to any one else. I do not understand why you should have supposed the *Nation* to be meant by the phrase "some quarters," when the *Nation* had uttered no opinion similar to the one referred to. I was meeting an objection that had been urged so often that I judged it must spring from a wide-spread error.

The objection that an unsectarian theological school is impossible because the teachers would necessarily incline to one side of every disputed question, had also been pressed from more than one quarter. The meaning of a passage that did refer specially to the *Nation* is wholly mistaken by you. You received the impression that I had accused you of urging that certain systems of science, philosophy, or theology put in peril the soul's welfare as if this were your own belief, whereas you believe nothing of the kind. I doubt if any one else would draw this idea from my words; certainly nothing was further from my thought. What I did understand you to mean was that the University would be exposed to a very intense form of unpopularity if there were taught in the Divinity School theological views held by any to be dangerous to the soul's welfare, and that you advised yielding to the prejudice which you did not share. This was what I meant when I spoke of those "who place themselves for the moment on the side of a blind prejudice, such as the higher education has had to contend against at every step of its advance."

I send this simply as a personal explanation, and refrain from any reference to the general merits of the question.

C. C. Everett.

Cambridge, Mass., January 3, 1880.

[We assumed that Professor Everett had the *Nation* in mind because we knew of no discussion of the subject in any other periodical, in which the teaching of unsectarian theology by Harvard College or under the auspices of Harvard College had been opposed. We have up to this moment heard of none, and we had no doubt that in the absence of specific designation of his antagonist the readers of the *Register* would conclude that it was the *Nation* which Professor Everett accused not only of talking "absurdly," but of using sham arguments in support of opinions which the editor did not hold.—Ed. Nation.]

INTEREST AND INFLATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In No. 756 you say:

"Notwithstanding these large arrivals of foreign gold, the demands for money throughout the country for legitimate purposes and for speculation have been sufficient to keep the rates for money loans fully as high as a year ago."

In this and similar passages that I have noticed in your columns from time to time you seem to differ from the standard writers on political economy, and to agree with the disciples of Greenbackism in the belief that the rate of interest on loans depends upon the volume of currency, or money, in circulation. At least I am not able to reconcile your language with this, which I find in J. S. Mill: "An increase of the currency has in itself no effect, and is incapable of having any effect, on the rate of interest"; or this, from J. B. Say: "It is a great abuse of words to talk about the interest of money; and probably this erroneous impression has led to the false inference that the abundance or scarcity of money regulates the rate of interest."

I might quote from several other standard authors to the effect that, in the language of Prof. Bowen: "To increase the stock of money in the country is not thereby to augment the fund available for loans, or to

diminish the difficulty of borrowing, or to lower the rate of interest." Indeed, so far as I know, no reputable writer has ever undertaken to refute this doctrine, and to defend the theory of the Greenbackers that the rate of interest can be reduced by making money more abundant.

An explanation of your position on this point will greatly oblige at least one CONSTANT READER.

ST. LOUIS, Mo., December 29, 1879.

[There is nothing in the quotations made by our correspondent inconsistent with our position. Mere increase of the volume of the currency will not, *other things remaining the same*, lower the rate of interest. But if there is abundance of money seeking investment, and a comparatively feeble demand for it *on good security*, the rate of interest will fall inevitably. So also if there is much demand on good security the rate of interest will rise, just as for similar reasons the price of goods rises. The scarcity of money of which the Greenbackers have been complaining for the last seven years has not existed under the above conditions. Scarcity of money has not been felt by any one able to offer good security for its use. What the Greenbackers have complained of was the difficulty in borrowing money experienced by those who had no security to offer, and their error lay in supposing that by increasing the volume of the currency this class would find it easy to get money at low rates of interest. This is the delusion at which the economists are striking in the passages our correspondent quotes. That the rate of interest offered draws money from one country to another is one of the commonplaces of finance. But the demand which draws it is not the demand of poor men who can put up no "collaterals," but of men who are sure to repay it on a day named. The greenback craze is the one long known to the French Socialists as "gratuité de crédit," meaning a system by which money would be freely supplied by the banks or the Government to every man who could show that he needed it. The exaction of security for loans is what is called by the same school "the tyranny of capital."—ED. NATION.]

THE MAINE CRISIS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Latin proverb, "No man becomes suddenly base," applies also to States. Maine has not as in a moment fallen. The descent to the plane where violence is threatened has been gradual. Disintegration has been silently proceeding. The political combinations have lost their early virtuous lustre, and now the country is invited to behold a spectacle over which the better angels of the nation may profitably weep.

Three figures are prominent in this scene of confusion and uncertainty. The unfair and illegal procedure has lifted into prominence Alonzo Garcelon, a country physician, who served as a surgeon in the war of the Rebellion, and who made a "black-flag" speech at an early date in the conflict. His "no-quarter" platform has been reconstructed, and serves as a place on which to rest his official feet. He has moved steadily on in his course, and "points with pride" to the steps which the demands of each day make necessary. A second Andrew Jackson he is called on all sides; a second Abraham Lincoln he would fain be, if we may judge from the remarks which he made at a "loyal" meeting, when he declared his willingness to be assassinated rather than surrender his constitutional position. Nominated for the Presidency he has been, as a matter of course, that being the logical issue of every crisis in our generous republic. His reputation has been good; his obstinacy unquestioned; his knowledge of men known to be other than large. That his disposition throughout this difficulty has inclined him to do justly, in a technical and narrow spirit, many of his personal friends, who are political enemies, freely assert. The professional habit would lead him to act coolly and with alertness. Projected into the space filled with angry and resolute men, he has appeared undismayed, and with martyr serenity has gone on his way. His brain is not large enough to survey with an accurate eye the conflagration he has kindled. He does not know how huge a blunder he has perpetrated. Not till quiet succeeds this furious storm will he appreciate that it is a crime to suffer petty lapses in the memory of certain town officials to overthrow the evident intention of the people. He walks through a hailstorm of adjectives, large and pitiless, and is likely to be visited in like manner for long days to come. I will not add to the accretion of strong terms, but will content myself with this brief allusion to a man who will find no difficulty in obtaining space in future histories of the State. "To Garcelonize" will be defined in future political grammars as an active, transitive verb, and "to Gerrymander" will be in friendly proximity.

Senator Blaine appears whenever Maine has an "uprising." The State could not "rise" without him. Its political history would be fragmentary indeed were his name and doings obliterated. All roads lead to his house. The political probabilities are mapped out in his mind, not in large sections, but in minute portions. Undoubtedly, were he asked the name of the second selectman of Plantation No. 13, he would instantly utter it. Invisible lines stretch from every voting precinct to his desk at Augusta. He must be held to strict account for whatever occurs in the State under Republican auspices. He made one speech at the outset, presenting the main charges against the Governor and Council, and then quietly resumed his ordinary home avocations, so far as concerns public observation. Nevertheless, not a move on the part of the Republicans has been made without his supervision, and the relays of Fusion detectives who watch his front door (if the daily journals are not misinformed) are not left without consolation in the form of frequent views of hurrying "statesmen," who consult and report at the senatorial mansion. The weal or the woe which issues from this perturbation will be credited to him. Back of the wintry outlines of Augusta loom the large proportions of the lake city where the National Convention is to sit in judgment on him. He acts with that roll-call sounding in his ears. If he errs it will be no mistake through haste. He counts the cost of each syllable.

But the event may demonstrate that the Governor and the Senator were less prominent in an important sense than an ex-governor, J. L. Chamberlain, President of Bowdoin College. He is Major-General of the State Militia, and his army experience, long and honorable, places him among the leaders, apart from all other considerations. He is a conservative Republican, and has been one of the calmer spirits who in the end frequently direct the storm. He declined to join the first visitors, ex-governors and others, who approached the Governor with a request that the course apparently agreed upon by the State officials be abandoned. He evidently deemed the movement injudicious. But he wrote a strong letter to the Governor, urging him to submit the question at issue to the Supreme Court, and has expressed himself clearly of the opinion that the Returning Board of Maine had erred in their decision. At the same time he has discouraged the continuance of the indignation meetings which the Republicans have organized on all sides, and endeavored to quiet the excited people. All his words and acts have made for peace. He has seen bloodshed; he carries a bullet in testimony of his loyalty; when he advocates peaceable measures he is entitled to a hearing. If the trouble ends without open fighting, Gen. Chamberlain will be recognized as one of the pacificators who helped to save the State from the stain of internal conflict. It is easy to be indignant; to refrain from violence is difficult. The profound feeling of the common people would have expressed itself in forceful methods had not the conservative element restrained those who have been robbed and wronged.

Those not morally perfect occasionally pass through the gates and enter the Republican host. The party has ruled Maine for more than a quarter of a century, and the imperfect element has been kept in but partial obscurity. The "wicked partners" have done things which they ought not to have done. There is no question that carelessness has ruled the preparation of election returns, since friendly eyes were to peruse the documents and steady voting ensure the acceptance of faulty certificates. Thus has been engendered a habit which is now repented of. The hostile and technical judgment of the present incumbents has made haste to cast out, as "fatally defective," returns which in former years would have received no severe criticism. If the authorities had acted only in this direction, and counted out those returned as elected in papers obviously incorrect, the grievance would have been more bearable. As it is, the State has had an "object lesson" that will be of value. The official returns of the next election will be models.

It is not to be denied that the Republicans have suffered their smaller and imperfect members to set an "awful example" to the generation of politicians now in power at Augusta. Broad principles have been laid aside and unworthy ends have been regarded. In private their own party men do not hesitate to recount the shortcomings of the Republicans in rare and relatively unimportant instances. But the severest critic cannot find an aggregate of offences which will equal any one of the series of sins against the State of which the present administration at the capital has been guilty. The eagle eye of the "expert" in the Council sees a faint trail of ink leading from the upper flourish of a "P," and forthwith it is de-

cided that the letter is "B"—and one less Republican remains to be unseated. His opponent receives the certificate of election. The same imperial glance rests upon another return, and it is alleged that one man signed for his two compeers on the Board of Selectmen. Thrown out is the return. The votes in certain ballot-boxes give the full names of two candidates. The men are brothers, and town officers. The Fusionist makes out the return, being careful to write only the initials in certifying the vote of one of the two towns in the district. "Francis W." is defeated, but "F. W." has a plurality, in the estimation of the Council, and the Republican goes to the wall. These are pleasant episodes in the history of the count. It is hard to believe that the honorable men engaged in this microscopic occupation could look each other in the face without smiling. One defence offered by members of the Returning Board consists in quoting from a radical Republican paper in Bangor, and then asking, Do you wonder that such provoking talk made us determined to "count out"? This is the argument of the small boy, who has been assailed by jeers and annoying facial distortions on the part of the "fellow of my size." It illustrates the humorous vein which runs through this story of dishonor.

The unanimity, "solid" on the Republican side and nearly so among the Fusionists, is a marked characteristic of this time of dissension. The forces are arrayed, and few are they who refuse the summons to stand with their party. The Democrats or Greenbackers who dissent would not fill a large hall. I talked with a reliable, reputable business man the other day, and he very calmly told me that he believed in paying off the score on account of Louisiana. "I would count them [the Republicans] out of the Presidential election, too." Seventy thousand men face seventy thousand men; evenly divided, with equal fervor and like readiness to defend the cause of their party. It is depressing to any sober-minded man that three-score-and-ten thousand voters should unite in saying that the "counting out" was fair and legal. The talk of civil war grows to be a serious thing when it is seen to mean that the State would be the theatre of a conflict between forces fairly matched. The worldly wisdom which sends out its note of alarm from exceptional editorial rooms among the Democrats, would cry aloud in the Maine streets and wake but a feeble response. Solidity is the prominent feature on either hand; if collision ensues the blow will be "heard round the world."

This survey of the situation in Maine has avoided the discussion of points which have bristled in the daily journals; it has included what might be less obvious to the ordinary reader. The Fusionists have hoped for a violent termination of these debates; the Republicans will rely on peaceable methods. The danger of an encounter on the day of legislative assembling, January 7, is not great, nor is it unreal. The spark may fall, the explosion will certainly follow. As I write, the Supreme Court is considering the questions propounded by the Governor. Their decision will have only a moral effect, but it may serve to deter honorable men from persisting in a procedure which it cannot fail to represent as unwise, illiberal, illegal. "INDEPENDENT."

MAINE, Jan. 3, 1880.

Notes.

GEORGE ROUTLEDGE & SONS have in press an American edition of the most notable recent contribution to nursery lore and pictorial embellishment, published by the London house too scantily to supply both markets. We refer to Kate Greenaway's charming 'Under the Window.' ——Bangs & Co. will sell at auction at their rooms, No. 739 Broadway, on the 19th inst., Mr. Charles L. Woodward's collection of books, etc., relating to Mormonism. The catalogue is carefully executed, and made very readable by the author's comments, which betray not more facetiousness than intimate knowledge of the subject. The earliest date occurs in connection with the 'Book of Mormon' (1830), but the far rarer and intrinsically more important 'Book of Commandments' bears date of 1833.—— The annual report of the curator of the Cambridge Museum of Comparative Zoölogy shows the accessions for the year 1878–9 to have been of unusual extent and importance, the chief source being the dredgings of the Coast Survey steamer *Blake*. The work of instruction and original investigation has been pursued with the usual activity, and the attendance has become inconveniently large.——The 'Harvard University Catalogue' (Cambridge: C. W. Sever) needs for perfection one more convenience, namely, an index to the names of the whole corps of instructors. The distinguishing feature of this edition is the Chinese department.——We are glad to learn that Mr. Henry J. Morgan's 'Dominion Annual Register and Review,' which was hastily begun last year, has met with the favor it deserved and will be continued hereafter. The volume for 1879 will be ready early in February; in the preparation of it Mr. Morgan has had the co-operation of a large number of competent writers and should improve upon his own example. The price will be $2 50, the publisher's address being P.O. box 285, Ottawa.——B. Westermann & Co. send us the 'Almanach de Gotha' for 1880, the date here being prospective and not retrospective, as in the case of the 'Dominion Register.' The ninth year of the decade is by common consent a lean one as regards statistics, the present year being the world's great census-taking epoch. Nor have political changes of great magnitude marked the twelvemonth just elapsed. Still, the 'Almanach' takes account of the territorial redistributions made in accordance with the Treaty of Berlin, and for the first time the principality of Bulgaria appears upon the scene, albeit still under the sovereignty of the Porte. Its superficial area is 63,865 square kilometres (24,620 square miles), its population 1,859,000. Under Austria-Hungary, Dalmatia is credited with a slight extension of area, but Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Novi-Bazar are still allotted to Turkey with only Austro-Hungarian "occupation"—a territory very nearly as large as Bulgaria, though not so populous in proportion. The population of Spain (census of 1877) is given as 16,053,961, for the peninsula; that of Portugal (1878) as 4,348,551, also for the peninsula; that of Greece (1879) as 1,679,775, archipelago and Ionian Islands included. New York and Indiana in 1870 were as populous as the two latter kingdoms now. President Grévy and Alexander I. of Bulgaria are the most significant of the regulation four portraits.——The *Paper World* is the title of a new monthly journal just founded at Holyoke, Mass. The first number is very readable, and in its external appearance is a handsome specimen of typography. It aims to be something more than a trade-journal.——The *Athenæum* of December 20 states that Prof. A. De Gubernatis has discovered at Paris, at the house of Madame Mohl, the whole of Manzoni's correspondence with the historian Fauriel, and, with Madame Mohl's permission, will publish it in the *Nuova Antologia*, with a copious biographical commentary. ——The *Rassegna Settimanale* for November 30 notices the first *fascicolo* of the important undertaking of Prof. Adolfo Bartoli and his colleagues, which will result in a learned catalogue of the Italian MSS. in the National Library at Florence, some 17,000 in number. The work is divided into two sections, prose and verse. Biographical details and occasional extracts are given, and photographs of the more striking miniatures. The publication is perhaps needlessly luxurious.——In the same paper for December 14, Karl Hillebrand, who, whatever language he writes in, touches nothing that he does not adorn, discourses most agreeably of Mme. de Rémusat, apropos of her newly-published Memoirs; shows, with characteristic impartiality, what caution ought to be observed in accepting them, yet how enjoyable they are; and offers an explanation of the fact that such memoirs are almost peculiar to the French and so far superior to English, German, or Italian attempts.——We understand that a number of gentlemen of this city are making arrangements for the delivery, during the present month, of four of Mr. John Fiske's lectures on American history.

—In our notice (in last week's number) of volume x. of the 'Britannica' we did the author of the article "Germany" a slight injustice by stating that the war of 1866 is there "told without any allusion to the fact that Italy was a party to it." The account of that conflict actually contains no mention whatever of hostile operations in Italy, which surprised us when reading the article; but the preceding narrative mentions the alliance between Prussia and Italy, which had escaped our memory when, before writing our paragraph, we once more examined the section referring to the "Seven Weeks' War."

—Mrs. May Wright Thompson writes to substantiate her assertion made in the *Nation* of November 13, and controverted by Miss Eliza Darling, that the majority of the women students at Michigan University believe in woman suffrage. The point at issue is purely a question of fact, but it seems, nevertheless, to have been somewhat difficult to determine. Miss Darling's statistics related to the Literary Department of the University, and were as follows: two give no opinion; five are undecided; fourteen favor woman suffrage; thirty-two are more or less opposed. These foot up only fifty-three, says Mrs. Thompson, and there are seventy-four women in the Literary Department, so that there are twenty-one unreported. Her own figures relate to all the women in the professional departments. They number fifty-three, of whom thirty-six favor woman suffrage, thirteen are undecided, and four opposed. An important consideration, Mrs. Thompson thinks, is the circumstance that

the women in the Literary Department average twenty-one years only, while those in the professional departments average twenty-seven, so that the opinion of the latter is "of more value." There are thus in all the departments fifty women in favor of the suffrage, thirty-six opposed, and nineteen undecided. Mrs. Thompson also calls President Angell as a witness to disprove the assertion of another of her critics, "E. L. S.," that in history the women at Ann Arbor "have conspicuously failed." President Angell testifies that "a large number of women are now pursuing that study with a success in no way inferior to the success of the men."

—"V. G. B." writes us from Parkersburg, W. Va.:

"In your excellent and graphic account of Prof. Dunstmaier's remarkable experiments in the domain of soul-locating (see No. 754), you seem to have entirely ignored the fact that there is an 'eternal fitness' in names as well as things. By referring to your German dictionary you will find the correct definition of *Dunst* to be 'vapor-gas,' 'exhalation,' etc., and that *Maier* is Old-German for 'reaper' or 'harvester.' Combining these two words we have, of course, 'a harvester of exhalations,' or rather 'exhalation-harvester.' This is eminently proper, of course; but as we Germans believe that the names of Becker, Schuster, Schneider, Schmidt, and Müller were conferred upon our great-grandfathers because they followed these occupations, does it not logically lead us to the terrible suspicion that Prof. Dunstmaier has stolen this wonderful discovery from some of the ancient records of his ancestors?"

—The Bureau of Education is organized for the purpose of collecting statistics showing the progress of education in different parts of the Union, and publishing them with such information as may be valuable to those who are interested in the subject. But the means of performing its work in a satisfactory manner are so meagre that under the most favorable circumstances we could hardly expect results having the slightest statistical value. It does not appear part of the duty of a single institution of learning to give information to the Bureau; the latter is, therefore, dependent entirely upon its own exertions in collecting the required information. To one who reflects how difficult a task it would be, even with unlimited appropriations, to collect exact statistics of all the institutions of learning in the United States, it will not appear at all surprising if the sums appropriated by Congress to the purpose should prove insufficient. The whole annual appropriation for the office last year was only thirty-six thousand dollars. Granting that the information required was all collected, its annual arrangement in the form of a report would be a task of no small difficulty if anything like perspicuity were aimed at. We should not, therefore, expect, even under the most favorable circumstances, to see an entirely satisfactory report emanate from the Bureau. But that no improvement can be made on the miscellaneous jumble which is annually sent out we should be slow to believe. The report of 1877 has but lately appeared, and it may be instructive to give some idea of its contents as showing the direction in which a Government office gravitates when its only duty is to prepare an annual report.

—The report proper of the Commissioner, excluding the statistical addenda, fills two hundred pages. From beginning to end there is not, so far as we have found, any division into chapters or other topical headings, except the small headings of paragraphs common in such documents, (and inserted, we believe, indifferently by the printer or the writer,) and the headings of statistical abstracts. The latter are inserted in the text, with which, however, they have not the slightest apparent connection, except similarity of subject. Were they all taken out the reader would hardly know that anything was missing. Scarcely an explanation is given of these tables, or a result which they contain alluded to or discussed. More remarkable yet is the varied character of the information given. On the opening page commences an essay on the conflict of capital and labor, at the end of which the printer finds a convenient space to insert some educational statistics, including the number of letters and acknowledgments received and sent by the office. Several pages are then devoted to praise of the office. The first sixteen pages contain quotations from "the great Stein," "the famous Fletcher," Bacon, Lecky, Lord Macaulay, "the eminent scientist Dr. Ficker," Napoleon I., and Goethe. A brief summary of the educational status of the States follows, about a dozen lines being devoted on the average to each State. A summary of public-school statistics in States commences on page 46. It is followed not by any discussion or explanation whatever, but by what are supposed to be extracts from Dr. Philbrick's report on the Boston public schools. As with other extracts, we find it hard to discover where this one ends, since, while we suppose we are still reading Dr. Philbrick, we find him quoting himself with praise. If the reader desires to know how much can be included under the subject of education he has simply to turn over the two hundred pages of the report to which we refer, and note the continuous series of extracts from writers on every topic of sociological interest. The six hundred pages of the appendix are devoted to abstracts of information and statistical tables in about equal amounts. In the former we find an attempt at arrangement under special States and under special classes of instruction. Still one cannot feel that he is obtaining anything like a complete view of the case, and the heterogeneous character of the material increases the doubt. We open at random under the State of Delaware, page 34, and the first information which catches our eye is that in the Wilmington High-School for boys Latin, including the 'Æneid,' is studied in connection with a good English course. If similar information were given for every high-school in the country we could feel that some attention was paid to classifying the information. But we cannot find the slightest correspondence between this and what is said of other institutions of learning. Apparently, the whole summary is made up from local reports by putting together such statements as chanced first to catch the eye of the clerk. The three hundred pages of statistical tables with which the report closes should be valuable. The principal drawback is the doubt respecting their completeness and accuracy, which is unavoidable so long as the present system of obtaining them prevails. If the whole report were confined to these tables the Government would be saved the expense of printing five hundred pages of material which would not be accepted by an editor of any magazine in the country.

—The enthusiastic published accounts of Mr. Edison's progress in electric lighting have been derived from Mr. Edison himself or from his assistants at the Menlo Park laboratory, and are by no means judicial or exhaustive in character. Communicating with the public through newspaper reporters has its conveniences, but in this case as in others the public should be prepared to have over-sanguine promises and preposterous claims disavowed as having been made without Mr. Edison's authority. For example, the recent assertion that Mr. Edison has so improved the Sprengel pump that he is able to obtain with it, in twenty-five minutes, a vacuum which physicists had previously required forty-five hours to produce, will excite the amusement if it does not arouse the indignation of Messrs. Mawson & Swan, of Newcastle, England, who have for some years manufactured and sold Sprengel pumps capable of producing high vacua in fifteen minutes. Since Edward A. King, in 1845, patented the idea of electric illumination by means of incandescent carbons in vacuo (English patent 10,919) the scientific world has taken note of all the material features of Mr. Edison's so-called system; and Mr. Edison, in continuing his experiments in the endeavor, as he states, to devise some mode of lessening the cost of his light, is really addressing himself to the only substantial problem relating to the subject which was unsolved before he began.

—The exhibition at Menlo Park does not encourage expectation of an early solution of this problem. Mr. Edison's fifty lamps, of a total capacity of five to seven hundred candles, are operated by power derived from an eighty-horse engine transmitted to an electric generating apparatus by two double five-inch belts, which drive respectively ten and twelve-inch pulleys at the rate of six hundred revolutions per minute. Under such conditions the generating apparatus may employ more than half the power of the engine, or an amount of power which, if applied to the Weston, Siemens, Gramme, or Brush forms of apparatus, would yield from one hundred down to fifty times more illuminating power than Edison's apparatus, according to the mode of application. Mr. Edison asserts that his peculiar carbons are indestructible, and he can therefore afford to expend this excess of power. But it has long been known that the duration of the life of a carbon in vacuo is inversely proportional to the intensity of the electric current employed in rendering it incandescent, and Mr. Edison exercises the utmost care to preserve his carbons in a condition of comparatively low incandescence. His lamps are each connected with the two wires leading respectively from the opposite poles of his generating apparatus. These two wires may be considered as the side-pieces of a ladder, and the lamps as a series of rungs affording parallel paths for the flow of the current from one wire to the other. If a considerable number of these paths should be obliterated, as, for example, by the removal of some of the lamps, the current would all be forced to pass through the remaining paths, and would at once overheat the carbons in the remaining lamps, and with a greater or less rapidity destroy them. To guard against this, during Mr. Edison's exhibitions, one of his assistants, with the aid of a Thompson galvanometer, carefully observes the indications of resistance in the circuit which are manifested whenever a lamp is removed, and immediately shuts off a portion of the current

from the circuit, taking constant care that the quantity of the current supplied to the circuit shall be just that, and no more, which can safely be permitted to flow through the number of lamps which are in operation. The young gentleman who performs this function, although not a prominent object at Menlo Park, is one of Mr. Edison's most important factors in obtaining a result which at present cannot be justly estimated to be anything more than the repetition, upon a somewhat enlarged scale and at great cost, of an old laboratory experiment.

—Mr. Joseffy had only to change the monotony of his programmes during the last few weeks to gain again a most brilliant success. Chickering Hall was crowded to overflowing on Saturday evening with a very select and enthusiastic audience to listen to the artist in one of his best efforts. So far as his part of the programme was concerned, the evening was devoted to Chopin, in whose compositions the young Hungarian is always most at home. We have repeatedly spoken of his admirable interpretation of the E Minor Concerto, with which he first fascinated a New York audience, and we could not pay him a higher compliment than by saying that his rendering of the F Minor Concerto, which he gave here on Saturday for the first time, as well as of the "Andante Spianato and Polonaise," was, in every respect, fully equal to that performance. The scene in the hall at the close of the concert recalled those of the artist's first appearance, the audience being most demonstrative in the expression of their appreciation. The next opportunity of hearing Mr. Joseffy in New York will be at the third Philharmonic Concert, where he will give one of Beethoven's Pianoforte Concertos.

—The season of English opéra bouffe at the Fifth Avenue Theatre, under the management of Mr. D'Oyly Carte, seems destined to prove a great success. The first opera produced was "H. M. S. Pinafore," and to make one more successful "Pinafore" season in New York, even with the original orchestration, of which the public had never before had the benefit in this country, was no small triumph. There is no very noticeable difference, as a matter of fact, between the two scores, and considering that the opera as it was originally produced here was transposed from a piano-score, the very close approach to Mr. Sullivan's own work was perhaps the most remarkable thing about it. "Pinafore" has now been succeeded by the long-promised opera, written and composed especially for production in the United States, and called "The Pirates of Penzance, or the Slave of Duty." It is called a "melodramatic" opera on the bills, but this is, we suppose, a little jest by the way, for it is as pure an extravaganza as anything ever produced on any stage. It has established itself as a success much more speedily than "Pinafore" did. The author and composer have in this case not made the mistake of omitting to preserve their stage-right, so the "Pirates of Penzance" is not published, and anybody who wishes to represent it will have to apply for permission to do so to the proprietors, and probably have to pay a large royalty for the license. The "Pirates of Penzance" resembles and recalls the other operas of the school to which it belongs, "The Sorcerer," "Trial by Jury," and "Pinafore," both in the general arrangement and in particular points of detail. It is impossible not to see a family likeness between *Ruth* and *Buttercup*, between *Major-General Stanley*, *Sir Joseph Porter*, and the *Judge* in "Trial by Jury." Classical operatic forms, too, are followed with great closeness in the music of the new opera, as they were in the music of its predecessors; and the humor of Mr. Gilbert is always the humor of the author of the 'Bab Ballads.' In saying this we do not by any means mean to say that the "Pirates of Penzance" is an imitation, for it is entirely original.

—The idea on which it is founded is that of a young man of extremely conscientious character apprenticed by mistake to a band of pirates, and the complications caused by the irreconcilable opposition between his immoral calling and his inward goodness. In his capital play of "Engaged" Mr. Gilbert showed himself a master of this sort of moral absurdity, and, though to our mind the development of *Frederic's* conscience is not as funny as parts of "Engaged," it is still very funny. The part is injured at the Fifth Avenue by the bad acting of Mr. Talbot, who merely walks through it, and it is utterly impossible to say what might be made of it by a clever actor. Mr. Brocolini as the *Pirate Chief* sings and acts very fairly, while Mr. Furneaux Cook as his lieutenant, *Samuel*, makes as much of a small part, both lyrically and dramatically, as was possible. *Major-General Stanley* is an officer of the modern highly-scientific type, who sings a most ludicrous song, funnier on the whole than *Sir Joseph Porter's* in "Pinafore." Mr. J. H. Ryley, however, is not quite equal to the part, which needs some one like Mr. Whiffen to create it. The leading feminine part is that of *Mabel*, the youngest daughter of *General Stanley*. Miss Blanche Roosevelt sings this, as she sang that of *Josephine* in "Pinafore," very well, and her beauty and refinement are always attractive; but she makes very little attempt at acting. Her sisters, *Kate*, *Edith*, and *Isabel*, were all well taken by Miss Brandram, Miss Bond, and Miss Barlow. There are three choruses, one of pirates, one of *General Stanley's* daughters, and one of policemen, led by *Edward*, their sergeant, a part very well acted and sung by Mr. F. Clifton. The choruses are all very good, the policemen being thoroughly bouffe, the pirates most comically piratical, and *Major Stanley's* daughters everything that the daughters of a general officer should be. The policemen nerving themselves for their meeting with the pirates by winding a call upon their clubs, and protesting against being sent to "death and glory" by the soprano, are as good as any of the numerous gendarmes scenes which French opera has made so familiar. There are, however, many broad distinctions between the operas of Gilbert and Sullivan and those of the Offenbachian school. The music of the English school is not so light, the burlesque of operatic forms is a more essential part of it, and there is nothing indecent. There is no doubt that the impropriety and license of French opera give it a range that is fortunately impossible in English. We always miss, however, in any English opera, the universal French dramatic facility, which no amount of drilling can instil into Anglo-Saxon blood, and the absence of which always tends to make the performance of English choruses more or less depressing. Mr. Gilbert has succeeded better in this respect than we had supposed it possible. *General Stanley's* daughters withdrawing to the sea-shore, for instance, to talk about the weather for the purpose of leaving *Mabel* and *Frederic* to themselves, was thoroughly good. As to dresses and scenery, the "Pirates of Penzance" is brought out with great taste. We have left ourselves no space to speak of the music, which is of Mr. Sullivan's best. There is not a great number of taking airs, as in "Pinafore," but there are some extremely beautiful songs and choruses, which need to be heard several times for their excellence to be appreciated.

—Mr. Bartley Campbell's "Fairfax," at the Park Theatre, is a genuine success, though in some respects it is an absurd play. The scene is laid in what Mr. Campbell likes to call the "sunny South," and very sunny it is to judge by the view of the "Fairfax" estate displayed in the first act. This estate is one of those fine old properties once so common in Florida, where Southern gentlemen of ancient family used to be found living before the war, surrounded by their loving slaves and lapped in luxury. At the head of this establishment is *Mr. Fairfax* himself, a widower in the prime of life and in love with *Miss Clarke*, who is really *Mrs. Marrigold*. In the prologue *Mrs. Marrigold* has very properly refused to surrender to her drunken husband (who has reduced her and her dying child to extreme misery) a bank-note given her for her child's benefit by the benevolent (though in manner cynical) *Dr. Gaylord*. In the struggle which ensues her husband's pistol goes off and kills him. A tramp has witnessed the act and resolves to profit by it. *Fairfax*, of course, falls in love with *Miss Clarke*, who has come into his family as his child's governess, and wishes to marry her; but she is afraid to confess her deception and her past history, though why she is ashamed of it or remorseful about it is not so apparent as a clever dramatist like Mr. Campbell ought to have made it. The situation is made worse by the reappearance of the tramp, who, for purposes of his own, denounces her as a murderess. In the end, of course, true love is triumphant, the tramp meets his deserts, and all ends happily. *Dr. Gaylord*, young *Wagstaff*, and *Diana Dorsie* do the high comedy of the play, and several slaves and the tramp the low comedy. There is nothing very new in it, but it is well put together, and the interest is sustained to the end. The acting of Miss Cowell as *Diana* is unusually good in its way; the part is that of a coquettish but warm-hearted girl, and Miss Cowell makes the most of it. This actress, unless we are greatly mistaken, is steadily improving with every part she takes; what she chiefly needs at present is greater scope for her talents. Mr. Whiting, who takes the part of *Fairfax*, acts with a good deal of spirit, and Mr. Robinson as *Dr. Gaylord* showed all the qualities which make him so reliable a comedian. Mr. Ferguson did the tramp as well as a tramp could be done. The thrilling part of *Mrs. Marrigold* is taken by Mrs. Booth, who has a hold upon New York audiences which defies criticism.

—Among the various essays in applied sanitary science in progress under the auspices of the National Board of Health, not the least important is the investigation of the Memphis water supply. To most minds the phrase "water analysis" conjures up the idea of a tabulated statement of the numerous saline matters which exist in the water in a state

of solution. But of late years all this has been changed. It is true that a tabular statement of this sort is still retained in the case of mineral waters; but in the waters used in our domestic economy the analyst cares little for the salines, unless they exist in unwholesome quantity. To estimate the amount of the subtle and complex organic matters which may be present; to determine whether these are of animal or vegetable derivation; whether they came from a distance, and are more or less changed in quality, or from near by, and retain all their original virulence—these, rather than the former, are the points which engross the attention of the sanitarian. Analyses of this character are by no means common in this country. In England the public analyst is required to be able to conduct such experiments, and many waters, like those of the London water companies, are kept under constant supervision. It is probable, however, that even these examinations will be surpassed in thoroughness and extent by the Memphis work of the analyst detailed by the National Board, Assistant-Surgeon Charles Smart, U.S.A. More than five hundred examinations had been completed at the date of the last report, and as the several processes have been impartially employed the results bid fair to be instructive in more senses than one.

—The late clerical and scholastic quarrel in Belgium and the publication of the Pope's despatches have been eagerly seized upon by the French Liberal journals as weapons in their war against clericalism. One of them having shown from the documents that there was a contradiction between the policy of Leo XIII. and that of his two predecessors, Pius IX. and Gregory XVI., and that the present Pope has been counselling moderation to the Belgian clergy and manifesting his disapprobation of their violence, and that the Belgian clergy have paid hardly any attention to his advice, concludes by wittily remarking that at present an infallible Pope has less authority in the affairs of the Church than popes who were not infallible.

—A committee, of which Victor Hugo and Louis Blanc are honorary presidents, has commenced the publication of a weekly journal, *La Semaine Anticlérica'e*, designed to combat not religion but clericalism, "which, by its ignorance, its gross superstitions, its despotic pretensions, is the enemy of all religious sentiment." It promises to keep its readers informed of the "marvellous movement now going on in France" in promotion of popular education by lay schools, popular libraries, public readings, clubs of the "Ligue de l'Enseignement," and the like. *Polybiblion*, which is strongly clerical, calls this a sign of the times, and gives as another sign the publication of a "Bibliographie clérico-galante; ouvrages galants ou singuliers sur l'amour, les femmes, etc., écrits par des prêtres, religieux, religieuses, évêques, cardinaux, et papes." That a briefly annotated list of such titles should fill 206 pages is a disgrace to the Church on which *Polybiblion* has nothing to say, but it can at least ask whether the remarkably quick sale of works of this class is a sign of the "intellectual and moral restoration" of which the Republican journals are boasting. The latter may reply by suggesting that the edition would have disappeared even more quickly under the Empire.

PATTISON'S MILTON.*

JOHN BRIGHT once asked a friend who was the greatest of Englishmen; and, the friend hesitating, answered his own question by saying, "Milton, because he, above all others, combined the greatness of the writer with the greatness of the citizen." Professor Masson, in his 'Life and Times of Milton,' has embodied the conception of the character indicated by this remark; but he has run into the extreme of incorporating a complete history of the Revolution with the biography of Milton, so that the historical portion of the work overlays instead of illuminating the biographical, and the chapters devoted specially to the life seem to the reader interpolations, and not always welcome interpolations, in a profoundly interesting account of the times. But now comes a biographer in whose eyes the life of Milton the citizen is a mere "episode," and not only a mere episode, but a lamentable and humiliating episode, in the life of Milton the poet. "Milton's life," says Mr. Pattison, "is a drama in three acts. The first discovers him in the calm and peaceful retirement of Horton, of which 'L'Allegro,' 'Il Penseroso,' and 'Lycidas' are the expression. In the second act he is breathing the foul and heated atmosphere of party passion and religious hate, generating the lurid fires which glare in the battailous canticles of his prose pamphlets. The three great poems—'Paradise Lost,' 'Paradise Regained,' and 'Samson Agonistes'—are the utterance of his final period of solitary and Promethean grandeur, when, blind, destitute, friendless, he testified of righteousness, temperance, and judgment to come, alone before a fallen world." As to the struggle to which Milton, with Cromwell, Vane, Pym, Hampden, Selden, and Chillingworth, gave his life, it is, in the eyes of his present biographer, an ignoble "fray," a "biblical brawl," and its fruits in the way of theological discussion are nothing but "garbage." To write his 'Defence of the English People' Milton deliberately sacrificed his eyesight, his doctor having warned him that he would lose his one remaining eye if he persisted in using it for book work. "The choice lay before me," he writes, "between dereliction of a supreme duty and loss of eyesight. In such a case I could not listen to the physician, not if Æsculapius himself had spoken from his sanctuary; I could not but obey that inward monitor, I know not what, that spoke to me from heaven. I considered with myself that many had purchased less good with worse ill, as they who gave their lives to reap only glory, and I thereupon concluded to employ the little remaining eyesight I was to enjoy in doing this, the greatest service to the common weal it was in my power to render." Mr. Pattison has quoted this passage, and no doubt he silently appreciates the heroism which breathes through it; but the "supreme duty" of which it speaks appears to him only a "prostitution of faculties" and a "poor delusion." Milton, he thinks, ought to have kept entirely aloof from the brawl and remained quiet either in the intellectual circles of Italy or in the delicious seclusion of his library at Horton, leaving liberty, truth, and righteousness to drown or be saved from drowning by other hands than his. In "plunging into the fray" the poet miserably derogated from his superior position as a literary man, and the result was a dead loss to him and to the world. We are sure that we do not state Mr. Pattison's view more strongly than it is stated in his own pages.

The views of all of us, including Professor Masson, on such a question are sure to be more or less idiosyncratic, and those of the present biographer have not escaped the general liability. They seem to us, at least, to represent a mood prevalent just now among eminent men, the literary class in England, particularly at the universities. These men have been tossed on the waves of Ritualism, tossed on the waves of the reaction from Ritualism; some of them have been personally battered in both controversies; they have attained no certainty, but rather arrived at the conclusion that no certainty is attainable; they are weary and disgusted; such of them as have been enthusiasts in politics have been stripped of their illusions in that line also, and have fallen back on the conviction that everything must be left to evolve itself, and that there is nothing to be done. They have withdrawn into the sanctuary of critical learning and serene art, abjuring all theology and politics, and, above all, abjuring controversy of all kinds as utterly vulgar and degrading, though, as might be expected, they are sometimes controversial and even rather tart in an indirect way, and without being conscious of it themselves. Mr. Pattison's air when he comes into contact with the politics or theology of Milton's days is like that of a very seasick passenger at the sight of a pork-chop. Nor does he fail to reflect the Necessarianism of his circle. "That in selecting a scriptural subject," he says, "Milton was not, in fact, exercising any choice, but was determined by his circumstances, is only what must be said of all choosing." Criticism fastidiously erudite, a study of art religiously and almost mystically profound, are fruits of this intellectual seclusion of chosen spirits from the coarse and ruffling world for which that world has reason to be grateful. It is not likely that Milton would have chosen a writer of this school as his biographer; but few men would choose their own biographers well.

Milton has, at all events, found in Mr. Pattison a biographer whose narrative is throughout extremely pleasant, interesting, and piquant; the piquancy being enhanced for those who have the key to certain sly hits, such as that at "the peculiar form of credulity which makes perverts (to Roman Catholicism) think that every one is about to follow their example," which carries us back to the time when the head of Tractarianism, having gone over to Rome, was waiting anxiously, but in vain, for its tail to join it. The facts had already been collected by the diligence of Professor Masson, but Mr. Pattison uses them in a style which places beyond a doubt his own familiarity with the subject. Through the moral judgments there runs, as we think, and as we should have expected, a somewhat exaggerated notion of the privileges of intellect and of the value of literary compared with other objects; but with this qualification the reflections will probably be thought sensible and sound. The unfortunate relations between Milton and his first wife are treated, as we think all readers will say, at once with delicacy and justice. The literary criticisms are of a high order, such as only comprehensive learning combined

* 'English Men of Letters Edited by John Morley. Milton. By Mark Pattison, B.D., Rector of Lincoln College, Oxford.' London: Macmillan. New York: Harper & Bros. 1879.

with trained taste could produce; whether you entirely enter into all of them or not (and criticism has not yet been reduced to a certain rule), you cannot fail to gain from them increase of insight and enjoyment. They are often expressed in language of great beauty:

"The rapid purification of Milton's taste will be best perceived by comparing 'L'Allegro' and 'Il Penseroso,' of uncertain date but written after 1632, with the 'Ode on the Nativity,' written 1629. The Ode, notwithstanding its foretaste of Milton's grandeur, abounds in frigid conceits from which the two later pieces are free. The Ode is frosty, as written in winter within the four walls of a college-chamber. The two idyls breathe the free air of spring and summer and of the fields round Horton. They are thoroughly naturalistic; the choicest expression our language has yet found of the first charm of country life, not as that life is lived by the peasant, but as it is felt by a young and lettered student, issuing at early dawn or at sunset into the fields from his chamber and his books. All rural sights and sounds and smells are here blended in that ineffable combination which once or twice perhaps in our lives has saluted our young senses, before their perceptions were blunted by alcohol, by lust or ambition, or diluted by the social distractions of great cities."

This will not be found to be a *purpureus pannus*. Nor does it much detract from the grace of the work that of the "asyntactic disorder" of which Mr. Pattison accuses Milton's prose, examples not a few may be found in his own. Grammatical irregularities in a really good writer, as Mr. Pattison undoubtedly is, only prove that the mind is more intent on the matter than on the form.

'Paradise Lost' is the subject of a learned, luminous, and to us very instructive dissertation. It is truly said that of the adverse criticism which we meet with on the poem "much resolves itself into a refusal on the part of the critic to make that initial abandonment to the conditions which the poet demands: a determination to insist that his heaven, peopled with deities, dominations, principalities, and powers, shall have the same material laws which govern our planetary system." There is one criticism, however, which cannot be so resolved, and on which, as it appears to us the most serious of all, we should have liked very much to hear Mr. Pattison. It is said that Lord Thurlow and another lawyer were crossing Hounslow Heath in a post-chaise when a tremendous thunder-storm came on; that the other lawyer said that it reminded him of the battle in 'Paradise Lost' between the devil and the angels; and that Thurlow roared, with a blasphemous oath, "Yes, and I wish the devil had won." Persons desirous of sustaining the religious reputation of the legal profession add that his companion jumped out of the chaise in the rain and ran away over the heath. For our part, we have never found nearly so much difficulty in any of the incongruities connected with the relations between spirit and matter, or any confusions of the Copernican with the Ptolemaic system, as at the constant wrenching of our moral sympathies which the poet demands for the Powers of Good, but which his own delineation of Satan, as a hero waging a Promethean war with Omnipotence, compels us to give to the Powers of Evil. Perhaps a word or two might have been said about the relations of 'Paradise Lost' to other "epics." It manifestly belongs not to the same class of poems as the 'Iliad' and the 'Odyssey,' or even the 'Æneid.' Dobson's Latin translation of it is about the greatest feat ever performed in modern Latin verse, and it shows by a crucial experiment how little Milton really has in common with Virgil. 'Paradise Lost' seems to us far more akin to the Greek tragedy than to the Homeric poems or the 'Æneid.' In the form of a Greek drama it was first conceived. Its verse is the counterpart of the Greek iambic, not of the Greek or Latin hexameter. Had the laborious Dobson turned it into Greek iambics instead of turning it into Latin hexameters, we suspect the real affinity would have appeared.

Looking upon the life of Milton the politician merely as a disastrous and humiliating episode in the life of Milton the poet, Mr. Pattison cannot be expected to entertain the idea that the poem is in any sense the work of the politician. Yet we cannot help thinking that the tension and elevation which Milton's nature had undergone in the mighty struggle, together with the heroic dedication of his faculties to the most serious objects, must have had not a little to do both with the final choice of his subject and with the tone of his poem. "The great Puritan epic" could hardly have been written by any one but a militant Puritan. Had Milton abjured the service of his cause, as his biographer would have had him do, he might have given us an Arthurian romance or some other poem of amusement. We even think it not impossible that he might have never produced a great poem at all, but have let life slip away in elaborate preparation without being able to fix upon a theme or brace himself to the effort of composition. If Milton's participation in a political battle fought to save at once the political and the spiritual life of England was degrading, Dante's participation in the faction fight between the Guelphs and Ghibellines must have been still more so; yet if Dante had been a mere man of leisure could he have written the 'Divina Commedia'? Who are these sublime artists in poetry that are pinnacled so high above the "frays" and "brawls" of vulgar humanity? The best of them, we suppose (writers for the stage being out of the question), is Goethe. Shelley, Wordsworth, and Byron were all distinctly poets of the Revolution or of the Counter-Revolution, and if you could remove from them the political element, you would rob them of half their force and interest. The great growths of poetry have coincided with the great bursts of national life, and the great bursts of national life have hitherto been generally periods of controversy and struggle. "He that loseth his life shall preserve it." Milton was ready to lose his literary life by sacrificing the remains of his eyesight to a cause which, upon the whole, humanity has accepted as its own; and it was preserved to him in a work which will never die. Mr. Pattison points to a short poem written by Milton when his pen was chiefly employed in serving the Commonwealth as indication that Milton "did not inwardly forfeit the peace which passeth all understanding." Why should a man forfeit that peace when he is doing with his whole soul that which he conscientiously believes to be his highest duty?

Over Milton's pamphlets Mr. Pattison can of course only wring his hands. He is at liberty to wring his hands as much as he pleases over the personalities which sullied the controversy with Salmasius; but these are a small part of the matter, particularly when they are viewed in connection with the habits of a time which was at once much rougher in phrase, though perhaps not less malicious, than ours, and given to servile imitation of Greek and Latin oratory. To point his moral more keenly Mr. Pattison denies that Milton was ever effective as a political writer. Yet the Council of State, who can have looked to nothing but effectiveness, and were pretty good judges of it, specially invited Milton to answer 'Eikon Basilike' and to plead the cause of the Regicide Republic against Salmasius in the court of European opinion. Mr. Pattison himself (p. 125) allows that on the Continent Milton was renowned as the answerer of Salmasius and the vindicator of liberty; and he proceeds to quote the statement of Milton's nephew that learned foreigners could not leave London without seeing his uncle. But the biographer has evidently laid down beforehand in his own mind general laws which are fatal to all pamphlets as pamphlets, without consideration of their particular merits. "There are," he says, "examples of thought having been influenced by books. But such books have been scientific, not rhetorical." If it were not rude to contradict, we should have said that the influence exercised in politics by scientific treatises had been as nothing in the aggregate compared with that exercised by pamphlets, speeches, and, in later times, by the newspaper press. What does Mr. Pattison say to Burke's 'Reflections on the French Revolution,' to Paine's 'Common Sense,' to the tracts written by Halifax and Defoe at the time of the Revolution? "Neither thought nor action" is his epigrammatic condemnation of Milton's political writings; but an appeal which stirs men to action is surely both. Again, of 'Eikonoklastes' we are told that "it is, like *all answers*, worthless as a book." Bentley's 'Phalaris' is an answer; Demosthenes' 'De Corona' is an answer. As a rule, no doubt, the form is a bad one; but an answer may embody principles and knowledge, as well as show literary skill, reasoning power, and courteous self-control, which, after all, are not worthless, though they are worth far less than some other things. These discussions, so odious and contemptible in Mr. Pattison's eyes, what are they but the processes of thought through which a nation or humanity works its way to political truth? Even books scientific in form, such as Hobbes's 'Leviathan' or Harrington's 'Oceana,' are but registered results of a long discussion. 'Eikon Basilike' was doing infinite mischief to the cause of the Commonwealth; and how could it have been met except by a critical reply? 'Eikonoklastes' was thought, though it was not exact science; and so far as it told, it was action, though it was not a pike or a musket.

This portion of Mr. Pattison's work is thickly sown with aphorisms to which no one who does not share his special mood can without qualification assent. "No good man can, with impunity, addict himself to party; and the best men will suffer most because their conviction of the goodness of their cause is deeper. But when one with the sensibility of a poet throws himself into the excitements of a struggle he is certain to lose his balance. The endowment of feeling and imagination which qualifies him to be the ideal interpreter of life, unfits him for participation in that real life through the manœuvres and compromises of which reason is the only guide, and where imagination is as much misplaced as it would be in

a game of chess." In this there is an element of truth, but there is also something to which we are inclined to demur. If by party is meant mere faction, plainly no man can addict himself to it with impunity. But when the English nation was struggling in the grasp of a court and a prelacy which sought to reduce it to the level of Spain, no Englishman, as it seems to us, could with impunity perch himself aloft in a palace of art while peasants were shedding their blood to make him free. Especially do we question the soundness of the sentiment expressed in the last clause. Why is real life to be abandoned by every man of feeling and imagination and given over to manœuvres and compromises? Is not this the sentiment of the monkish ascetic coming back to us in another form? Cromwell, Vane, Hampden, and Pym were not mere manœuvrers and compromisers; they had plenty of feeling and imagination, though in them these qualities gave birth not to poetry, but to high political or religious aspirations and grand social ideals. The theory of Milton's biographer is that an active interest in public affairs is fatal to excellence in other kinds of literature or in art; and this theory seems to be confuted as signally as possible by the facts of Milton's life.

In the same spirit Mr. Pattison continually represents the end of Milton's public life as "the irretrievable discomfiture of all his hopes, aims, and aspirations"; his labor as "being swept away without a trace of it being left"; and the latter part of his life as utter "wretchedness." The failure of selfish schemes often makes men wretched. The failure of unselfish aspirations may make a man sad, but can never make him wretched; and Milton was not wretched when he was writing 'Paradise Lost.' He would not have been wretched even if the discomfiture of his hopes for the Commonwealth had been as final and as irretrievable as his biographer supposes. But Milton knew that, though disastrous, it was not final or irretrievable. He had implicit confidence in the indestructibility of moral force, and he "bated no jot of heart or hope." He would see the limits of the reaction and know that, though great and calamitous in proportion to the errors of the Republican party, it had not changed in a day the character and fundamental tendencies of the nation. He would note that the Star Chamber, the Court of High Commission, the Council of the North, the legislative functions once usurped by the Privy Council, were not restored, and that no attempt was made to govern without a parliament. He found himself, the defender of regicide, not free from peril, indeed, yet protected by public opinion, while, in general, narrow bounds were set to the bloodthirsty vengeance of the Cavaliers. He lived to witness the actual turn of the tide. Six years before his death the Triple Alliance was formed, and in the year of his death the Cabal Ministry fell. At worst, his case would have been that of a soldier killed in an unfortunate crisis of a battle which in the end was won; but he fell, if not with the shout of victory in his ears, with the inspiriting signs of a general advance around him. If we take remoter ages into our view, the triumph of Milton is still more manifest. The cause to which he gave his life and his genius is for ever exalted and dignified by his name. Mr. Pattison, like other culturists, has a strong antipathy to the Puritans and their cause; but his antipathy is shattered on the august figure of John Milton.

The Reign of the Stoics. History, Religion, Maxims of Self-Control, Self-Culture, Benevolence, Justice, Philosophy. With citations of authors quoted from on each page. By Frederic May Holland. (New York: C. P. Somerby.)—This long and rather confused title indicates at once the strength and the weakness of Mr. Holland's volume. It is on the whole the best anthology or *florilegium* of the circle of Stoic authors; it is laborious, faithful, and generally accurate and exhaustive; it contains much material that is valuable and interesting; yet it is impossible to deny that it is a dry book, after all, and far less attractive than the original volumes from which it draws. The racy colloquial versions of Seneca by Sir Roger l'Estrange and of Marcus Aurelius by Jeremy Collier give to their respective meditations an air of sympathetic humanity such as is less strong in these classified selections. Those older books are, to be sure, so loosely translated that they must rather be called paraphrases than versions; and they are now rare—though not quite so rare as Mr. Holland implies—so that we undoubtedly need just such a work as this, so far as its citations are concerned. It is always refreshing to read how Marcus Aurelius declares it "peculiarly human to love even those who do wrong"; and Seneca lays down the rule, "Him who is provoked at you attack with kindnesses, and his wrath will cease"; and Epictetus asserts that the true cynic philosopher "loves those who beat him, and is a father and a brother toward all men." There is hardly a page of the volume which does not show some noble maxim, and the editor seems as a general rule to have carefully verified his citations and revised the translations. We should often dissent from his rendering of the originals, in dealing with which he often takes what we should consider undue liberties in condensing or modifying. This is never done in the interest of any especial opinions, however; and it is, moreover, hard to find two people who agree in their canons of translation. But we should say, for instance, that Epictetus's theory is not accurately represented by translating *τὴν μὲν ὄρεξιν ἦζκεν ἐξ αὐτοῦ εἰς ἅπαν* (Dissert. i. 4, 1) by the languid "keeps down his desires," whereas the vigorous Greek phrase implies a complete and utter mastery of them, even to extinction. It is not worth while, however, to dwell on details like this when the general spirit and execution of a work are so excellent.

When we come to the original portion of the book we must admit it to give, as we have said, an effect of dryness. It is exceedingly condensed, and with all its laborious intention does not put the Stoics before us as Lecky or Farrar would have put them. The book opens with a chapter on their history and ends with one on their philosophy, almost all the rest being made up of citations. We should, of course, agree with the author in his conclusion that Stoicism "was not so much a philosophy as a religion," or at least the practical side of a religion. But Mr. Holland has to strain a point, we should say, in order to bring the Stoic views into line with the utilitarianism of Mill, or to class them with what the *Westminster Review* calls "the derivative school of moralists" (p. 209). In order to find antagonism between them and those whom he calls "the extreme idealists, like Plato and Parker," he is obliged to assume that these idealists denied the possibility of educating conscience or teaching virtue. For this purpose he has to lay very undue stress, we should say, on the closing passage of Plato's 'Meno' and on a youthful expression of opinion by Theodore Parker; and he does not recognize the truth that it is scarcely possible for one who writes or speaks much to avoid conceding at last that conscience is something capable of education. As to the Stoics, it is quite easy to quote passages showing that they regarded virtue as an instinct akin to physical instincts; and the close connection which they alleged between physics and ethics was a part of this same view. But, after all, the practical Roman temperament entered into them all, whether they wrote in Greek or Latin. Their great leader Chrysippus had asserted against Aristotle that the place for the philosopher was not in solitude, but in the world; and Musonius had taught that philosophy was merely the pursuit of a virtuous life—*φιλοσοφία καλοκαγαθίας ἐστὶν ἐπιτήδευσις*. Epictetus and the rest simply worked this out into a series of maxims, so clearly cut that they are of permanent value through all changes of metaphysical method. Mr. Holland's book is of great use as a portable collection of these maxims, but beyond this it cannot be said to add much to literature. He would probably have done himself more justice had he allowed himself a larger canvas; and it is very possible that he may yet expand his essay. We ought not to close without calling attention to the thorough way in which the notes and index are prepared.

History of American Politics. By Alexander Johnston, A.M. Handbook Series. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1879.)—This little book is in reality the history of American political parties from the foundation of the Government down to the accession of Mr. Hayes to the Presidency. It is rather an extract of history than history itself—that is, everything which is not absolutely essential to a knowledge of the conditions under which the various parties came into existence, and of the circumstances to which they owed their continuance and power and decline, is omitted. It would not be possible to get at the facts which are here accumulated, arranged in the most orderly manner, in a very clear and absolutely colorless narrative, in a small duodecimo, without turning over at least a dozen larger works. Not the least of its merits, too, is that it brings out clearly and prominently the fact which is so constantly obscured in the writing and speaking of all our political contests, and which it is so important that young men should bear in mind, that party differences are not due, as the newspapers and stump-orators would have us believe, simply to the wickedness of one part of the community and the goodness of another. They have roots in important facts of the national history, and are always, in the long run, the expression of feelings and opinions which, however erroneous, are entitled to respectful examination as containing a greater or less amount of the national force and of the national traditions. Whether as a preface to a more extended course of reading in American history or as a book of reference for the political editor or orator, we cannot commend Mr. Johnston's little book too highly. To its freedom from partisanship we have already alluded.

Cinq mois chez les Français d'Amérique. Par H. de Lamothe. (Paris: Hachette et Cie; New York: F. W. Christern. 1879.)—Lord Dufferin is quoted by the author of this book as saying: "Je ne pense pas que l'homogénéité ethnologique soit un avantage sans mélange pour un pays . . . je considère qu'il est heureux pour le Canada que sa prospérité soit basée sur la co-opération de races différentes, . . . et ce serait une grande maladresse de nos hommes d'état que de vouloir faire disparaître cette variété de tendances." The political wisdom of the last part of this opinion, as applied to Canada under its present conditions, may readily be accepted, since the opposite policy has met with uniform and complete failure; but the soundness of the general proposition may well be doubted, as being opposed to the whole course of history with the solitary exception of Austria-Hungary—an experiment which has yet to stand the crucial test of a great war. This view is, however, evidently in accordance with the strong bias of the author, who—regretting that the lack of foresight of the rulers of France in the seventeenth century prevented the planting of a hundred thousand colonists in America, which "would have assured the domination of this continent to our [French] race and to our language"—now desires that the French people of Canada should develop their own language and their own ideas, to the exclusion of the language and customs of the mother country to which Canada is nominally subject. He therefore starts out to view Canada as the offshoot of France, and travels through the Province of Quebec, up the St. Lawrence, across Ontario, through the upper lakes, along the portages and streams of the "Dawson Route" to the Lake of the Woods, and thence to Manitoba, everywhere observing carefully the habits and mode of life of the French Canadians and half-breeds, and studying incidentally the general political conditions of the Canadian Confederation. The narrative of what he saw and his comments thereon make up a very readable and instructive book. Among other portions we commend the historical summary of the course of political events which led to the confederation, which, although somewhat brief, is extremely lucid; as is also the account of the half-breed troubles of the Red River country. The personal incidents of travel are not introduced in an obtrusive manner, and we are thus saved from the tedium of so many of the English books of travel. M. de Lamothe has striven to give us a fair picture of the French-speaking portion of the community, and the data as to their present political condition and future prospects; and he has succeeded very well.

Of the three and a half millions of people inhabiting Canada in 1871, 30 per cent. were French, 25 per cent. Irish, 20 per cent. English, 15 per cent. Scotch, and 6 per cent. German. While the united British therefore constitute 60 per cent., the pure French element is nearly one-third of the population, and is larger than any other distinct nationality. Nine-tenths of it resides in the Province of Quebec—the old Lower Canada—and in spite of English forms of law and the efforts of various English governors to amalgamate this element, it has for nearly three centuries steadily maintained in remarkable purity its own language and its own family customs. The nature of such a people is most interesting to us. So long as Canada remains in its present condition, or should it develop into an independent nation, it must ever remain a duplex government, in which either race may strive for the mastery. Should it, on the other hand, become part of the United States, the mere million of Frenchmen will, as the author clearly points out, be absorbed wholly and completely in a single generation into the fifty millions of Americans, who have shown remarkable powers of assimilation, and whose nationality becomes every year more and more distinctive, though its language remains that of England.

On only one point is the author completely at fault—that is, in regard to the settlement of the various boundary lines of the United States. He says:

"Mais il faut le reconnaître, la diplomatie anglaise, si clairvoyante et en général si heureuse toutes les fois qu'elle a eu pour adversaires la France, l'Espagne et les autres puissances coloniales de l'Europe, a rencontré plus fin qu'elle par delà l'Atlantique. Pour arracher pacifiquement à leur ancienne métropole quelque lambeau de territoire, les Américains n'ont point reculé devant l'emploi de ces subterfuges peu délicats que les financiers '*smart*,' les malins de la bourse de Wall Street, ont rendus fameux sous le nom de *Yankee tricks*—ce qui pourrait à la rigeur se traduire en français par l'expression faubourienne de 'true Américain.'"

In support of this he speaks of the treaty signed at Versailles in 1782 (*sic*), talks of Senator Webster haranguing the Senate in secret session to ratify the Ashburton Treaty before certain concealed maps could be discovered (Webster being, in fact, at that time Secretary of State); says the naming of the *north*western point of the Lake of the Woods in the treaty of Versailles was a mere *lapsus* for *south*western point and was so acknowledged by every one, whereas, in fact, no such claim was ever advanced by the English, who reaffirmed *north*western point in the convention of 1818, and immediately sent commissioners to mark that point on the ground; and makes various other assertions equally opposed to facts and common sense, finally culminating in the statement that the Oregon boundary question—about which two great nations came to the very verge of war—was finally settled by the prime minister of England withdrawing his claim to the Columbia River on receipt of a letter from his brother, an officer of the navy cruising on the Pacific coast, who, having had bad luck in fishing in the river, wrote home that the country was not worth contending for (!). This may do very well for the gossip of a deputy-surveyor's camp, where it seems to have been picked up, but it is out of place in a book professing to impart serious information.

Morocco: Its People and Places. By Edmondo de Amicis. Translated by C. Rollin-Tilton. (New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.)—Signor de Amicis was one of several persons selected to accompany the Italian embassy to Fez some years ago, and this book is the result of his journey. It is a quarto of some four hundred pages, excellently printed and abundantly illustrated with woodcuts from drawings made by Signor Biseo and others of the Italian party. It is thus a gift-book appropriate to the season; but it hardly need be said that it is something more than a holiday volume—the association of such a subject as Morocco with such a writer as Signor de Amicis suggests at once a book that is both charming and instructive. It is what one would infer from his 'Constantinople' and his 'Studies of Paris,' a narrative of the same value as a report by an expert statistician, and possessing the interest to be expected of a brilliant and vivid series of sketches from nature in a romantic and picturesque country. The translation is excellent in the main, and the illustrations are spirited, and, besides adding to the attractiveness of the book, really do service as illustrations of the text. At the end the author exclaims: "We had scarcely put our foot upon the deck of the ship when, oh! how distant in space and time seemed all that phantasmagoria of pashas, and negroes, and tents, and mosques, and battlemented towers. It was not a country, it was an entire world that in a moment vanished from our eyes, and a world that we should never see again." We cannot better express the merit of the book than by saying that it is just this impression of Morocco, its people and places, that it leaves upon the mind—an impression that is very distinct of something that is very distant.

Causerie. From the Boston *Transcript.* (Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1880.)—The Boston *Transcript* has had a column in which the editor, signing himself "Causeur," chatted familiarly and fragmentarily with its readers on all manner of subjects, and from this the contents of this little volume have been selected. The book contains something over two hundred 16mo pages, and the paragraphs of which it is composed average, we should say, one to a page or two pages. Its conditions thus prevent elaborate discussions of profound questions, and its aim is entertainment spiced with sound sense and a little didacticism now and then, such as is no doubt good for and appreciated by "Causeur's" habitual readers. Some of these write him anonymous notes, seeking advice of an intimate nature or asking for a comprehensive deliverance upon some question of ethics or manners, and he courteously complies. Some of the paragraphs have the air of maxims embodying trite but often neglected truths; others contain anecdotes of a humorous character, old and new; others preach little "week-day sermons," as Thackeray called his 'Roundabout Papers.' One reprobates the bent of the press for spreading "before its readers in countless homes the details of crime"; another points out that "virtue is often a negative quality," and that the strength of temptation is its true measure; still another contains a short essay on jealousy, and so on. Save several of the anecdotes, most of the 'Causerie' has a familiar sound, and its adaptability for reproduction in the permanent shape of a bound volume is not as clear as the propriety of its first appearance. *Sed hæ nugæ sunt*—both the chats themselves and any discussion as to their proper sphere. They are at least without pretensions of any kind, and are readable enough for an idle hour.

Primitive Manners and Customs. By James A. Farrer. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1879.)—Mr. Farrer's plan is "rather to illustrate than to exhaust the many interesting problems connected with savage life," and in studying his predecessors he has sought "not simply to recapitulate their conclusions," but "rather to aim at such results as the evidence

forced upon him, independently as far as possible, of existing theories or of the authority upon which they rest." Finally, he says: "Should he have succeeded in making any one think better than before, with more interest and sympathy, of these outcasts of the world whom we designate as savage, something at least will have been done to claim for them a kindlier treatment and respect than in popular estimation they either deserve or obtain" (Introduction, p. xxiii.) If we couple the above with the title of Mr. Farrer's work, namely, '*Primitive* Manners and Customs,' it becomes evident that to him savagery appears to be the primitive condition of mankind. But, since he admits of a progress from this state into the higher one of civilization, we are entitled to look for a definite conception, on his part, of what savagery really is. Such a conception he chooses to withhold, if indeed he possess it at all. For, what illustrations does he give us in the shape of groups of mankind regarded by him as savages? (Introd., p. vi.): The Koosa Kaffirs. (Id., p. vii.): "Many of the beliefs attributed to savages are no fair test of their general reasoning capabilities. . . . *When Pelopidas, on the eve of the battle of Leuctra, . . .* there were not wanting soldiers, *even in that army of Bœotians.*" (Id., p. x.): "Strange contradictions abound in savage life, extremes of barbarity sometimes co-existing with habits of some refinement"; by way of example, the Ahts, the Niam-Niam, and (p. xi.) the *Aztecs!* These indications are amply sufficient to show that the author, while he may have a thorough knowledge of savage *traits of character* in any phase of human life and condition, still fails to present a characteristic of savagery as a general stage of human development.

Mr. Farrer's lack of knowledge is most conspicuous in everything concerning the aborigines of America. This is manifested in the chapter on "Savage Political Life," and again in "Early Wedding Customs." It is indeed singular, and not at all gratifying, to notice how persistently foreign students ignore the peculiar organization common to all native American clusters, and that system of relationship out of which their institutions have all sprung. The consequence is that their critical judgment deserts them completely when the subject of American ethnology and archæology is touched. The chapter on "Proverbs" is full of interest, not merely in regard to savage sayings, but especially to civilized ones.

The Alpenstock. A Book about the Alps and Alpine Adventure. Edited by William H. Rideing. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880. 16mo, pp. 203.)—Mr. Rideing's book is a compilation from the narratives of Whymper, Tyndall, Foster, and other Alpine climbers, including the recent account (in *Lippincott's Magazine*) of Mr. C. P. Howard's climb of the Matterhorn. With this material it would be hard to make a dull book, and this is an interesting one. Too little care, however, has been used in the editing of the preliminary chapter on "The Alps in General," as will sufficiently appear from Mr. Rideing's sentence descriptive of a glacier (p. 16): "Constantly pressed forward by an accumulation of snow and ice behind it, it is impelled downward with irresistible force—trees, rocks, and houses being carried forward by it—until it reaches a point where the sun's rays are sufficiently fervid to melt the mass, when it forms a river." With the prefatory chapters of Baedeker's "Suisse" at hand, a concise and intelligent account of "the Alps in general" would seem the easiest of things to make; but it is not to the American makers of handbooks that we can hopefully look for a concise, intelligent, and proportionate account of a subject.

*** Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Almanach de Gotha, 1880	(B. Westermann & Co.)	
De Amicis (E.), Morocco: Its People and Places	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin)	$7 50
De Koven (Rev. J.), Dorchester Polytechnic Academy	(L. H. Morehouse)	1 25
Eaton (D. B.), Civil Service in Great Britain	(Harper & Bros.)	
Flanigan (J. R.), Methodism, Old and New	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	1 50
Gardner (E. C.), Common Sense in Church Building	(Bicknell & Comstock)	1 00
Gregorovius (F.), The Island of Capri	(Lee & Shepard)	1 00
Hesse-Wartegg (E. von), Nord-Amerika: Land und Leute, 4 vols., swd	(G. Weigel)	
Higginson (T. W.), Short Studies of American Authors	(Lee & Shepard)	75
Kiepert (H.), Leitfaden der Alten Geographie, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Historischer Schul-Atlas	"	
King (H. T.), The Egotist	(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger)	1 50
Morris (Rev. D.), Class-book History of England	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Ober (F. A.), Camps in the Caribbees	(Lee & Shepard)	2 50
Packard (Prof. A. S., jr.), Zoölogy for Students and General Readers	(Henry Holt & Co.)	3 00
Potter (E. R.), Bills of Credit or Paper Money of Rhode Island, swd	(Sidney S. Rider)	
Sibree (Rev. J., jr.), Chapters on Madagascar	(Trübner & Co.)	
Skeat (Rev. W. W.), Philological Dictionary of the English Language, Part 2, Dor-Lit, swd	(Macmillan & Co.)	
Theuriet (A.), Angèle's Fortune, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	75
Vincent (E.) and Dickson (T. G.), Handbook to Modern Greek	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 25

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CYCLOPÆDIA.

Champlin (John D., Jr.), The Young Folks' Cyclopædia of Common Things. Copiously illustrated. 8vo, $3.

HISTORY.

Freeman's Historical Course.

Thompson (Edith), History of England. New Edition, Revised and Enlarged, with six maps. 16mo, $1 40.

Yonge (C. M.), History of France. With twelve maps. 16mo, $1.

PHYSICS.

Guthrie (Frederick), Practical Physics. Molecular Physics and Sound. Illustrated. 16mo (Hand-books for Students and General Readers), 60 cents.

POLITICS.

Johnston (Alex.), History of American Politics. 16mo (Hand-books for Students and General Readers), 75 cents.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

Lounsbury (Thomas R.), History of the English Language. 16mo (Hand-books for Students and General Readers), $1.

ASTRONOMY.

Newcomb (Simon) and Holden (Edward S.), Astronomy. With numerous illustrations. Large 12mo (American Science Series), $2 50.

ZOOLOGY.

Packard (A. S., Jr.), Zoölogy. For Students and General Readers. With numerous illustrations. Large 12mo (American Science Series), $3.

GREEK TESTAMENT.

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GERMAN.

*Stern (S. M.), Studien und Plau*dereien. 12mo, $1 35.

Whitney (Prof. W. D.), German Texts. Goethe's 'Iphigenie auf Tauris.' Annotated by Prof. Franklin Carter, of Yale College, and Edited by Prof. W. D. Whitney. 12mo, cloth, 95 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 15, 1880.

The Week.

THE parallel between Maine and Louisiana has been carried one step further towards completion during the week, by the action of the Republicans, who on Monday evening marched into the State-house in the absence of the Fusionists, and made up a quorum by giving seats to those who claim seats but received no certificates. They thereupon organized in both branches and appointed committees to draft questions for submission to the Supreme Court touching the validity of the organization. Pending the reports of the committees there was a sort of night session. On the morning of the same day the Fusionist Legislature also met in the same place, and counted the votes cast for Governor, and then, in joint convention, swore in Mr. John D. Lamson, the President of the Senate, as Acting Governor of the State. General Chamberlain, however, who has command of the militia and a warrant from the late Governor for the "protection of public property and the institutions of the State until a Governor is legally elected and duly qualified," refuses to acknowledge Lamson's authority, and has directed the militia to receive orders from nobody but himself.

The situation now is a very curious one. There has been no rebellion in Maine, and yet the State finds itself without any executive except the officer commanding the militia, whose authority, except in purely military matters, is derived from a warrant of the late Governor. Under ordinary circumstances the Governor's Council, which holds over, forms an *ad-interim* executive until the qualification of the President of the Senate; but the Council has resigned so as to leave the Republican members elect without anybody competent to swear them in. In the Senate there is a quorum of members who have received certificates, and their President claims to be Governor *ad interim*, but his claim is ignored not only by the officer commanding the militia but by the Democratic State Treasurer, who refuses to honor his warrants. Now, to crown all, there are two legislatures in session—one with a quorum of certificated members in the upper house and less than a quorum in the lower house, another with a quorum in both houses of members with certificates and members claiming seats but without certificates. If the court answers the Republican questions it will be a recognition of their legislature, and if it answers them so as to give a color of legality to their quorum they will doubtless elect a governor. What Lamson will then do it will be hard to say. To enable him to invoke Federal interference there would have to be some sort of tussle between him and his rival, but we trust it will be bloodless. It will probably turn out that the game lies in General Chamberlain's hands.

Governor Cornell's message to the Legislature appeared too late for notice in our last issue. Singularly enough, although addressed to a Legislature overwhelmingly Republican in both branches, it does not contain the slightest allusion to State-rights, or the Solid South, or the Brigadiers, or the murders in Mississippi and Louisiana, although these formed the principal topics treated in the platform on which he was elected, and in the speeches of the orators by whom he was supported. He devotes himself to State affairs, of which there was little or no mention in his canvass, but it cannot be said that the Legislature is likely to derive much assistance from his recommendations, owing to their vagueness. He proposes that the question of assessments for taxation be referred to a commission to "perfect a plan"; that women be admitted to school-boards; that uniformity of freight tariffs on railroads be secured; that discrimination between citizens and localities be prevented by "just and equitable regulations"; and that the excise laws be reformed by "a carefully-matured act, which can be plainly understood and faithfully executed." As a remedy for municipal indebtedness he suggests the refunding of the debts at a lower rate of interest, but justly observes that this "requires an improved credit," and adds, "It is very desirable that some measure be devised, *if possible*, to enable the towns to accomplish this object." Action on this hint will not be easy. About the well-known evils of city government in New York he points out that "the expenses of the city government should be reduced to a frugal and economical basis," and declares boldly that "all measures calculated to simplify the methods and promote the stability of local as well as State administration, or secure efficient and economical discharge of official duty," are entitled to "the favorable consideration and support of the Legislature." It is safe to say that if Mr. Cornell had not displayed greater fertility of mind in managing primaries and making up committees in conventions than he displays in discussing questions of State government, he would never have reached his present high position.

The "bull speculation" in grain and provisions has at last reached such a point that those not directly concerned in the prices of these commodities are forced to give attention to it. For several weeks the domestic markets have been kept above the foreign markets, so that exports have been much interfered with. One result of this is that the money market has been subjected to an unusual strain to "carry" this stuff; another is that there are in New York harbor more vessels waiting for freights than were ever known before; still another, that the storage capacity of the Chicago elevators is full, as well as all the floating storage of that city, and the leading railroads running into Chicago are compelled to refuse grain-freights because they have no place in which to unload them; and, finally, the diminished export movement has reduced the supply of commercial bills, so that foreign exchange has advanced and is firm much above the rates at which gold can be imported. All this mischief is the work of one or two gigantic Wall Street speculators, aided by, if not in partnership with, a leading "grain commission" firm. It is a square contest between this combination, euphemistically called a syndicate, and the consumers, which means the people of western Europe and of this country. It is sincerely to be hoped that the "syndicate" will come out second best in the contest, and from appearances this is not unlikely.

The Stock Exchange has been buoyant during the week. The Treasury bought $5,000,000 of bonds for the Sinking Fund, and thereby a little over $5,000,000 was transferred to the banks; which, with the return of currency from the interior, made an easy money market. Sound railroad investments were bought confidently at prices which yield a 6 per cent. income or more. Speculation in reorganized railroads was active, and the future was "discounted" with great freedom, the fashion for the week having been the stocks of roads in the South and in the Southwest. Government bonds were strong, and prices advanced sharply, notably for the 4 per cents. Mr. Fernando Wood's bill to refund all outstanding bonds which bear more than 4 per cent. into 3½ per cent. bonds, is supposed to have strength enough in Congress to prevent refunding into 4 per cent. bonds. This is one reason why the market price of the 4 per cents has advanced; another is that Mr. W. H. Vanderbilt has been buying these bonds with money received for the New York Central & Hudson stock sold to the syndicate last November, and on account of which he received $5,000,000 during the week. The advance in the price of 4 per cent. bonds induced the Metropolitan National Bank of this city to give up its note circulation on $2,200,000 of these, so as to avail itself of the present high price of the bonds. It should be said of Mr. Wood's bill that it commends itself to the inflationists, because it provides for reducing the cash in the Treasury to $86,500,000 by monthly purchases of $10,000,000 of

5 and 6 per cent. bonds. It also has the political support of all Republicans who are hostile to Secretary Sherman's Presidential aspirations (for he would undoubtedly make Presidential capital by refunding this year nearly $800,000,000 of the public debt), and of all Democrats who are opposed to the Republican Administration getting further credit for good financial management. Silver in London closed at 52¼*d.* per ounce. Here the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar was $0.8759 at the close.

The Greenback Conference at Washington last week accomplished nothing but demonstration of the inherent inability of its members to accomplish anything at any time. There were some 125 delegates, including the thirteen Greenback Congressmen, and the proceedings illustrated pandemonium with tolerable accuracy and completeness. Congressman Murch, of Maine, presided; the Rev. De La Matyr officiated as chaplain, greatly to the disgust, vigorously expressed, of a strong minority; and among the chief participants in the "discussions" was, of course, Kearney. What he had to say was simple and familiar, and consisted merely of expressing a desire to see Republicans, Democrats, and the national banks in hell together and a determination to send them thither presently. He also wanted John Sherman hanged. Resolutions which were introduced approving Hendrick Wright's Land Bill and Weaver's $500,000,000 soldiers' relief-fund project, seem to have been the only ones carried, though everything else in the domain of human thought was debated, and we believe these were juggled through by the chairman, if indeed one of them did not finally fail. A call for a National Convention at Chicago June 9 next was adopted with little opposition; it is in the usual vein of such documents, and contains nothing worth remark. It seems hardly possible that such a body of men should have any considerable constituency among sober people, however ignorant, or at least maintain one in the face of its "Conferences"; which consideration is, of course, the only reason for viewing their procedures with absolute equanimity, but it is certainly a strong one.

The Greenbackers might learn something by a study of Japanese finances at the present moment, with which our example has had so much to do. In spite of great numbers of national banks of issue, and of the utter irredeemability of the paper currency, the depreciation of this currency is now more than one-third of its value as measured in silver. A provincial memorial, which has been highly praised by the Minister of Finance, attributes the depreciation to the "balance of trade"—imports largely in excess of exports—and recommends the disuse, under compulsory prohibition, if need be, of foreign goods. The Government has, in fact, undertaken to correct the mischief by tinkering the tariff, and has proposed to the treaty Powers to tax kerosene oil, the only import of any consequence from the United States, twenty per cent. on the cost landed, instead of, as now, five per cent. on the refiner's price. Yet nearly all the Japanese tea goes to the United States, and is admitted duty free, as is also raw silk, in which a large trade has lately sprung up. The direct importations of kerosene, unknown before 1873, reached 1,759,422 cases in 1878. So far as protecting the native product goes, an American geologist, Mr. B. S. Lyman, has pronounced the Japanese deposits meagre and impracticable.

Mr. Parnell's mission has during the week assumed more and more of a philanthropic character and less and less of a political one. He has issued an address to the "People of America" proposing the establishment of a fund in New York, to be called the "Central Famine Relief Fund," to which contributions from all parts of the country are to be sent, and afterwards distributed in Ireland through the instrumentality of a body called the "National Land League," which is said to have agencies in all the famine districts, but about which contributors of money are entitled to more information than they possess at present. Mr. Parnell had a rousing meeting in Brooklyn on Friday evening, at which he discoursed for some length on the land question, and was reinforced by Mr. Henry Ward Beecher, in the character of a friend of mankind, in a speech in which he poured forth much misinformation and fallacy. He defended the discussion of the Irish land question in America on the ground that Gladstone had interfered in Naples on behalf of King Bomba's prisoners, and England in Turkey on behalf of the Christians and in the United States on behalf of the negro slaves, but he forgot to mention that neither Bomba's prisoners, nor the Turkish Christians, nor the American slaves enjoyed freedom of speech, and sent representatives to a civilized legislature in which they held, or might hold, the balance of power. He gave "the capitalists and monopolists" in this country a severe blow, and also spoke slightingly of the French aristocracy, and of the English monasteries and nunneries which were suppressed by Henry the Eighth, and, in fact, presented a threatening aspect to oppressors of all ages and nations.

Among the unfinished business of the extra session of Congress was a resolution, amending the act establishing a Geological Survey, which passed the House but failed to be acted upon in the Senate. By the terms of the act the Director was charged with "the examination of the geological structure, mineral resources, and products of the National Domain" alone; by the amendment he was authorized to "extend his examination to the States," but without interference with their own geological surveys. Singularly enough—or perhaps we should say inconsistently enough—Southern members like Mr. Atkins, of Tennessee, and Mr. Wilson, of West Virginia, were found ardently advocating this extension, in spite of the well-known fact that the movement which led to the passage of the original act had strictly in view the substitution of a single survey for the wasteful and rival national surveys being carried on at the time in the Territories. Prof. James D. Dana has, in recent numbers of the *American Journal of Science and Arts*, called attention to the fact that the Director, as if confidently anticipating action from the Senate confirmatory of that of the House, has inserted in his estimates for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1881, the sum of $20,000 for "extending observations on coal and iron into old States." We shall not discuss here the questions of legality or expediency or comity which an attempt either to supersede State surveys or to supplement them suggests; but if this attempt succeeds under the régime of the Brigadiers, we might ask them with what grace they can hereafter accuse the Stalwarts of centralization, and the Stalwarts what there is alarming to the Union and the growth of the national sentiment in a Solid South? The amendment, we ought to add, did not receive a full or test vote in the House, and was opposed by Mr. Reagan, of Texas, who, when it is a question of regulating inter-State commerce, himself joins the party of centralization with all the docility of a child of destiny.

A cumbersome and impracticable bill to facilitate, ostensibly, the collection of customs dues on articles sent through the mails, by means of stamps affixed abroad, has been introduced in the House by Mr. Elam, of Louisiana. A bill providing for the abolition of the Court of Claims and an enlarged jurisdiction of the Circuit Court is an "Ohio idea," fathered by Representative Hill. The policy of attacking the tariff in detail, as in the case of quinine, is illustrated by the three bills introduced by Mr. Covert, of New York, putting bichromate of potash on the free-list, repealing the duty on iron ore, and largely reducing that on scrap-iron and on steel rails. The House has begun to investigate the unsatisfactory state of that branch of the postal service known as star-routes, in making and changing the contracts for which there appears to have been gross extravagance, at least, to say nothing of illegality and favoritism. The well-known endeavor of the Commissioner of Agriculture to magnify his Bureau has been rewarded by a resolution in the Senate to enquire into the expediency of creating a Department of Agriculture and Commerce. It is unfortunate that the proposal should be made during the incumbency of a very incompetent officer, and at the present stage of civil-service reform.

On Tuesday a bill was introduced in the Senate, through the chairman of the Committee on Privileges and Elections, declaring telegraphic messages to be the private property of the senders and

receivers, and putting them on the same footing as letters in the mails as regards their exemption from unreasonable search and seizure, and production as evidence in the courts or before legislative bodies. Though the measure proceeds from the Western Union Telegraph Company, it is clearly in the interest of the public at large, and at the present moment there is no reason to expect any opposition to it. Its adoption would put an end not more to scandalous revelations than to scandalous proceedings in the pursuit of private malice or of party advantage; there would be no more general seizures of telegrams by the barrel or boxful, with unlimited power to search for evidence not definitely known to exist, and free play for the imagination in guessing the true behind the alleged hidden meaning. While such a law would impose some restraints on the courts, which have been free enough in compelling telegraph companies to violate their trust, it would have its most salutary effect on Congress and the State legislatures, whose arbitrariness it would keep within proper limits, and to whose self-respect in times of great political excitement it would furnish a powerful and much-needed guarantee.

The stormy week at sea has been a great godsend to the reporters, who have retailed at some length the yarns of the officers of the Atlantic steamers about the fury of the tempest. One of the officers of the *Batavia*, however, seems to have taken undue liberties with a reporter of an esteemed contemporary in informing him that "the steamer seemed to rise to heaven on monster waves one minute, while the next she would plunge downward as though about to seek the bottom of the sea," and "took in tons of water at every plunge," that "the officers had to grasp the railings for support," and the "air was charged to its *fullest capacity* with electricity" (how much electricity can the air hold?), and that, standing on the deck, in the midst of this awful riot of the elements, "you could hear the electricity whistling down the conductors and passing into the water." The same mysterious fluid also got into the officer's whistle, and "so thoroughly charged it" that "it flew up and struck him in the face." He, however, added to the reporter: "This may seem strange to you, but it was an actual fact."

There has probably never been a more high-handed proceeding in a civilized and law-governed community than the appropriation of the streets of this city by the Elevated Railroad Companies for their tracks and stations. The lines run in all the streets on a level with the second or third-story windows—on one line close to the windows. In many places they seriously diminish the light. The noise is incessant, and sufficient, especially in summer, to make conversation in the front rooms of houses difficult. In one street in the upper part of the city, which is narrow and occupied solely by dwelling-houses, the value of the property has been lowered over one-half by the construction of the railroad. The companies, which are enormously profitable, have refused compensation, on the ground that the bed of the streets is not the property of the householders, having been ceded to the city for street purposes, and they contend that the construction of a steam railroad is a legitimate street purpose, whether the original cession to the city contemplated it or not. The case is now before the courts, we do not know with what chance of success, but the amount of money involved is enormous, and if the decision should go against the railroads, it would seriously lower the value of their shares.

Of the magnitude and rapid increase of the distress in Ireland there is unhappily no sort of doubt. About 250,000 persons are now, it is calculated, suffering from extremest want, and the number will, of course, rise every day. The Duchess of Marlborough, the wife of the Lord-Lieutenant, has raised about $90,000, and the Government has consented to use a portion of the surplus proceeds of the Disestablished Church Temporalities—about £250,000—in providing employment. There already exists, on the part of the landlords, ample power of borrowing on easy terms from the Government for drainage and similar purposes, but the agitation against them has assumed such a savage character and spread so much feeling of insecurity that probably few will avail themselves of it. That the best remedy for Irish poverty is to be found in the great multiplication of peasant properties and not by emigration, as many suppose, there is little question. Emigration is good for those who emigrate, but it leaves gaps in the home population which are soon filled by a fresh poverty-stricken mass. A writer in the London *Times*, giving an account of the Island of Guernsey, shows that it supports in marvellous comfort a population of 30,000 by the cultivation of 10,000 acres, while Ireland has a cultivable area of 15,500,000 acres, and would, if as densely peopled as Guernsey, support a population of 45,000,000, instead of 5,000,000. The climate of Guernsey, too, is as moist as that of Ireland, and the island is hardly any nearer the great markets. But nearly every man in it owns his farm, and the law facilitates his getting a farm in fee on easy terms.

Sir Stafford Northcote, the English Chancellor of the Exchequer, seems to have been stung by Mr. Gladstone's Mid-Lothian speeches into making a more than usually vigorous defence of himself and his financial policy in a recent speech. But the most important thing in it was the formal announcement that Afghanistan would not be annexed, but abandoned after some sort of government had been set up. The bad luck of the force at Kabul and the uneasiness caused by the Viceroy's optimistic telegrams have had the effect of causing the abrogation of the late restrictions on the newspaper correspondents. Apologies and excuses, too, begin to be offered, under the influence of home opinion, for the numerous executions at Kabul, the victims being, it is now solemnly affirmed, all persons engaged in the attack on the British embassy. But no explanation has been offered of the practice of calling the Afghan soldiers "insurgents" and "mutineers." There appears to be no change in the situation at Kabul since General Roberts's late victory, but there are rumors of fresh risings and combinations in other quarters, and they will probably take place with more or less frequency through the winter. The Ministers are, on the whole, in luck of late. The two remaining South African hostile chiefs, who have managed for years to defy the forces sent against them by the possession of mountain strongholds, Moirosi and Sukukuni, have been brought to naught. The first was killed when his fortress was stormed, and the last has been captured in the storming of his fortress and is to be locked up with Cetewayo, so that, except for some rumblings of discontent among the Boers of the Transvaal, South Africa is now pacified.

From Continental Europe there is little news of importance. In Spain the Emancipation Bill, which liberates the Cuban slaves by thirds in successive years, and keeps them in an eight-year apprenticeship, with severe penalties on vagabondage, has been passed by the Senate. But it is opposed by the Abolitionists because of the apprenticeship feature, and by the Cubans because it is divorced from the free-trade measure which Martinez Campos had coupled with it, and without which the planters say they cannot make free labor work. They entertain the diabolical design of admitting American products at low rates or duty free, apparently not knowing that this will do them no good as long as the island does not belong to the American Union. In France the new Ministry is trying "to pull itself together," and the Germans are more or less uneasy about their relations with Russia. The official organs say that these relations are perfectly peaceful, but there are, nevertheless, the persistent rumors which usually precede a war about the movements of troops on both sides of the frontier, and there is the also ominous shower of pamphlets from military men on the strategy of a possible campaign. The motive on the Russian side would be a desire to escape from home difficulties, but this did not succeed in the case of the Turkish war. On the German side there is the expectation of being able to cripple Russia while struggling with home difficulties, and before France is fairly ready for the field. But Germany, too, is full of trouble, and her fighting chiefs are pretty old, or very rheumatic, gouty, and neuralgic. Neither the emperor, nor Moltke, nor Bismarck is physically equal to the strain of another great war.

GENERAL GRANT'S PRESIDENTIAL PROSPECTS.

THERE is probably no question in politics which just now excites so much interest as the probability of General Grant's receiving the Republican nomination for the Presidency. It is seldom that a candidate's chances obtain so much attention among persons who ordinarily care little about this kind of speculation. The subject derives its attractiveness from a variety of sources. Nothing in the political field seemed better settled when he left office in 1877 than that his political career was closed. His Administration during his two terms was admitted on all hands, though it had accomplished many good things—the Treaty of Washington was one of them—not to have been a success. It was overwhelmed with scandals which everybody could understand, and of which everybody felt ashamed. The only comfort left to his friends was that no trace of personal participation in the corruption which surrounded him had rested on him; but his integrity was saved at the expense of his perspicacity. Everybody who admired and felt grateful to him for his military services was glad, however, that he had had the two terms of the Presidency, in spite of the scandals. The country owed him the most splendid recognition in its power, and had acquitted itself of the obligation by bestowing on him the reward it had bestowed on Washington, and which Washington pronounced sufficient. A republic is bound to be grateful; but a republic, more than any other form of government, is bound also not to be *too* grateful to a successful soldier, for reasons which are found partly in historical experience and partly in human nature itself. The third-term project was, therefore, all but universally condemned as soon as it made its appearance.

This state of the public mind lasted until he went abroad. He was received in Europe with honors such as had never been bestowed on any American, because no American of similar distinction had ever travelled in Europe. His distinction was of a kind that Europeans understood. Two terms in the Presidency would not have sufficed to create it, because there is no notion about American politics more firmly rooted in the European mind than that American Presidents are apt to be the result of an accident, or that if they win the place they win it by arts which are not considered particularly admirable. The first office below the monarch's in European governments almost always falls to a man who has been for long years conspicuously striving for it by labors in lower departments of administration or legislation, so that when he attains it he is a man well known both in his own country and in others. The frequency with which American parties put comparatively obscure men in the Presidency, rejecting those whom European opinion would have marked out for the place, has prevented the office from furnishing those who have once held it with the claim to honor in foreign lands which is derived from a similar position elsewhere. President Lincoln was the first President since Washington who broke through this indifference or ignorance, and yet even he would probably have only been cordially welcomed by the European Radicals. The aristocracy of nearly every country would undoubtedly have made an effort to ignore him had he gone abroad. General Grant's military fame, however, bore down all fastidiousness, real or feigned. To have successfully handled a million of men in a war of almost unexampled obstinacy was a title to respect which the dullest Junker understood as well as Mr. Gladstone or M. Gambetta, and bowed before respectfully. Moreover, it covered up whatever seemed objectionable in General Grant's civil administration. A great soldier, it was felt in the countries of great armies, has a right to blunder in time of peace, and even to be surrounded by disreputable friends.

The reflex influence of his European reception on American opinion was what might have been expected. The average voter, all over the country, already felt that General Grant was the one remarkable and prominent man of the age with whose career he was thoroughly familiar, or who in any sense came near him. He had been pained or disappointed by the failure of his civil administration, and it was thus an immense relief to find that in the judgment of the rest of the civilized world this made no difference, and the Grant of Appomattox Court-house was, in spite of Babcock and Casey and Shepherd, a great and famous man still. The honors accorded him abroad were taken by every storekeeper and farmer who had ever admired him, from the Atlantic to the Rocky Mountains, as a solemn confirmation by disinterested persons, familiar with heroes, of his own estimate of the American hero. The two terms then began hardly to seem enough; it began almost to seem mean not to have rewarded him also in cash, as Marlborough and Wellington were rewarded.

The renewal of the idea of a third term would probably, however, not have entered the head of the average voter if the large body of active and energetic politicians, who liked General Grant's administration and profited by it, had not been ready to suggest it and "engineer" it; and even they would probably hardly have ventured on it if the Democratic majority in Congress had not played into the hands of the section of the Republican party who were unwilling that the party should pass beyond the stage of hostility toward, and distrust of, the South. This hostility and distrust, which in its new form is known as "Stalwartism," was first started by Mr. Blaine, partly as a demonstration against the new Administration, which had ignored his "claims," and partly in the expectation that it would touch a sleeping chord in the Northern heart and prove an important aid to the political fortunes of the originator of it. The extra session and the foolish attempts to wipe out legislation which had its origin in the war, made the scheme measurably successful. A kind of panic was spread through the Republican party by the efforts of the press, and the impression was diffused that the South had again got possession of Congress and had revived the Calhoun doctrine of State-rights, and would probably try to exercise it. It was at this juncture that the Grant "boom" was started.

It was started, however, very cautiously. His renomination was at first proposed as a painful but probable necessity. Its advocates did not quite like it themselves; they saw the objections to it as well as anybody; but what other course was possible, they asked, in view of the attitude and aims of the Southerners in Congress? The designs of the latter were clearly revolutionary, and they would undoubtedly in their present temper and with their present hold on Congress allow nobody but their own candidate to reach the Presidential chair. Under these circumstances the need of nominating a man who, if he did not like the way Congress counted the vote, would declare himself elected, and would know how to make his claim good, was plain to the meanest patriotic intelligence. That General Grant was the man for such a crisis his career clearly indicated; that he was the man the people would choose for it was easy to prove from the widespread and deep popular interest in his travels, and the eagerness to give him an enthusiastic welcome when he came home. As soon as he landed and the welcome began, the managers of "the boom" went one step further. The argument in his favor on the ground of danger from the "Solid South" had lost much of its weight, from the continued peace and prosperity of the country and the demonstrated harmlessness of Democratic legislation. So they now said, not that General Grant was a necessity of the situation, but that he was so unmistakably the popular choice that his nomination was certain without any reference to the situation. This is about the condition of "the boom" at this moment. The managers still maintain the attitude of private doubt as to the expediency of a third term, but plead the overwhelming necessity imposed by the popular determination; and they prove this determination by pointing to the addresses, processions, and banquets with which he has been received in the great cities. The part of mere admiration for him, simply as a distinguished American who has done his country great service, in these demonstrations is cleverly and successfully covered up under the part played by mere electioneering, and it is impossible to separate them, because, of course, nobody who publicly honors General Grant on any ground is willing to come forward and perform the ungracious task of classifying his own motives, and enumerat-

ing the things in General Grant's career which he is not to be understood as admiring.

That General Grant is a party to the scheme for putting him in office again is now hardly denied. To expect him to refuse such an offer as a third term would be expecting more of him than one has a right to expect of any man of his education and temper. A thoughtful statesman, with clear and carefully-formed views as to the conditions of successful popular government, such as Washington and Lincoln were, would, like them, if a man of the highest type of character, probably refuse it. But General Grant is not such a man. In fact, he is not and never has been a politician at all. He is essentially a soldier in mental constitution and training. His notions about government when he first took office were those of a soldier. During the eight years of his Presidency his view of his position was that in all its leading features it was that of a general in the field, with unlimited powers of promotion, and surrounded by a staff who attended to troublesome details. That he has been studying politics on his brief foreign tour, and has at last mastered the science of government at the age of fifty-seven, is now gravely put forward as something which people ought to believe on the mere word of those who are pushing him for the nomination; but it is not worth serious examination.

As to the real facts of his prospects just now, we think, without exaggeration or distortion, it may be said that they are these: The persons who push him most actively still largely deny that they themselves wish to see him nominated, and represent that they are simply preparing to carry out an irresistible popular decree. The enthusiastic popular support of a third term is very apt not to be visible in the place where we hear of it, but in some other State or section. A canvass in any particular locality of prominent or representative persons usually fails to show that Grant is the strongest candidate in the field, and brings out a great deal of doubt about the propriety of putting him forward. His failure to come to New York, and his retirement—for so it may be considered—to the South, indicate a fear that the enthusiasm inspired by his presence may not, now that it has begun to wear the look of electioneering, last until next summer, and that "the boom" was begun a little too soon. The discussion of the objections to his nomination becomes every day more outspoken, and proves that there is no general acceptance of the doctrine that a third term is not a third term unless it follows the other two in succession. The reluctance to admit that the United States needs a "strong man," or that the Constitution will not work without a soldier in the background, grows with deliberation and debate, and with the gradual subsidence of the alarm about the "Solid South." In certain States—Ohio, Wisconsin, and New York, for instance—there is a German and Independent vote which probably cannot be induced to accept him whether nominated or not, and without which these States cannot be carried by the Republicans. It is safe to predict, finally, that between now and June all these difficulties in the way of General Grant's nomination will increase rather than diminish, and that the boom will end, as it ended in 1876, in a kind of collapse.

THE LAST POLITICAL NOVELTY IN FRANCE.

THE Waddington Ministry in France went to pieces under a combination of difficulties which brings out strikingly the novelty of the experiment in parliamentary government which the French are now trying. Theoretically the relations of the Ministry to the Chambers are the same as those of the British Ministry to the House of Commons—that is, it is presumed to represent and be supported by the majority. As a matter of fact no French Ministry since 1870 has represented and been supported by the majority. They have all received during a certain period the votes of the majority, not because the majority really felt that they were its own men, or because it approved completely of their policy, but because it was feared that if they went out of office something very serious and threatening the form of the Government itself would follow. The firm establishment of the Republic by the resignation of Marshal MacMahon did not change this state of things. The Waddington Cabinet has been all along in a position towards the Assembly which in England would be considered very degrading, and in which no self-respecting politician would consent to remain—that is, dependent on the votes of various sets or cliques, who did not pretend to like it or believe in it, and yet to whom it may be said to have been indebted for permission to carry on the Government. Nominally it possessed the right of the British Ministry to initiate legislation, and to manage the conduct of business in the Chamber. In practice, however, it was not allowed to exercise this right, and, in fact, stood towards the Legislature somewhat in the position of the American Presidential Cabinet towards Congress. If it desired to carry a measure it had to conciliate the committees and the chiefs of sections of the Left, and secure their approval or forbearance by compromises or concessions. But even this was not sufficient. The various sections of the Left could not be induced in this way to give up the right of interference and control over the discharge of purely executive duties, and in this control and interference they freely indulged. The last months of the Ministry were, in fact, passed in a state of things like that in which President Hayes and his Cabinet would be placed if the Democratic majority, besides possessing the power of hostile criticism, possessed also the power of turning them out of office by a hostile vote. General Gresley, the Minister of War, resigned in a huff because the Left disapproved of his refusing to dismiss from the service peremptorily an officer of the Territorial Reserve who had drunk the health of Henry V. at a public dinner, but had been tried for it and acquitted by a court-martial. The situation in which the Ministry fell may be best described by supposing President Hayes's Cabinet dependent for their places on the acquiescence but not the support of a majority of the House, composed partly of Stalwarts and partly of Republican and Democratic Greenbackers; or by supposing the members of it to have seats in the House and to be obliged to be constantly in their places to answer criticism, and this criticism to cover all their acts whether legislative or administrative, and supposing them at the same time to be charged, as the English Ministry is, with the duty of proposing and conducting legislation, but compelled to share their powers in this field with the various Congressional committees and obliged to conciliate them.

Their troubles were aggravated by another circumstance new in recent French history, which completes the foregoing supposed American analogy. Fixity of tenure, or tenure during good behavior, has hitherto been the law of the French civil service, and the respect paid to it by all parties since 1789 accounts for the extraordinarily small amount of damage or derangement wrought by the numerous revolutions through which the country has passed during the last century. No matter what changes took place in the form of the Government at Paris, and no matter who got possession of the legislature or the ministerial buildings and the supreme executive authority, the administrative machine continued to work with regularity. Order was not disturbed in the provinces. The police patrolled, the courts sat, and the préfets and sous-préfets discharged their duties in the usual way, no matter how startling the news which came from the capital. In the great departments of state, too, in Paris, the subordinate employees have never hitherto experienced any anxiety about their future, in consequence of the violent expulsion of their chiefs from power. Of late this happy state of things has been put in great peril. The Republicans on obtaining full control of the Government have found the administrative offices filled by men who owed their places to Bonapartists or Legitimists, and who have no faith either in the permanence of the Republic or in its suitability to France. The judicial bench, too, and the higher grades in the army were largely occupied by the same class. In the old Napoleonic days officials, however disaffected to the actual régime, would not have dared to express dislike of it, punishment was so sure to be prompt and high-handed; but the Republican régime is much milder, and takes pains to show liberality towards malcontents and dissenters, and, besides this,

its ascendency only dates from last year. The result is that the deputies of the Left are in constant receipt of complaints of disloyal language and acts on the part of Government officers in the provinces, and of decisions by the provincial courts framed in a spirit of hostility to Republican suitors and defendants, and they carry them to the ministers with frantic demands for a thorough Republican purge of the whole service. This demand is, in a country in which the administrative machine is so ponderous and complicated as in France, something which ministers find it impossible to meet without disorganizing the service and alarming the whole country, and they therefore temporize and evade, and have ended by enraging the Left. It is needless to say, too, that no such movement can be started without filling the minds of Senators and Representatives with the idea which has excited such a pestiferous influence on American politics—that the legislator may freely push his own political fortunes by obtaining places for his adherents in his district. It has worked infinite mischief also by the alarm it has spread among the Government employees as to their own future, and by keeping a powerful "lobby" of anxious préfets and sous-préfets constantly in Paris absent from their posts.

It will be readily seen from all this that the kind of parliamentary government France is to have is as yet by no means clear. It has now some features both of the English and American systems which, when combined, become absolute defects. It is not likely that homogeneous parties such as exist in England and the United States, one of which is ready to carry on the government when the other goes out of office, will be seen in France for a long time, if ever; and many shrewd observers in Europe are asking the question, whether the plan of a homogeneous ministry will not be given up completely before any such parties are formed. At present the Ministry stands or falls together, as it does in England; but inasmuch as its solidarity is no real help in legislation, and as the Chamber undertakes a minute control of all the work of the departments, why, people begin to ask, should all the ministers go out of office together because the majority finds fault with one of them? This idea has, in fact, found partial expression in the late reconstruction of the Cabinet. M. Waddington, who was for various reasons a failure, has retired, and so has General Gresley, the Minister of War. But M. Freycinet, who is the head of the new combination, has simply transferred himself from the Ministry of Public Works to the Presidency of the Council, and put in four new members in the Cabinet, and made transfers among the others, so as to placate not the majority in the Chamber, but various sections of the majority. There is much reason for believing that this may lead to the permanent modification of the principle of ministerial responsibility, so as to enable the Legislature to dismiss a single minister without bringing about the retirement of the whole Cabinet; and if so, this would be a new experiment in government. That something of the same kind is to be looked for in Italy, as the result of a similar absence of homogeneous parties in the Chamber, is a very probable opinion; and should it come to pass, we shall perhaps have to set down a Latin parliamentary government, as distinguished from the Germanic, as a new division in the nomenclature of political science.

THE RAILROAD QUESTION IN GERMANY AND PRUSSIA.

BERLIN, December 15, 1879.

SINCE the publication of the article "Railroad Ownership and Regulation in Germany" (*Nation*, No. 722, May 1, 1879) the railroad question in Germany has been quickly developing in the way which was then pointed out. At present it is no longer doubtful that the project of state ownership of all railroads will in one way or another be carried out in Germany; either the several confederated states will own and manage all the roads situate in their respective territories, or the German Empire will own and manage all the German railways. A notable step forward is that the railway problem is no longer being discussed solely in the press and at public meetings, but has now been brought before the parliamentary assemblies, so that the practical realization of the idea is close at hand.

The question of the regulation of railroad tariffs must be decided by the Bundesrath and Reichstag. Prince Bismarck has for a long time been engaged in arriving at a correct solution of this intricate question, which is closely connected with the regulation of the customs tariff. If, for instance, a state levies high protective duties on certain articles which the railways are largely interested in transporting, they might—if their powers to fix rates were unlimited—nullify this whole protective policy by establishing the lowest possible rates. I will not here examine whether this possibility really exists for the German railroads. Prince Bismarck, assuming its existence, declared in his memorable letter to the Bundesrath of December 15, 1878, that, considering the intimate relations of both railway and customs tariffs, in regulating the one it would also be necessary to lay down fixed laws for the other. Consequently the necessary preparatory legislative enquiries have taken place. It was intended to bring in a railway-tariff bill at the same time with the customs-tariff law. According to the former, all German railways would be compelled to levy exactly the same freights per ton per mile throughout the whole country. Only those lines which were constructed and managed under particularly difficult or easy circumstances would be allowed to establish higher or lower rates in the following manner: their length was to be assumed to be greater or smaller than it was in reality (*virtual* length in opposition to *natural* length), and the tariffs were to be constructed on the basis of the *virtual* length of the lines. In this way the rates per ton per mile on all German railways would be apparently the same. Special rates for particular articles and certain directions must obtain the sanction of the principal railway ministry of the Empire (the Reichseisenbahnamt).

A bill embodying these principles has long been debated by the confederated governments. The peculiar difficulties to be overcome were rather more of a political than an economical character. The German middle states, Saxony, Würtemberg, Baden (Bavaria occupies an exceptional position in railway affairs), held that the regulation of fixed tariffs for all German roads was not subject to the legislation of the Empire, but was a privilege of the several states for their respective railroads. For this reason, and also because they themselves managed large railroad systems whose revenues would be affected by any imperial statute, they opposed the passage of such a law. Nevertheless, the Bundesrath appointed a special committee to prepare the bill, which was finished by the month of May. The states just mentioned again protested in the session of the Bundesrath itself against the bill as not being in accordance with the Constitution, and, notwithstanding the warm intercession of Prince Bismarck, they succeeded in referring back the bill to the committee. In the meantime it had proved impossible to lay the bill before the then assembled Reichstag, whose session was nearly at a close, and since that time the whole matter has made no progress.

The tendency of this bill has been loudly declaimed against by the liberal parties, and particularly the free-traders, who fear that if their tariffs were regulated by law the railways would no longer be able to answer the exigencies of trade and commerce. On the other hand, they apprehend that the influence of the Government in imposing special rates would be too great, inasmuch as it would be enabled to favor particular branches of commerce and industry, and even certain private persons. I am not of this opinion; for at present the Government (and even the private) railways have much greater freedom in regulating their tariffs, and are not in the least restricted by the legislative assemblies, and the bill does not enlarge this freedom, but limits it. The establishment of uniform maximum tariffs for all German railways will not be so very difficult, because the regular rates do not actually differ very greatly from each other; and all who sympathize with the idea that the rights of the several German states should gradually pass over to the Empire must regard this bill as a great step forward.*

Besides the tariff question, the question of buying a large number of private railroads for Prussia has lately been debated and is near its final decision. I pointed out in my last article that the Prussian Minister of Railroads, Herr Maybach, "firmly and persistently pursues the project of state ownership of all railroads." The past few months have proved the truth of this assertion. Last summer Herr Maybach opened negotiations with seven Prussian private railways, among which are some of the principal ones, for the sale of all their lines to the state. With five of them transactions have been concluded. The roads in question are the following: †

* That, however, the question of railroad tariffs in America must not be compared with the German I showed in my previous article in the *Nation*.

† A description of the several roads would lead me too far. I recommend the reader to consult a railroad map of Germany.

	No. of Miles of Track.
Berlin-Stettin	363
Magdeburg-Halberstadt	700
Hannover-Altenbecken	168
Köln-Minden	700
Berlin-Potsdam-Magdeburg	160
Rheinische	870
Berlin-Anhalt	268
Total	3,229

The agreements with the first four roads have been brought before the Landtag, and must be ratified by January 1, 1880, because the shareholders are bound by their contract only until this date. The agreement with the Potsdam-Magdeburger Railway was settled on the 2d of December. The negotiations with the Rhenish railroads will probably be brought to a close in a general meeting of the shareholders which is to take place December 18. All the different contracts are founded on the basis that the state acquires the right of managing the roads for a fixed annuity, which of course differs according to the revenues of the several lines. The state is further obliged to pay the interest to the bondholders, and within a certain time to exchange the shares for the same amount of consols bearing interest at four per cent. After this exchange has taken place the state acquires the ownership of the railroads and of all their property.

The bill in question was accompanied by an explanatory memorial, in which the minister argues that the only possible railroad system for Prussia is the system of state ownership. To go back to the purely private system would be out of the question, and, furthermore, it has grown perfectly evident that the existing system of mixed state and private ownership is altogether impracticable. A real equilibrium cannot be kept up between the state and private roads. What makes this mixed system especially precarious is the fact that the state superintends the railroads which are its competitors, so that an impartial superintendence is rendered impossible. The reasons for the system of state ownership have partly a military, but above all an economic, character. It is an acknowledged fact that during the wars of 1866 and 1870–71 the private as well as the state railways fully performed their duty. Nevertheless the innumerable different lines and managements created many difficulties and contrasted strongly with the concentrated, uniform government of the French private railways. Moreover, during the war, owing to the chaos of railroads, the travelling of private persons and the transportation of goods, even on those lines which were not required for military purposes, were for a long time impossible. It is to be expected that the concentration of all railways in one hand will have an improving influence in this respect. Still, I repeat, the principal reasons for changing the railroad system are economical. The minister hopes to save considerably by the simplification of the management and by the gradual reduction of the bonded interest. He also thinks that the state's judgment in regard to the real exigencies of traffic can be more correct than that of private companies, and above all he feels sure that the Government will be better able to carry out a tariff policy adapted to the veritable needs and interests of the whole country. The funds (*Reserve-* and *Erneuerungsfonds*) which the private railways bring to the state are, according to a second bill, destined for the construction of new roads in those provinces which as yet are not sufficiently provided.

The debates in the Chamber of Deputies terminated December 12. A majority consisting of the Conservative and National-Liberal parties accepted the bill, while the Centre and the Progressists voted against it. The assent of the majority was given only with the proviso that the present management of all the state railways should undergo some modifications, and this condition was accepted by the Government. The first of these modifications is that in future the budget of the railways shall be entirely separate from the general budget. Out of the revenues of the roads the interest of four and one-half per cent. for the whole railway stock is to be paid. Further, the surplus of the revenues up to one per cent. of the stock is to be set aside as an extra fund, which is to be employed in making good the deficiencies of bad times. If a still greater surplus is attained, a half per cent. may serve for the amortization of the railway debt, and the rest can remain for the current state expenses. Secondly, different committees, consisting of representatives of the commercial, industrial, and agricultural interests, are to be periodically called together for the purpose of giving the minister and the railway directors advice on all important questions of trade and commerce.

The bill has now been laid before the Upper House, which will undoubtedly give its assent to the action of the Lower. Minister Maybach lately declared that a bill concerning the acquisition of the Berlin-Potsdam-Magdeburger and the Rhenish railways would be brought before the Landtag during this session. Including these and the above-named Berlin-Anhaltische railroad, the state will own and manage a railway system of 9,300 miles, and the remaining private railways cannot possibly retain their independence for a long time. Then Minister Maybach will be able to show whether he can fully master the gigantic task which he has undertaken. If his grand attempt is successful in Prussia it must influence the railway problem also in other countries, and Herr Maybach has the great merit of having pointed out and cleared the way for the solution of one of the most important and difficult modern economical questions.

RENAN'S CHRISTIAN CHURCH.—II.

PARIS, December 25, 1879.

I LEFT Hadrian after the extermination of the Jews as a nation and his return to Rome, which he never quitted again after 135 A.D. The imperial artist thought himself the type of the humanitarian despot. Renan cannot conceal his sympathy for the man, and, to a great extent, for his government. "People had reason to be glad to live," he says, and he has applied almost the same words to France in recent times. Hadrian spent his last years in amusing himself in constructing, near Tibur, a villa which became the "album of his voyages." In this hospitable pandemonium all the styles, all the civilizations and religions, of the past were represented: there was a Vale of Tempe, there were Elysian Fields, there was a Tartarus. When he died, however, the world lost the last emperor who was fond of ancient art, of ancient literature; the last who believed in glory, who had truly imperial instincts; he bequeathed his place to the representatives of different instincts. The old world had lost its ideal; a new ideal appeared in Antoninus.

"Antoninus," says Renan, "was a Saint Louis in his heart and his sense of honor, with much more judgment and breadth of mind. He is the most perfect sovereign who ever reigned. He was even superior to Marcus Aurelius, since the reproach of weakness cannot be brought against him. To enumerate his virtues is to enumerate all the qualities of which the accomplished man is capable. The whole world saluted in him an incarnation of the mythical Numa Pompilius. He was the most constitutional of ministers, and withal frugal, economical, occupied with good works and public works, far above any excess, devoid of rhetoric and of all affectation of mind. With him philosophy ascended the throne."

Philosophy was the transition from the old Roman ideal to the new Christian ideal; but it was soon evident that philosophy is not or was not made for the government of the world; still, for twenty years the Empire enjoyed a truly paternal and wise government. The Christians in this empire of reason were still a revolutionary and destructive element; they were pessimists, they kept making lugubrious prophecies; they considered the struggle between the Empire and the Church as a holy war, like the struggle of God and Satan. Antoninus was obliged to maintain all the forms and ceremonies of the old religion; the Christians were still considered as members of secret and illegal societies. But Antoninus did as much as he could to abate the severity of the laws, though he could not modify the public feeling, which was very hostile to the new religion. Christianity was very imperfectly known; the mystery which surrounded it had filled the popular mind with all sorts of notions; the people really believed that the Christians committed crimes, that they were atheists, that their ceremonies were the occasion of the most monstrous scenes. Renan remarks that the Epicureans felt somewhat lenient towards the Christians, while the Stoics disliked them. The Epicurean philosophers attacked the oracles and miracles of the old Church, and represented them as inventions of the priests. The doctrines of the Stoics were more in accordance with the Christian laws of morality, but they confounded the Christians with the Cynics. They looked upon the heroism of the martyrs as a mere affectation.

The great religious event of the reign of Antoninus was the final reconciliation of the disciples of Paul and of Peter. The concessions came chiefly from the side of the Paulists, though the churches of Paul were more prosperous than the churches of the Ebionites. It was admitted that Peter and Paul had been the two founders of the Church of Rome, and in all the old churches of the basilica style you will always find the representation of Peter at the end of one side, and that of Paul at the end of the other. "Peter and Paul became the two halves of an inseparable whole, twin luminaries like the sun and the moon." Out of this reconciliation sprang the great catholic unity of the Church. Rome was the centre in which this fusion took place.

"The fundamental condition," says Renan, "of the success of Christianity is now secure. Neither Peter nor Paul could succeed separately. Peter meant conservation, Paul revolution; both were necessary. They

say in Brittany that when Saint Peter and Saint Paul came to preach Christianity in Armorica, they arrived before an arm of the sea which was narrow and deep. Though they were both in harmony on all essential points, they resolved each to remain on his own side and to teach the Gospel after his own fashion, for it seems that, notwithstanding their great confraternity, they could not live together. Both, after the fashion of all saints in Brittany, began to build a chapel. They both had stones, but they had but one hammer, so that every night the saint who had worked during the day threw his hammer to his companion over the arm of the sea. Thanks to the alternate labor resulting from this arrangement the work went on well, and the two chapels which were then built are still to be seen."

Another great revolution may be called the consolidation of the Gospels; the Church ceased to recognize anybody's right to remodel them. The age of the living tradition had passed; the Book became the great authority, and towards A.D. 180 the Catholic Church traced its limits and closed definitively the list of the Gospels. Irenæus will tell you that there are four Gospels, as there are four corners of the world; four revelations—the revelations of Adam, of Noah, of Moses, of Jesus; four animals in the cherub; four mystical beasts in the Apocalypse. The task of the theologians will consist now in harmonizing the four Gospels. This final consolidation was not, however, the work of a day. In Asia Minor as well as in Rome, the two great centres of the new religion, many tendencies were always at work: there were conservatives and progressists, friends and enemies of Judaism, millenarians and spiritualists; the transcendental theories of the gnostics seemed to many the highest form of Christianity. The dogma had not yet received its final lineaments. The theology of Marcion was a sort of Manichæism; Polycarp believed that God had a material body. The Gospels were the great field of battle with the Old Testament. Marcion took his stand on the Gospel of Luke, and he was never satisfied till he had cut all the Judaic connections of Jesus with the past. His Jesus is not born, he did not suffer nor die. Marcion considered Christianity as absolutely hostile and contrary to Judaism. Justin Martyr was a disciple of Plato as much as of Christ and of Moses; his church was a very broad church. He considered that revelation was permanent, that it was an eternal fruit of the *logos*. Polycarp, of Smyrna, was considered a prophet; he was as old as St. John, he lived in a world of visions; it was generally admitted that he had passed several years with John. Among his disciples was Irenæus, who received the last traditions of the apostolic world. Polycarp was a materialistic millenarian of the old school; he was an intolerant conservative, he hated the heretics. But there were heretics everywhere, and new sects were born every day.

"These sects could not admit that the evangelical productiveness should be crystallized, and that there should be no occasion to write new lives of Christ. The gnostic sects wanted texts incessantly renewed, so as to satisfy their ardent imagination. All, almost all, the sectarian chiefs had gospels which bore their name, such as Basilides, or which were compilations, such as the Gospel of Marcion. The Gospel of Apelles came, like so many others, out of the Jewish gospel Marcus mixed everything, the authentic and the apocryphal. . . . The names of the apostles offered ample guarantees for all these frauds. There was hardly one among the twelve who did not have his supposed gospel. Nothing was invented, to be sure; but the people wanted details which the four inspired apostles had omitted. The childhood of Christ above all excited an intense curiosity. Nobody could admit that Jesus, whose life had been a long prodigy, could have lived for years as an obscure Nazarene. Such was the origin of what we call the 'Apocryphal Gospels,' a long series of weak works whose beginning must be placed towards the middle of the second century. It is an insult to Christian literature to compare these flat compositions with the master-pieces of Mark, of Luke, of Matthew."

It became impossible, at the end of the second century, to imagine that Mary, Joseph, Anne were ordinary personages These figures assumed the proportions and surrounded themselves with the halo which have found their material expression in so many works of art. The ox and the donkey found their way into the stable of the Nativity, which has been so often painted and figured. Joseph became a type, an old man, so old that the birth of Jesus became a necessary miracle. Mary was taken to the skies and did not die the death of a mortal. The Passion of Jesus surrounded itself also with many legends. Renan believes that most of these spontaneous and sometimes touching additions were made in Asia. He says, with much truth, that Christian iconography, whether Byzantine or Latin, owes much to these apocryphal gospels:

"The Perugian school would have had no *sposalizio*, the Venetian school no Assumption, no Presentation; the Byzantine school no descent of Jesus into Hades, but for the apocryphal gospels. The infancy of Christ would be wanting in its most charming details. Their advantage lies in their inferiority. The canonical Gospels were too strong food for the people. Vulgar, and sometimes low, stories were more on their level than the Sermon on the Mount or the speeches of the fourth Gospel."

A literature of false "Acts" was also produced; but the Acts of the Apostles had been the individual work of Luke, and there had never been various versions of them. It happened, therefore, that there was not so much room for invention; and, in fact, the Apocryphal Acts have little in common with the Acts of Luke. The history of the apostles never received a definitive form, and it was constantly modified.

Renan now promises a volume on the reign of Marcus Aurelius, and it is quite true that in a certain sense this reign still belongs to the beginning of Christianity. The sect which goes by the name of Montanism appeared under Marcus Aurelius; it was a sort of miraculous efflorescence; but, as Renan says, religion under Marcus Aurelius, and after the disorders of gnosticism, needed something more than miracles—namely, discipline. The Phrygian prophets met with the resistance of the orthodox bishops. Renan has another reason for speaking of the reign of Marcus Aurelius: he wishes to show the ties of Christianity with the great contemporary philosophic movement of reform. Christianity was not an isolated fact; it answered a great need of the time, but Hellenism, Romanism had their share in the work of social amelioration. Marcus Aurelius will end this long series of emperors; he was the last representative of the school of virtue which tried to save the world by the mere work of reason. He ought to have been the real Constantine, and to have reconciled the Church and the state. Renan will tell you why he was not, and why Christianity so soon linked its fate with the Empire.

Correspondence.

THE RELIGIOUS PRESS AND THE TALMAGE CASE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your last issue, commenting on the Talmage case, you refer to the attitude of the religious press in regard to it, quoting from a speech, of which you say:

"The Rev. J. M. Sherwood, who was one of the prosecuting counsel in the last trial, has published his speech, which is curious reading, inasmuch as it enforces on the Synod the desirableness of respecting within the Church the prejudices of the outside world on questions of 'fundamental morals.' He makes some very severe observations, apropos of this, on the religious press, and produces a quotation from one of those religious papers, which objects to trying Talmage for falsehood and deceit, not because he is innocent, but because,

> "'As it is now the golden time of autumn, when city people are coming back from the country, and churches begin to be full, and ministers preach with new zeal and hope, and look for blessed revivals of religion, it would be a thousand pities if this peace and harmony and the brooding influences of the Spirit were all driven away by the reopening of an ecclesiastical trial which has vexed the ears of the Christian public much too long.'

These and other things are making a great many people ask whether some of the churches have not got a good way towards the old pagan idea of religion, which assumed that the favor of the gods was won by prayer and praise simply, and was in no way conditioned on the good behavior of the worshippers."

Here is wisdom. You find a stray sentence quoted in a speech (the animus of which might well have made you suspicious); you quote it at second-hand, without stopping to ask where it came from, or in what connection it was introduced; and on this sentence, taken out of its place, with "other things" of a like character, you jump to the conclusion that "some of the churches have got a good way towards the old pagan idea of religion, which assumed that the favor of the gods was won by prayer and praise simply, and was in no way conditioned on the good behavior of the worshippers"! This is a pretty serious imputation—that a portion of the Church is returning to paganism, and its ministers, forsooth, are little better than the priests of Jupiter!

Now, if you had taken the slightest pains to "verify your references" (to quote the advice of Dean Stanley to theological students), and to "study the context," you would have seen that the article quoted from did not warrant at all the complexion which you gave it. It was not a defence of Mr. Talmage; nor did it, as you affirm, "object to trying him for falsehood and deceit." *He had been tried already.* For weeks the Presbytery of Brooklyn had done nothing else than sit in judgment on the case. They had sifted every particle of testimony, and at the end had heard it summed up in arguments of great ability on both sides; after all which they rendered their verdict, that the charges were *not sustained*, and the case was dismissed. Was not that a "trial" long enough in all conscience? After that months passed; Mr. Talmage went abroad for the summer. When he returned in the autumn the question arose whether those who had pressed the matter with so much zeal before, and been

defeated, should "go at it again," and fill the public prints with their uproar and strife? This was a question of practical wisdom, and the only question which was considered in the article to which you refer.

As to your statement that it "objected to trying Talmage, *not because he was innocent*," this, too, conveys an impression that is totally false. The question of "innocence" was not raised at all, nor on that did it express any opinion. To do so would have been a great want of decorum. The article was designed for the members of the Presbytery, the very men who had conducted the trial and were familiar with the testimony. For an outsider to give *them* a flippant opinion of the merits of a case on which they had deliberated for a whole month would have been an assumption of superior wisdom, which they might justly have resented as an impertinence, and ask, "Who made you a judge over us?"

But there was one thing which one who was in friendly relations with all parties could say without offence, and with a faint hope of a good result—to wit: That those who had felt it to be their duty to bring charges against Mr. Talmage, having had those charges fully investigated, might now feel that they had done their whole duty in the premises, and were absolved from any further obligation. Writers on ethics insist much on "the limitations of human responsibility." In this case it seemed that that limit had been reached. Their troubled consciences might be relieved. They could wash their hands of the whole business, assured that, however "guilty" Mr. Talmage might be, they at least were not partakers of his sin.

Such was the feeling which prompted the article in question. It was not written in the interest of Mr. Talmage nor of his accusers, but in the interest of public decency, which was outraged by this constant dragging before the public of what had been discussed *ad nauseam*.

The additional motive which appears in the sentence you quote is one which you do not feel the force of, and deride as a "pagan idea"—mere cant and hypocrisy—but it was one which would be felt by every serious and devout pastor in Brooklyn, to whom it was addressed.

Upon reflection I think you will agree that so small a text was not well chosen to point so grave a moral; that a bit of friendly advice, the dictate of common sense and of the kindest feeling, was hardly sufficient to warrant the inference that "some of the churches" are relapsing into paganism, or "have got a good way towards pagan ideas."

HENRY M. FIELD.

NEW YORK, Jan. 12, 1880.

[Dr. Field, we are sorry to say, has fallen into something like "journalism" in the foregoing. We did not say "these and other things of a like character." We said "these and other things," and we meant other things of a different character. Nor did we "in this single sentence taken out of its place," etc., jump to the conclusion "that some of the churches," etc. We said that these and other things "were making a good many people ask whether some of the churches," etc.—*i.e.*, these and other things were creating doubts in the public mind about the attitude of some of the churches with regard to the relations of religion and morals. The observation on "the priests of Jupiter" makes us fear that Dr. Field read our remarks in a state of excitement. We have since read the article from which Mr. Sherwood quoted, which when we received his speech we had not seen. We must say frankly that we think it shows that the writer was more troubled by the scandal of Talmage's trial than by the possibility of his guilt, and thought the interests of religion would be best served by dropping the question of his guilt, or, in other words, justifies the construction put on it by Mr. Sherwood. Dr. Field seems to us to labor under a misapprehension as to what took place before the Presbytery. The facts were not disputed, but the court divided on their moral complexion. This, according to our view, made it the duty of the prosecutors to carry the case up on appeal, and get a still more authoritative decision, if possible, on the morality of Talmage's conduct. In fact, we are not sure that they would not have been justified in carrying it to the General Assembly for the same purpose. If the Presbyterian Church thinks that Talmage's acts in the slander charge, the telegram charge, and the subsequent "moral rottenness" performance in his pulpit, were harmless, or merely imprudent, the public ought to learn it from the highest authority in the Church. With all respect to Dr. Field as a theologian, we deny that "the brooding influences of the Spirit are driven away" by ecclesiastical trials; they are driven away by the bad behavior of pastors and church members, and the feebleness of church organizations on questions of fundamental morals. We do not mean to be irreverent, therefore, in advising the religious press to give itself no concern about the Spirit, but to keep a sharp eye on the Talmages.—ED. NATION.]

THE POET AND THE KING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Please allow me to correct some errors in your note about the Norwegian poet Björnson and the King of Norway and Sweden in your issue of the 1st inst.

The drama "Leonarda" did not create much excitement in Norway. It was very readily accepted by the managers of the Christiania Theatre, which is neither a royal, a state, nor a municipal institution, and it was also very favorably received by the public and the press, with only the exception of a leading conservative paper that is generally considered the organ of the Government. The somewhat radical tendencies of this play are not of a political but of a social nature.

In Norway there is no censorship of any kind. Professor Molbech is censor at the Royal Theatre in Copenhagen, and as such rejected "Leonarda" in accordance with the tradition of this institution, which has generally rejected the best plays of Norwegian poets, but as regularly accepted them afterwards when they have made their round on the first stages of Europe.

Immediately after having rejected "Leonarda" Professor Molbech was decorated with an order, not by his own king, the King of Denmark, but by King Oscar of Norway and Sweden. The decoration was dated a couple of days before the rejection of "Leonarda," but it is asserted that already at that time it was well known at the court of King Oscar, in Stockholm, that Mr. Björnson's last play would be rejected by Mr. Molbech.

Some time last summer it was reported to Mr. Björnson by ear-witnesses that King Oscar had, on a festive occasion at his palace in Stockholm, loudly denounced him (Björnson), and declared that he "had trespassed against all the ten Commandments." Last fall, immediately before starting on a journey to Germany, Mr. Björnson sent a letter to King Oscar's Norwegian Prime Minister in Christiania, asking, in a very moderate tone, for an explanation. Such an explanation he has not, as far as known, yet received, and he will probably never receive any. The Conservative press of the Scandinavian countries has, curiously enough, turned very severely on Mr. Björnson because he dared to ask the King's minister for an explanation, as though Björnson, and not the King, was the insulter. Meanwhile the liberal Scandinavian press is discussing the question whether the constitutional provision that the King's person is sacred, inviolable, and irreproachable, must be so construed as always to shield him against being prosecuted for violations of the criminal laws of his countries.—Respectfully, H. H.

CHICAGO, Jan. 1, 1880.

Notes.

J. W. BOUTON announces that all subscribers to the *Portfolio* for the current year whose names are received prior to May 1 will be entitled to a choice of Rembrandt's famous etchings, "Death of the Virgin" or the "Three Trees," as reproduced by the Amand-Durand process, of which the fidelity is marvellous. A series of etchings from North Wales, by Mr. Herkomer, is promised during the volume.——In the *Naturalist* for December and January Mr. Frederick Brendel gives a full and interesting "Historical Sketch of the Science of Botany in North America, 1635–1858"; a history, as he says, necessarily that "of travelling and local collectors, and of descriptive botany so far as it concerns American plants." To the current issue Dr. Elliott Coues contributes a summary "Sketch of North American Ornithology in 1879."——We have received the prospectus of the *American Entomologist*, to be edited by Prof. Chas. V. Riley and Mr. Andrew S. Fuller, and published in this city by Max Jaegerhuber, at 323 Pearl Street. It will be illustrated, and may safely be recommended to all cultivators of the soil as a valuable aid in combating the insect pests of the garden and the orchard.——The first number of the *Planter's Journal*, the organ of the Mississippi Valley Cotton Planters' Association, has reached our table. It is published monthly at Vicksburg, Miss., and edited by Mr. F. C. Morehead, President of the above

Association. The contents are by no means exclusively devoted to cotton, but have much the same range as our agricultural journals at the North. The most significant article in the January number is that on the Clement attachment by Mr. F. E. Whitfield, of Corinth, Miss., a manufacturer under the "new process." His statements are enthusiastic, but seem to have a solid basis.——We regret to learn from the December number of the excellent *Library Journal* that it has not yet received the measure of support to which it is entitled by its merits. It will, however, be continued another year, and, while public libraries should without exception enroll themselves on its list of subscribers, every owner of a considerable private library ought also to give it a cordial welcome. The office of publication is at 13 Park Row.——The first three parts of Mrs. Lamb's 'History of the City of New York,' vol. ii., begin with the opening of the Revolution in 1775, and carry on the story to the year 1777. The battles of Harlem Heights and White Plains are freshly retold, and with the aid of some excellent new maps, in which the modern city is laid down over the old scenes of warfare. In Part 3 will also be found a map of the "burnt district" of 1776—no mean destruction.——Four parts (*A1—Colombia*) of a 'Dictionary of Commerce and Manufactures,' edited by Dr. L. de Colange, the former editor of 'Zell's Encyclopædia,' have been issued by Estes & Lauriat, Boston. The entire work is estimated to consist of twenty-five parts of 48 pages each. Its scope is indicated by the following titles from p. 29: *Atlantic, Mississippi and Ohio R. R., Atlas, Atmometer, Atropia, Attachment, Attar of Roses, Attestation, Attire, Attorney, Aubergine, Au besoin, Aubusson, Auctioneer*, etc., which do not differ greatly from those on p. 34 of McElrath's 'Commercial Dictionary.' Still, Dr. Colange has more room for details than his predecessor (compare the articles on *butter*), and undoubtedly will keep his promise to give "a large lot of miscellaneous information," brought down to the year just elapsed.——What energy and perseverance can do for the advancement of a community may be realized from the announcements of the Mozart Club, New London, a town boasting, at the best, some twelve thousand inhabitants. Last year this club was established for the cultivation of classical chamber-music, such as the duos, trios, and quartettes for stringed instruments and pianofortes by the foremost composers. The first two programmes were furnished by Mendelssohn, Handel, Hummel, Haydn, Schubert, Weber, and Chopin, and the attendance was so large as to bewilder the managers by the want of room for the auditory. From the same locality and under the same auspices comes a programme for the 26th inst., by the children of the public schools, assisted by elder amateurs, numbering together one hundred and fifty voices, which is to present choruses by Gounod, Handel, Reichardt, Costa, and Verdi. It is owing to the zeal of Messrs. A. H. Chappell and C. B. Jennings, the principal of one of the New London schools, that these educational influences, of unmistakable value, are fostered and developed.——Sitting Bull has, we learn from *Polybiblion* for December, been made the subject of an octavo volume of 365 pages, by Godefroid Kurth, Professor in the University of Liège. Naturally more than half of the book is devoted "à l'exposé de la situation faite aujourd'hui aux Indiens par leurs frères Yankees." In the same journal for December and January will be given a bibliography of the immaculate conception.——The *Academy* of the 27th ult. announces the beginning of two new journals with the new year, one called *To-Day*, published in London weekly and apparently similar in aim to *Truth* and the *World*, and the other a politico-economical monthly, in both French and German, published at Zürich under the editorship of Herr Ottiker, and entitled *Der Schweizerische Volkswirth* and *L'Économiste Suisse*.

—There is now being published at Boston, by Mr. J. P. Soule, 349 Washington Street, a series of photographs of interest to the general public, but of especial value to students of the history of art who have been unable to obtain sufficiently numerous or adequate illustrations of the different schools and masters. They are reproductions, made with great care and of a nearly uniform small size, of the photographs of Braun, Naya at Venice, Alinari at Florence, and others of the best foreign photographers who have copied from the originals. The series includes the complete works of Michael Angelo in the Sistine Chapel, great numbers of Raphael, Titian, Botticelli, and all the famous masters of the Low Countries and Germany, as well as of Italy, besides statues, bas-reliefs, mosaics, antiquities, the Tanagra figurines, views in Egypt, the Holy Land, Greece, and Rome. The photographs are, of course, useless for the study of color, but they afford satisfactory means of studying outline, design, composition, and in general the style and spirit as well as the progress of the various schools. Of especial interest to classical students is a series of nearly fifty reproductions of vase-pictures, bas-reliefs, and monuments from the works of Gerhard, Visconti, Kekulé, and the 'Monuments inédits publiés par l'Institut de Correspondance Archéologique,' which have been made especially to illustrate the lectures at Harvard upon Greek poetry and art; so, too, is the series which reproduces the complete set of Stillman's Athenian photographs, which are the best ever taken, and are now very difficult to procure, as only one hundred sets were originally printed. The student of art or of antiquities could not obtain any similar aid except by consulting numerous books and collections in our largest city libraries, and even then he would hardly meet with such variety and profusion of illustration. Over fifteen hundred numbers have already been printed, and the list is continually growing longer and richer; the collection affords an opportunity for information and study in respect to art, both modern and ancient, such as has never before been offered in America, not only because of its extent and variety, but also for the fidelity and care displayed in it. The photographs, unmounted "cabinets," are sold at the comparatively trifling price of $1.50 per dozen.

—American sculpture, since the war, has confined itself either to portraiture, or else, when ambitious of displaying the flight of fancy, to the confection of military monuments. This gives consequence and distinction to the very few efforts making in the purely ideal kind, and invites our notice of a graceful model of "Psyche" recently finished in this city by T. Baur, an unquestionable genius, though a man not often mentioned before contracting committees. The "Psyche" is treated as a decoration, the bust in high relief leaning out of a ring whose circle is interrupted by the advancing wings. The eyes are closed, and the vines which supply the ornamental saliencies seem to influence the enervation and languor of the figure. This Clodion-like motive is carried out with fastidious grace, the curves harmonizing well, the complements of light and shade balancing each other finely, and all importunate realism being kept far away from a composition which yet has none of the affectations that shock the realists.

—We commend the following opportunity to our esteemed contemporaries, regretting that we cannot ourselves employ the services of our correspondent, who, by the way, frankly acknowledges that he is "aged about forty-two years":

"I write asking for a Situation: or as Correspondent or Writer for thy paper: I have been for 15 yrs practising and preparing myself for an Author and writer, (5 years devoting my whole time to this) and now feel it to be time for to make practical use of it; having written and collected 117 note books of 'points,' all numbered, upon finance, business, Social Science, etc., etc., etc., the points amounting up to this time to 266,586; from this practice my style is very condensed probably too much so."

—The third soirée of chamber-music given by the Philharmonic Club was a rather uninteresting affair, the only redeeming feature being Beethoven's great Trio for pianoforte, violin, and violoncello, in B flat, Op. 97, in which Miss Anna Bock took the piano part. This accomplished young artist, whom we praised a few weeks ago as a very brilliant and spirited performer of compositions of the most modern school, showed that she possesses every quality needed to interpret the noblest works of the classical period, among which Beethoven's Trio must undoubtedly be numbered. Mr. Arnold is always excellent as regards purity and correctness of tone, and a certain amount of execution; but his playing is singularly devoid of interest, and, in the absence of fine shading, becomes very wearisome. This defect was very noticeable in the bright, joyful Scherzo and in the sombre Trio which follows it. There was a sameness in his interpretation of these two movements, which are as different in character as they possibly can be, that was positively distressing. The remaining numbers were not remarkable. A Duo for flute and piano by Schubert, in spite of Miss Bock's and Mr. Werner's admirable execution, made a rather doleful impression. The Scherzo from a quartet by Cherubini is a bright and pretty little composition, but it is always hazardous to take a single movement out of a complete work. We should have enjoyed Cherubini's quartet in its entirety vastly more than this solitary number, played after a very insignificant Adagietto by Bicet (or Bizet?), with which it has no connection whatever. The concluding number, a string quartet by Mozart, in F major, not by any means one of the most interesting of the thirty-two string quartets which the prolific master has left, was very satisfactorily played by Messrs. Arnold, Gantzberg, Gramm, and Werner.

—In the Gossip of *Lippincott's* for January is an account of "A Visit to the Maison de Molière," which describes hastily the many curious works of art collected in the Théâtre-Français. Since that visit was paid, M.

Réné Delorme has published 'Le Musée de la Comédie-Française' (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern), an ample volume of over two hundred quarto pages, in which the riches of Molière's house are set forth in order, exactly, and with fulness. Hereafter a visitor to the Théâtre-Français need not rely wholly on the word-of-mouth catalogue of his courteous conductors, for here in print is a seemingly complete list of the treasures of the building. M. Delorme points out that this museum (for such the theatre really is) is but little known even to Parisians, for want, perhaps, of a list of its contents; and this in spite of the fact that it contains pictures by Mignard, Van Loo, David, Gros, Ingres, Delacroix, Isabey, Dubufe, Gérôme, and Robert-Fleury, and statues by Houdon, Caffieri, Dantan, Clésinger, and David d'Angers. The museum is about a hundred years old. In 1777, when the company owned a picture or two, Caffieri proposed to found a gallery of great French dramatists and actors, to which he himself made the first contributions. In 1815 there were a dozen paintings and nearly two dozen marbles. In 1850 M. Arsène Houssaye became the director, and his artistic taste gave great impulse to the collection, which has continued to grow under the present director, M. Émile Pérrin, a pupil of Gros and Delaroche, and, like M. Houssaye, formerly a frequent writer on art topics. Now the total catalogue of works of art belonging to the Comédie-Française reckons over three hundred numbers, including one hundred and seventy-one pictures and seventy-seven marbles. Most of these are portraits, all of departed authors and actors. After a general description of the museum, its origin and its growth, and after an account of the various artists, M. Delorme gives a classified catalogue of all the works of art in the building, excepting only those which may hang in the private dressing-rooms of the actors. These dressing-rooms are not the little cubby-holes one sees in most theatres, but ample rooms with large closets. Many of the actors and actresses are either artists or the friends of artists; Mlle. Sarah Bernhardt, like Mrs. Siddons, is a sculptor, and, like Mr. Joseph Jefferson, a painter. M. Coquelin is intimate with M. Vibert and M. de Neuville, and he was a great friend of Henri Regnault and of Fortuny. His portrait as *Mascarille*, by Madrazo, hangs in his dressing-room, and has been reproduced on wood for the December number of the *Moliériste*.

—While the second volume of Dr. Friedrich Ratzel's great work on the United States is still in preparation, supplementing with an account of our political and social characteristics the volume devoted to the physical geography of the country; and while Dr. von Holst is doing for the constitutional history of the Republic what no native writer has ever attempted, a third work of comprehensive scope and costly manufacture on 'Nord-Amerika, seine Städte und Naturwunder, sein Land und seine Leute,' by Ernst von Hesse-Wartegg, in four volumes of upwards of 800 pages, comes to us from the house of Gustav Weigel, in Leipzig. Equipped with all these publications, no German who wishes to form a correct idea of the United States has any excuse for remaining in ignorance. The latest is the most superficial, and is strictly to be classed among illustrated guide-books, though it is meant to be read continuously, and is, in fact, well digested and well written. It has no maps of any kind and no index, but it abounds in woodcut illustrations of every degree of authenticity and verisimilitude, though of pretty uniform execution. It gives 13 pages (large octavo) to the New England States, 22 to the Dominion of Canada, 233 to the Middle States and the District of Columbia, 152 to the upper Mississippi valley, including Kentucky and the Mammoth Cave, 239 to the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Slope, 43 to Arizona and New Mexico, and 72 to the Southwest and South (with only 9 pages allotted to Texas). This distribution is such as the average tourist, since the opening of the Pacific Railroads, would make, and represents, we suspect, pretty nearly the extent of the author's personal experience of travel; for when he passes, as he rarely does, from mere description into narration, he is found on the beaten track. But it also answers sufficiently well a main purpose of the work, to prepare German emigrants (naturally of some intelligence and property) for a choice of home in the New World.

—Some misrepresentations have arisen from an uncritical selection of pictorial illustrations. Only here have we ever seen on Broadway by daylight ladies riding, or emerging from the St. Nicholas Hotel, in full evening dress. The "types" are seldom anything but caricatures, and the Indians are uniformly figments of the imagination, except in the very few instances in which photographs have been copied, as they ought always to be. The negro is frequently travestied, whether we see women in the cotton-fields stripped to the waist while at their work, or a dapper negro porter on the Baltimore and Ohio Road deftly kicking a trunk from the baggage-car in the face of its irate owner. The view of a Quaker meeting (i. 153) looks rather like a Mormon conventicle, though the author says, on the next page: "A true religiousness (*Religiosität*) animates the Quakers, while the Baptists, Methodists, and other denominations by the dozen (*Dutzende Andersgläubiger*), unhappily make a show of religiousness, from which the Germans of Philadelphia are fortunately exempt." The temperance and Sunday laws of New England, its woman's rights and spiritualism, its religious eccentricities and "incredible social peculiarities" (not specified), seem to the author to account for this section being left one side by the stream of immigration. Still, he is not sparing of compliments in other respects, even to the praise of New England "model farming." In addition to the other isms, Boston is the seat of Quakerism (here pronounced an "abnormity") and Shakerism (!), and is remarkable for the social influence of the clergy (*Pfaffen*); but it is still possible to live there "without coming in contact with these unwholesome conditions." That for the East Herr Hesse-Wartegg relied too much upon books and not enough upon observation is again evident when he says that the teaching of French and German is remarkably neglected in Boston, speaks of the old elm on the Common as still standing, and states that Hawthorne and Prescott live in the vicinity of the city.

—The Massachusetts Railroad Commissioners have lately begun to test railway employees for color-blindness. It was quite time for taking action in the matter, the facts being that color-blindness is congenital, incurable, and considerably more frequent than is generally supposed; in our community one out of twenty-five males is totally unable to distinguish red from green. These being the colors in universal use for railway and marine signals, the power to distinguish instantly between the two is momentarily deciding, the world over, between life and death for the traveller. Three or four in each hundred of the railway and marine employees in this country are incapable of making this decision, as Dr. Jeffries concludes from testings in many thousand cases, and are unfit for their places. Following the lead of Sweden and France in their examinations, the Massachusetts Board are beginning to do what will be done, and at no distant future, throughout the country. Their action calls, however, for one criticism—it is not thorough enough and does not take enough account of the experience of foreign countries in this matter. The examinations for color-blindness, while simple in theory, yet require in practice much experience and expert knowledge in order to give results that are fair to both parties—to the railroad employees and to the travelling public. On the one hand, an employee must not be dismissed for less cause than actual color-blindness in such degree as to prevent his distinguishing signals; on the other hand, the public must be certainly protected from the risk that a single color-blind engine-driver shall remain at his post. This great existing danger to life and property is now certainly remediable by proper examinations. The Massachusetts Board, however, began by appointing not an expert, but a railway conductor, to examine the employees of the Fitchburg Railroad. Examination by a conductor is certainly better than no examination at all, but in recent European experience even the railroad surgeons failed to make satisfactory examinations for color-blindness, and ophthalmic experts had to be called in at last. Precaution less than this will hardly satisfy our travelling public after it shall have learned that safety requires the absolute elimination of the color-blind from the railway *personnel*. Examinations for color-blindness and the range of vision in recruits have already been ordered in the United States Army, the army surgeons being the examiners. The number of experts in this branch of service will increase rapidly by reason of the increased attention now called to the subject; meanwhile it seems clear enough that only expert examiners should be employed for railway and marine examinations. The subject offers the most striking recent instance of a strictly scientific enquiry that has suddenly been transformed into a serious question of every-day practice.

—Prof. Johan Nikolai Madvig, whose name is known the world over in every school where the Latin language is taught, celebrated on the 17th of November last the fiftieth anniversary of his appointment as professor in the University of Copenhagen, Denmark. Although Madvig is most widely known as the author of a Latin grammar, his most valuable work as a scholar has been done in another field. Before his appearance as a philological critic scientific criticism could hardly be said to exist in the realm of philology. The Greek and Latin classics had been published in the most arbitrary manner, printed from such manuscripts as happened to be at hand, and though something had been done sporadically by the great linguists of the last century, still textual criticism was in its infancy. It was not rational, but depended on accidents, and to

Madvig is due the credit of putting an end to it and of establishing a logical, rational criticism on a scientific basis. He recognized the fact that manuscripts must be weighed, not counted, that it is not the number of manuscripts, but their character, that determines the reading of a passage. He showed that manuscripts must be classified according to their origin, and how it is possible by careful comparison to determine which is child and which is parent, so to speak, until you have made your way back through the entire pedigree. It is well known how nearly fifty years ago he contended for his principles against the noted Orelli, and how Germany was at last constrained to recognize their soundness. Madvig was born August 7, 1804, and is still enjoying perfect health and mental vigor. In personal appearance he is like an average New England Congregational minister; he is not a native of Copenhagen, and a provincial pronunciation of Danish, which he has always retained, gives a peculiar quaintness and charm to all he says.

—Jón Sigurdsson, an Icelander, distinguished alike as a scholar and a political leader, died at Copenhagen December 7. He published numerous learned works relating to the classical and modern literatures of his country, but he will, perhaps, be longest remembered as the man whose wisdom and energy succeeded in rendering his native land independent of foreign rule. Even the Danes, against whom he waged a persistent political warfare, were compelled to respect him, partly because of his thorough common sense, partly because he more than once prevented the more impulsive insular patriots from breaking into open revolt. He presided during sixteen sessions over the Icelandic Althing, both before and after his exertions had made it a real legislative body. The hour of his triumph came in 1874, when, at the time of the celebration of the Icelandic Millennial and the visit of Christian IX. to his polar subjects, a new and liberal constitution was proclaimed, separating Iceland for ever from the domination of the Danes. In Iceland itself he was idolized, his portrait hanging on the walls of every farmstead and every fisherman's cottage; and he was highly esteemed by both Scandinavian and foreign scholars. He died in his sixty-ninth year, and is to be buried at Reykjavík, the Icelandic capital.

—The absolute necessity of keeping abreast with German scholarship in English is impressed upon us more forcibly than ever by a glance at the last two volumes of the *Anglia* and the *Englische Studien*. Of the thirty-six contributors to the *Anglia* only two are Englishmen (Furnivall and Sweet), one is an American (Dr. Phelan, of Memphis, lately deceased). All the others are Germans. The *Englische Studien* makes even a worse exhibit; here only *one* contributor (Sweet) is a non-German. For the winter semester 1878–79 nearly seventy courses of lectures on English language and literature were announced for the universities of Germany, Switzerland, and Austria. Some of these were upon modern authors; but at least thirty of these courses were upon English philology, in the strictest sense of the term. We can appreciate, then, the force of the admission made by one of the most eminent scholars in England, that Germany is the only country in which it would be possible to edit a review like the *Anglia*.

EATON'S CIVIL SERVICE IN GREAT BRITAIN.*

ALTHOUGH the Administration has not kept its promise to promote civil-service reform actively, it has done something in that direction by requesting Mr. Eaton to prepare, at his own expense, the volume now presented as a history of office-holding in that country whose public life most nearly resembles our own. In so far as it is an argument—and it does form a vigorous and convincing plea for the reform—it proceeds indirectly by comparisons founded on historic detail. The greater part of the work is devoted, as its purpose required, to showing how the spoils system in England grew out of the absolute ownership of offices by the crown, and was modified but not improved by the substitution of party government; and how, as its abuses became rank and intolerable, a rising spirit of public reprobation kept pace with them, till at last the sense and virtue of the English people overpowered the selfishness of a class, and triumphed by the destruction of the system. The author makes skilful use of the occasions such a review presents for enforcing the need and the practicability of just such a national purgation among ourselves.

The rising generation of Americans really knows of nothing better than our present vicious system of appointment to office, accepting it generally as traditional practice, without any enquiry into its reasons. People whose eyes and ears are open admit the great evils that affect republican government in our degenerate time; and such as hear and see anything beyond their own neighborhood deplore the consequent discredit of republicanism abroad. But the multitude who have not reflected at all on the subject fail to connect these evils with our faulty system of administration, while those who have half reflected on it accept the false notion, cunningly fostered by small politicians, that such evils necessarily attend republican government, that they are the essential complements of its benefits, and, after all, preferable to the abuses of other kinds subsisting under monarchies. It is for the sake of going to the root of this error, not argumentatively but by historical comparison, that the author devotes so many pages of his work to the causes of bad administration in England. He shows that the spoils system was born at the opposite pole to free government. It sprang from the king's single will: offices were his creation and officers his creatures. It was cradled in feudal slavery and nursed by Plantagenets and Stuarts. It is the active expression of absolute rule, and it logically follows that it can have no fixed root, nor reason for being, among the principles of a free government.

Quite as strong is the proof, fortified by iterated instances and apt reference to statute and record, that government by parties—the machinery through which the modern representative principle works—has no necessary connection with bad administrative organization. It is weakened and debased just in proportion as it resorts to the spoils system. It gains vigor and purity, and works towards the true ends of government, just in proportion as it adopts the merit system. It would take too long to follow the author through the elaborate exposition of these truths that employs more than a fourth of his space. Succinctly stated, the result of his researches is that as party control becomes partisan the framework of modern government, theoretically blending in associated action the distinct and independent legislative, executive, and judicial functions, becomes practically dislocated and paralyzed. It is no longer a despot who absorbs and engrosses all profit and power, but it is a class that quite as absolutely sacrifices the public good to its own selfishness. The commonwealth is stolen to become the property of banded intriguers. The nation may perish, so that a handful of placemen and their patrons may thrive.

It is here that the close analogy with our own wants and dangers presents itself. Administrative reform in England found two prodigious obstacles to surmount which do not lie in its way in our own country. A powerful aristocracy, entrenched behind usage, fought with intelligence, unity, and desperation to retain place for worthless dependants. A venerated church clung to abuses honeycombing its fabric, as if corrupt appointments protected the ark instead of defiling it. But the agency both these interests used in defence was that in which lay the main strength of resistance to reform in England, as it lies in this nation—party selfishness. So far as concerns party management, the modes of continuing bad administration, the arguments for a change, and the pleas to be let alone were precisely the same in England forty-five years ago as they are with us now. Most striking and instructive, though too detailed to be more than glanced at here, is the author's elaborate account of the advance of this reform in Great Britain since party government came in. He paints the rising anger and contempt of the nation for the selfish iniquity of patronage—the light that dawned on a few far-sighted statesmen before the date of our independence—the conviction at length possessing all patriots that either the spoils system must yield or the Constitution break down and the greatness of England decline. He describes how executive action within its due limits, needing no power from Parliament, and hardly wringing from it pecuniary aid, slowly and cautiously experimented with the merit system—how it was applied at first on a small scale to parts of the service—how its range extended, its processes improved, its results over and over again received investigation by legislative commissions containing picked men of both parties, until the existing wise, just, and comprehensive system of official administration and responsibility was established in Great Britain. The author's copious data on these subjects, with his sound conclusions from them, furnish information and suggestions which will be invaluable whenever the halting advance of our own civil-service reform is resumed, as it surely will be. The change will be brought about with us by the same steps taken to bring it about in England. The fact is strongly presented that the reform there triumphed against party action, in spite of party murmurs and ridicule. Its achievement demanded assiduous labor through many years from the best men. There was no spasmodic resolution by any party; no sudden access of public virtue visited either. They all

* 'Civil Service in Great Britain. A history of abuses and reforms, and their bearing upon American politics. By Dorman B. Eaton.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1880.

went on doggedly in the old ways of selfishness till the disgrace and demoralization pressed too heavily for common English sense and honesty to bear. They found a voice, they organized a change, they backed and urged chosen men of all ranks and political faiths in unwearied enquiry and experiment, until a pure system of administration, resting on merit, drove out the miserable party tyranny that had kept itself alive by patronage.

It is a signal encouragement to the friends of civil-service reform in this country that we have our own record of a purer state of official life to turn to in contrast with its existing corruptions and inefficiency. We need but to go back to the practice of earlier days, and to regulate it by close examination of the theory of the subject. Administration as a science has never been studied among us, yet administration as a system was better in the first half-century of the Republic than it was at the same period in England. And it was so because the generation of Hamilton and Madison declared and maintained character and capacity as the qualifications for office. It is not so long since this standard was lowered at the dictate of politicians: "The present generation of Americans has seen patronage and coercion steadily increasing, whereas the present generation of Englishmen has seen them as steadily fall away." It may require the persistent struggle of another generation still to regain the old ways, but that we shall return to them may be predicted as surely as any coming event in history can be foretold. To suppose that the stain of the spoils system will not be effaced from our republicanism, is to believe that Americans are morally weak and mentally purblind as compared with their English brethren. The chapter in this volume which treats of the bearing of British experience upon civil service reform in the United States is especially manly in its spirit, and full and clear in the exposition of the subject. The merit system, it declares, can be firmly established only through public enlightenment, the general conviction that the welfare of the state demands it, and its recommendation by practice.

It is the fashion—and the fashion of the day sometimes reflects the truth of the day—to put little faith in the wisdom or virtue of Congress. This history teaches us that Parliament held to its patronage with as firm a clutch and as shameless a greed as ever a ring representative has shown. Fortunately for us, the small beginnings of reform that have been made in the New York Custom-house and Post-Office justify the promises and efforts that led to their trial. And it is fortunate, too, that our system of decentralization gives opportunities for doing a great deal without any reference to Congress. Each of our three-dozen State legislatures and our countless municipalities affords a point of attack to which argument may be addressed, and a sphere that would admit, at slight cost and with little change, the experiment of the merit system. Not a few of our cities have fallen into a depth of financial distress that cries out for some heroic relief. After a few more have been turned over to receivers or sold out by the sheriff, the rest in similar risk may bethink themselves of the cheap and simple protection of reformed administration. It is with the collection and disbursement of revenue, involving questions of taxation, that such a reform first concerns itself. Rural voters, learning thus how to guard their pockets, will naturally direct their thoughts to higher interests, and insist on applying improved systems to larger economies in a wider range of policy.

As our remedy for the evils of the present system must ultimately come through the ballot, so there are two circumstances in our late history connected with the ballot which will intensify them, unless soon cured, to a very dangerous degree. One is the extension of the suffrage to the blacks. Politicians have enormously multiplied the number of their instruments of misrule and corruption by that measure. Supposing that a free ballot truly existed at the South, of what advantage would that be to the country under the present curse of patronage? Ethiopia would soon stretch out her hands for bribes of place, as Hibernia has long been doing at the North. Another consideration that should spur the zeal of the friends of civil-service reform is the spectacle of California politics. There the sand-lot patriots have leaped to very practical conclusions. They have said to the office-holders: "You are a corrupt, self-seeking set. We have the power of the ballot. *Ôte-toi, que je m'y mette.*" Their crass notions and wild schemes are installed in the State-house and injected into the constitution, pregnant with mischief and disorder. What shall guarantee other States against the contagion of their example? What shall prevent the mass of latent communism, and what has been well styled sincere demagogy, throughout the country from being leavened by it, and effervescing up through the legal issues into power? If we rely on popular intelligence for safety, then the sooner that intelligence is enlightened and the corruptions of patronage, justly offensive to it, are swept away, the more reasonably may we hope to avert such dangers.

This volume will become a text-book among us on the science of administration. It would be well worth the pains to compile an abstract from it in the form of a manual for use in schools. Whenever this is done, or when a new edition appears, the large proportion of press errors that now disfigure it, some twenty within its 450 pages, should not be allowed to recur.

BOOKS OF HUGUENOT HISTORY.*

THE second and third of these books require only brief notice. The Life of Coligny is a bright, cleverish little volume; the fruit, not of any considerable research, but of good reading among secondary authorities. It is from a pen that has done several pieces of literary job-work now in the market, and done them well. And a picture of one of the most heroic characters in French history fairly well painted is a noble object for popular study. Of course, the author who issues such a work without referring to his authorities thereby advertises that he has nothing to say to scholars or even to critical readers. But his book is valuable for Sunday-school and other circulating libraries, among which we wish it a general acceptance.

'The Huguenots in the Nipmuck Country,' a small book, printed in a limited edition, treats interestingly and exhaustively of its tiny little episode of history, furnishing material for a chapter in Dr. Charles Baird's forthcoming history of the Huguenot migration. The introductory letter from Dr. Holmes is an exquisite specimen of its writer's faculty of doing a little thing with perfect grace and good taste.

The two solid volumes of Professor Henry Baird's 'Rise of the Huguenots of France' seem to us likely to take a classical position among American historical writings. And this is to be said quite as much to the credit of the public intelligence and good taste as to the honor of the work. A bit of literary history, which has attracted no public notice, strikingly illustrates the advance that the public has made in these respects. Forty years ago the florid and perfervid 'History of the Reformation in Germany,' by Dr. Merle d'Aubigné, was the most popular book of the day. Probably no book of its class had ever had so extensive a sale. Within a few months has been completed the English edition of the same author's 'History of the Reformation in France and Switzerland'—a work every whit as good as its predecessor, on a subject of greater epic interest—and it has been a dead failure. The Longmans were only restrained from throwing up the unpopular venture, after the first three or four volumes, out of consideration for the author's family; and we doubt not that the Carters could give a like account of the solitary American edition. A salutary change has come over the public taste: not that readers are less disposed either to history or to pulpit eloquence, but that they have learned to like them served up separately.

Therefore we expect and cordially hope a lasting success for Mr. Baird's 'Rise of the Huguenots,' because, occupying the same field and period with Dr. Merle d'Aubigné's unsuccessful work, it is utterly unlike it. Looking for a word with which to characterize Professor Baird's work, we are tempted to use *neatness*. It is not a glorious quality, but it is an immensely satisfactory one; and where it is found in such perfection, it is no merely negative one. To find the results of clean, scholar-like investigation expressed in a lucid, consecutive, and sober narrative gives a sense of positive satisfaction to the critical reader which the finest of fine writing is powerless to bestow. We can well afford to miss the high coloring of Mr. Froude's historical gallery for the sense of security and confidence which Mr. Baird constantly inspires, but which we habitually feel the lack of in reading Froude. It is needless to raise the question whether the resources of Mr. Baird's art would have sufficed him had he been less favored by his subject. Certainly there are few chapters of human history the plain recitals of which answer all the conditions of art so completely as the story that ends with St. Bartholomew's day, 1572. But if there are those who think that no art is required for the plain telling of such a story systematically and in its proper order, without running forward to anticipate or backward to bring up arrears of the narrative, they can easily find out their mistake by experiment. The neatness

* 'History of the Rise of the Huguenots of France. By Henry M. Baird, Professor in the University of the City of New York.' Two volumes 8vo. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

'Gaspard de Coligny, Admiral of France. By Walter Besant, M.A.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

'The Huguenots in the Nipmuck Country, or Oxford [Mass.], prior to 1713. By George F. Daniels. With an Introduction by Oliver Wendell Holmes.' Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

of Professor Baird's work evinces not only painstaking scholarship, but high literary skill.

In some of the more showy qualities of the historian he does not excel. Many a time the copious notes contain details of fact which, if they had been wrought into the text, would have waked the whole page to life. On page 418 of volume ii. we read in the narrative that the queen-mother, finding Charles IX. to be absent from court, "pursued him in precipitate haste." A note informs us, on contemporary authority, that in the pursuit she killed one or more horses by overdriving. It is easy to imagine with what a stroke of the pen, in a word or two, Froude or Macaulay would have sent this mad gallop rattling across the page. But opportunities like this, of bringing the very act and deed of his characters before the reader, are too often rejected by our author in favor of some mild generality. It is through this failure on points of detail, and through an overstrained sobriety of tone, quite misplaced in telling of the fiercest tragedy of modern times, that 'The Rise of the Huguenots' comes short of being a really great history.

The author's judgments on the questions of fact and motive that come before him, amply fortified as they are by authorities, are strong in their own reasonableness. The favorite Protestant view has been that the massacre was planned in cold blood and with long deliberation; that it was talked up and arranged in the lobbies of the Council of Trent; that Philip II., and Alva, and the Pope were privy to the plot; but that Catherine was the head devil by whose infernal malignity, subtility of machination, and inexorable tenacity of purpose the long-protracted and widely-ramified combinations of perfidy and murder were pushed forward to their final execution. The alleged long deliberation and extensive combination for the massacre are now clearly disproved, and never more clearly than by Mr. Baird. And as for Catherine, although the wildest zeal for historical paradox has never yet proposed to canonize her as a saint, the sober judgment of scholars completely strips her of the false prestige in which she has so long stalked the stage as a sort of satanic heroine. She stands cowering before the gaze of the world a weak, whiffling, timorous woman, whose best trait was a brute love of her offspring, and who joined to this a superstition without faith, an unbounded perfidy and cruelty, the very fruit of her cowardice, and a cool speculation in other people's lusts that makes her personal chastity to appear like an added blemish to her character. Such a revelation is a gain to the cause of public morals. It certainly is no loss to the dramatic interest of the story in which she is so conspicuous a figure. In these lucid but unimpassioned pages we find the highest elements of tragedy, as we witness this wicked and wretched creature caught in the toils of her own wickedness and dragged on to abysses of infamy which she never had foreseen.

We need hardly say that the dishonest attempts that have been made, in a sectarian interest, to relieve the pope and his court from the shame of being accessories after the fact to the enormous crime of St. Bartholomew's day, find no mercy at the hands of Professor Baird. There is one line of defence for the Roman Church, and only one: it is to affirm (as that Church does logically and consistently affirm) the rightfulness of religious persecution, and thus to justify the fierce glee with which the "strages ugonottorum" was approved at Rome and commemorated in medal and in painting.

A Ride in Egypt, from Sioot to Luxor, in 1879: with notes on the present state and ancient history of the Nile valley, and some account of the various ways of making the voyage out and home. By W. J. Loftie, B.A., F.S.A., author of 'In and Out of London,' 'A Plea for Art in the House,' etc., etc. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.)—This book gives the reader more than it promises in its title: its sketches are not the result of one ride through central and upper Egypt, but "of three visits to the Nile valley, comprising in all about fifteen months' residence"; and, in fact, also—as the contents show—of previous studies on the subject. Mr. Loftie is an enthusiastic admirer of ancient Egypt, as revealed in its monuments, but detests modern Egypt, as he found it in the reign of Ismaïl Pasha, before whose deposition the book was prepared for the press. The fall of that ruler did not induce him to alter any of the statements referring to him, although some of them were evidently penned with the intention of making him and his acts appear as black as possible—an intention attributable not only to a more or less just abhorrence of them, but to a vehement impulse to refute current views of an opposite character. Here is a sample:

"When we arrived from the upper Nile in a dahabeeah we anchored our boat near the road to the Pyramids, and remained in her for some days. Every morning when we looked out of our windows early we saw a long and melancholy procession on the bank. First came an ill-looking man in a red fez and a long white shirt, carrying a cane. Then came two or three dozen boys and girls, half-naked, footsore, weeping as they limped along, or trying to sing a kind of slow chorus, and following them another man with a cane, which he freely used to encourage the loiterers. This was a gang of day laborers. The Khedive was filling up some low-lying land with earth taken from the river's bank, and these poor little wretches had been requisitioned from the villages and suburbs to carry the soil from one side of the road to the other. They were paid a microscopic sum—at least it was paid to the taskmaster—and we may hope against hope that they ever got any of it. In the hot midday we passed by the scene of labor and saw them at work, and after sunset we heard the sad chant of the morning and saw the same processions, without the canes, going home. It was shocking to see young girls carrying huge burdens of earth, or baskets of lime for the builders, or running up and down to the Nile for water for the workers, their feet and often their bare shoulders bleeding."

And the Nile, which constantly witnessed all these Pharaonic exactions, bears on its banks no small number of "splendid but tawdry plaster-work palaces," belonging to "the Khedive's sons, or sons-in-law, or step-mothers, or cast-off concubines. The money that has been spent on them would have built the pyramids of Gheezeh, yet in any climate but Egypt they would not stand a single winter." Yet, flimsy as they are, Mr. Loftie "heard"—the authority is not given—that "a single staircase in one of them cost twenty thousand pounds, and that the Khedive took a dislike to it as soon as it was finished, and so it was pulled down and another built at a similar cost." Mr. Loftie, to judge by his racy, off-hand delineations and criticisms, seems to consider the bondage of the ancient Egyptians a comparatively pleasant condition, and the extravagance of the pyramid-building Pharaohs a comparatively mild and useful frivolity. The latter, at least, left us those stupendous monuments which carry us back in history many centuries beyond the popular date of the creation of the world, and about which the writer, after so many others, gives us accounts still fresh and curious. And then some of the subjects of the Pharaohs, at least, lived quite a merry life. "These ancient folk were keen sportsmen. . . . They shot, they hunted, they fished, they went on the Nile in pleasure boats, they tamed wild animals, and trained falcons"—though the last point is "not altogether certain."

The author's orthography in ancient Egyptian matters, of which he speaks with a laudable minuteness, is far from pleasing to eyes familiar with less popular works on the same subjects. One name he uses in a decidedly improper form: that of Cheops or Khuphu (according to a less correct way of spelling, Chufu), whom he calls Shoofoo. This form is now almost obsolete, and justly so. Brugsch, in his German 'History of Egypt,' has "Chufu," and in the French, correspondingly, "Xufu"; Poole, in the new 'Britannica' (art. "Egypt"), like Lenormant, in his 'Ancient History of the East,' "Khufu"; Maspero, "Khouwou"; Duncker, "Chufu." The latest work of note known to us which has "Shufu" is Rawlinson's 'Ancient History,' but that has also the companion name "Shafré," for which Mr. Loftie has the more correct form "Chafra" (=Xhafra).

Adaresses, Political and Educational. By Sir John Lubbock, Bart., M.P., etc. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879. 8vo, pp. 209.)—There is a curious mixture of nomenclature in Sir John Lubbock's book. It is entitled 'Addresses,' but—if we understand the meaning of the term—there is not a single address in it. The running title is 'Essays,' and two of the papers are really essays upon educational subjects, while two others are articles originally printed in the *Nineteenth Century*; still another, on Egypt, appears to be a *lecture*. The rest are *speeches*, originally delivered in Parliament, and now published with alterations. But, whatever the title, the book is a very useful one. It contains brief and perspicuous discussions of most of the leading questions of English polity, well provided with statistics, so as to form a serviceable book of reference for persons interested in English public questions. There is nothing here profound or original, possibly the views presented may be called commonplace; but they are generally sound and well argued, and enforced by a good array of well-selected facts. The essays are ten in number, all except one—the lecture upon Egypt—upon practical questions of the day. They cover a wide range: one upon Elementary and one upon Public School Education; one upon the Preservation of National Monuments; one upon the Imperial Policy of Great Britain; one upon the Declaration of Paris; the rest upon economical questions—the Bank Act of 1844, the Income Tax, the National Debt, and Marine Insurances.

The essays upon Education present views familiar enough, and in

fact generally accepted in this country, being designed mainly to urge the claims of the natural sciences as against the almost exclusive attention given to the classics. They give, however, a good deal of information upon the English system of education, and that upon the Public Schools contains some interesting and valuable extracts upon the method of teaching the natural sciences. The essay upon the Imperial Policy is in the main a defence of that policy, aiming to show that Great Britain has been at once generous and fair towards the subject peoples. The essay upon the National Monuments is an earnest plea for legislation which shall preserve the prehistoric remains of Great Britain from destruction. Many surprising facts are given to show the indifference of the people of Great Britain in this matter, many monuments of great antiquity and interest having already entirely disappeared. The lecture upon Egypt is a good summary of what is known about that country. It undertakes to cover too much ground, and from this cause is rather rambling and superficial; we could very well have spared, for example, the sketch of the history of Ancient Egypt, which has no special merit or interest. On the other hand, the statement of what has been learned from the monuments is good and might advantageously have been expanded.

In regard to the more specifically political papers, the author defends the Bank Law of 1844; recommends legislation for reducing the National Debt and for regulating marine insurance; and urges that England should extend the principles of the Declaration of Paris, by exempting private property from liability to capture at sea—maintaining that England, as a commercial nation, is peculiarly interested in this reform. As to the Income Tax, he discusses the various propositions that have been made to modify it, and shows that no modification proposed would remedy all inequalities in its operation, pointing out at the same time that these inequalities are largely balanced by the fact that other taxes fall heaviest upon wholly different classes from those which are most burdened by the income tax.

The following passage, from the essay upon Elementary Education (p. 83), presents very forcibly the objections to the usual method of teaching history to children:

> "The air of unreality which pervades our whole system is one of its greatest drawbacks. So far from preparing the children for the great battle of life, our schools seem calculated to carry them into another, a dimmer and a duller world; not, indeed, a fairy-land by any means, but one crowded by difficult abstractions and vague shadows, where the mind is wearied by dates and tables, the conscience seared by crime none the less objectionable because gilded by rank, and where the imagination has no more energetic stimulant than the dates of rulers who are mere names, and the names of distant countries, to them almost as shadowy as clouds."

Geschichte Frankreichs. Von Karl Hillebrand. Band II. Die Blüthezeit der parlamentarischen Monarchie (1837–1848). ['History of France from the accession of Louis Philippe to the downfall of Napoleon III.', in Heeren, Ukert, and Giesebrecht's 'History of the States of Europe.'] (Gotha: F. A. Perthes; New York: L. W. Schmidt. 1879.)—The dates upon the title-page pertain really to the second part of this second book of Hillebrand's history of France during the past half-century. The first five chapters, just one-third of the nearly eight hundred pages, cover the whole period of the July monarchy, in reviewing respectively the state of society under it, the literary movement, the religious movement, socialism and politico-economical doctrine, economic progress and legislation. The author's grasp and learning were never better displayed than in these intensely interesting surveys of one of the most brilliant epochs of modern times; nor is the sympathy with which his temperament and experience always cause him to treat French topics, characters, and events less conspicuous here. In the remaining five chapters we have a very comprehensive account of the successive steps leading to the Revolution of Feb. 24, 1848—the long struggle to bring Louis Philippe within Thiers's definition: "The king reigns but does not govern," otherwise known as the substitution of a parliamentary ministry for one dependent upon the crown; the overthrow of the Soult ministry, the short but pregnant "dictatorship" of Thiers; the Convention of the four Powers against Mehemet Ali, July 15; the coalition put in force against the angry menaces of France; the popular war-feeling against Germany and the revival of the spirit of 1813 in the owners of "der freie, deutsche Rhein"; the Napoleonic fiasco at Boulogne; the return of Bonaparte's remains to France and interment in the Invalides; the beginning of the fortifications of Paris; the warlike purpose of the "man of journalism," aiming a blow at Austria in Italy; the address from the throne corrected in a peaceful sense by the king himself, and the consequent resignation of Thiers and end of the parliamentary ministry; then the less striking and picturesque interval of agitation and discontent that closed with the downfall of the Guizot ministry, the rout of royalty, and the declaration of the Republic on Feb. 24, 1848.

In this retrospect, besides the author's thorough familiarity with his subject and his constant fairness, stand out his contempt for Louis Philippe and his admiration for Thiers, with whose relegation, indeed, to the ranks of the Opposition the dramatic interest of the narrative (the Boulogne episode apart) may be said to cease. Under his brief administration the country strove for a moment to reassert its traditional European hegemony, and in the true Napoleonic vein he could, in seeking to force an unwilling alliance, speak of Italy as a mere army road in the calculated collision between France and Austria. The chapter which relates his failure to play any but a mortifying part—that of a bystander afraid to enter into the mêlée—in the famous settlement of the Eastern question of 1840, is perhaps the most instructive in the book. Not only does it reveal the weakness of the French genius, whose love of glory made it an easy prey to illusions concerning the real strength of Egypt (complete freedom from which was the key to Palmerston's boldness), but it throws a flood of light on the motives which to this day govern the policy of England towards Turkey and the East.

This work is emphatically one which in its entirety deserves translation into English as speedily as possible. It seems paradoxical that a German alone should be capable of writing such a history of France; but no one, we think, capable of reading it in the original will fail to see how rare is the conjunction of talent and circumstances favorable to observation and study which Karl Hillebrand illustrates on every page.

L'Enfance à Paris. (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern. 1879. 8vo.)—Le Vicomte d'Haussonville, whose father is known to students of French history by his 'L'Église romaine et le premier empire,' and who is himself known to students of sociology by his 'Établissements pénitentiaires en France et aux colonies,' treats in this very interesting work, not of the children of the well-to-do, but of the poor, the sick, the criminals, and of those who are as it were in training to become the mothers of future criminals—the children who are to be found at the Enfants Assistés, and the Enfants Malades, at La Salpêtrière, at Sainte-Pélagie and Saint-Lazare. M. d'Haussonville has been indefatigable in his enquiries; he has visited the establishments of charity for the sick, the blind, the idiots, the orphans, or the abandoned, and has questioned the inmates and the nurses; he has frequented the police courts and prisons, the cheap lodgings ("cheap and nasty" even more than in London), and the public balls. One of his most interesting chapters is on "Les bas fonds," an account of nocturnal visits to several of the sixty or more eating, or rather drinking, houses where the thieves of Paris have their rendezvous—visits that remind one of the volume of Henry Mayhew's 'The Poor of London,' which treats of those "who will not work." In all these places there is no lack of children. Complaints are made in France that the population increases so slowly in comparison with other countries. The cause of the deficit must be among the better classes. Among the Parisian poor, as with us, children swarm. The poorer the quarter the more numerous they are. Every year fourteen or fifteen thousand illegitimate infants are born. When the surroundings of an illegitimate child are considered, the lack of care, and the kind of education he or she is likely to get, the Commune becomes intelligible. The only wonder is that all the means of repression, correction, and reformation that the author describes, taken together, should be able to make any impression upon the mass of vagabondage.

His account of the efforts of the French to deal with the problem is on the whole hopeful. There are, he shows, defects of legislation to be supplied and some mistaken practices to be abolished; but one gets the impression from his book of great care and considerable good judgment on the part of the police, and boundless devotion on the part of the various sisterhoods. The chief reforms for which he calls are: the more effectual supervision of the cheap lodgings—the "Commission des Logements Insalubres" having even smaller powers than our Boards of Health; the extension of the cellular system to all the prisons; and the entire separation of young and first offenders from old and hardened criminals. This separation, which common sense, it would seem, would dictate to any one at first thought, is strangely neglected in the Parisian police arrangements. Want of room is in two cases the cause: in the Central Police Depot utility having been sacrificed to architectural effect, and the prison of Saint-Lazare being an old monastery, entirely unfit for its present

purpose. M. d'Haussonville is opposed to the restitution of the "tours," turning-boxes at the foundling-hospitals, in which parents could formerly leave their children unseen by the attendants—an institution frequently commented upon unfavorably by English travellers, who believed that it was a direct encouragement to immorality. Certain it is that while the "tours" were in operation the number of children abandoned went on increasing, till in 1833 the number in the hospitals, in spite of an excessive mortality, reached 131,000. The "tours" then began to be given up, and the last were abolished in 1860; but there are still those who urge their re-establishment as safeguards against infanticide and abortion. For us the question is not without interest, for although public opinion at present would not sanction such encouragement for the desertion of offspring, American opinion on moral subjects is mutable, and a decade hence the arguments which M. d'Haussonville opposes may be found plausible.

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The Nation.

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The Week.

THE President has at last filled up the vacant foreign missions. Mr. James Russell Lowell has been nominated for London, a post for which he will, we imagine, willingly exchange his present one, and would do so even if it were not positive promotion both in pay and in other ways. The field of choice for the English mission has been much restricted by the difficulty of finding any one to take it who, besides possessing the necessary intellectual and social qualifications, was rich enough to bear the expense of living in the style which tradition has attached to the place. The President has solved the problem in the best possible manner by giving it to a man who will illustrate the position without being rich, and will therefore not be called on for lavish expenditure. Mr. Foster, the present Minister to Mexico, goes to Russia; Mr. Fairchild, of Wisconsin, to Spain, in Mr. Lowell's place. Mr. Philip H. Morgan, of Louisiana, who is now said to be practising law in Egypt, goes to Mexico. The delay in filling these vacancies has brought out the fact that an Administration which is at all desirous of filling diplomatic positions carefully, finds increasing difficulty in doing so. The use made of many of these offices of late years has made them much less of a distinction than they used to be, and Americans of the right kind feel more keenly than they used to feel the dulness of life in a foreign capital, without a knowledge of the language or more than official access to its best society, and without recognition by the diplomatic corps as professional brethren. In fact, considering the changes the telegraph has wrought in the mode of conducting negotiations with foreign powers, and the impossibility of making diplomacy a regular calling, it is a question whether the work of all the existing missions would not be best done by a single Minister, having his headquarters in Paris, free to travel about, and with consuls-general under him in the various capitals.

The Maine Republicans have organized a legislature, composed of the majority of the members really chosen last fall, elected Mr. Davis Governor, and submitted their action and all possible questions—twenty-seven in all—which could arise out of the present or similar complications to the decision of the State Supreme Court. The Fusionists meanwhile elected Joseph L. Smith, the recent Greenback candidate, Governor, and both he and Davis delivered inaugural addresses. Smith's has by this time become curious reading, particularly the note of thankfulness to Providence with which it opened. The Supreme Court returned eminently satisfactory answers to the Republican questions. General Chamberlain, who has been a kind of dictator throughout the trouble, and is, of course, now mentioned as a candidate for the Vice-Presidency, recognized Mr. Davis, as did also the State officials generally, so that the Fusionists have been compelled finally to hold their sessions upon the sidewalks and date their orders "State of Maine, House of Representatives, as near as possible." "Governor" Smith is reported to be anxious to withdraw "as gracefully as possible," and the Fusionists may possibly gradually subside. They have, however, taken the seal of the State, bagged the election returns, and talk with their accustomed effrontery; indeed, their opponents are in great fear that they will persist in keeping up their organization, and will send to the Democratic Congress next year a Democratic list of Presidential electors for Maine.

The practice of "fixing" legislatures, of which the attempt of the Fusionists of Maine is a feeble example, was, it must be remembered, begun in Louisiana in 1873. There were then two factions of the Republicans contending for the mastery, one supported by the custom-house and the collector, Casey, President Grant's brother-in-law, and there was a dispute, as in Maine, over the returns as canvassed by two rival canvassing boards, and two legislatures were in consequence set up—one the Pinchback and the other the Warmoth legislature. The Pinchback party thereupon filed a bill under the Force Act in the United States District Court, and got an order from Durell, the judge, at midnight, directing the United States marshal to seize and hold the State-house, and admit no one to seats whom he (the marshal) did not think entitled to them. The marshal took United States troops accordingly, seized the State-house, and admitted no one but members of the Pinchback faction, and the legislature thus organized was promptly recognized by telegraph from Washington by President Grant in person. Previously to this, Warmoth's Senate had been prevented from forming a quorum by Casey's lending the United States revenue-cutter to carry off a number of the senators out of reach of the sergeant-at-arms. They were kept on board several days, but Casey was not dismissed for his conduct.

In 1875 there was another dispute over the returns for the legislature, and Kellogg, the Republican governor, like Garcelon, did not like the body which claimed the seats, and was not willing to concede to them the parliamentary power of passing on their own qualifications. So he determined to organize the Legislature himself with United States troops, which were promptly furnished him for that purpose. General de Trobriand went into the House, read a letter from Kellogg telling the House it was an illegal body, and expelled from the Chamber such persons as were pointed out by General Campbell, Kellogg's general of militia. General de Trobriand then had the roll called, and seated such persons as he thought proper with the aid of a file of soldiers. These things are worth recalling, as having much to do with the growth and spread of the disposition to get hold of the government in any way you can, no matter how your opponents feel about it, of which the Maine affair is a striking exemplification. People thought in 1873 and 1875 that the contagion of Southern lawlessness and contempt for the forms of law would not reach the North; but this is a contagion which no quarantine can stop. After what has happened in Maine, would it not be well for everybody to examine himself and cast out whatever political unscrupulousness he finds in his composition, let the other party be ever so wicked and base? The secret of "Mexicanism" is the enormous wickedness of the other party.

A bill has been introduced into the New York Assembly, and a similar one is promised in the New Jersey Legislature, providing for the appointment of Presidential electors by Congressional districts, save the usual two from the State at large. The newspapers have been at some pains to discover the drift of public sentiment in regard to the matter, and it appears that Republicans generally are in favor of, and Democrats opposed to, the proposed change, which was to have been expected. The arguments offered by the former are that the election next November would be far less exciting; that New York would cease to be the "pivotal" State, a position which it has no business to occupy any way; and that every possible means of forestalling such Democratic action as the proceedings of the Fusionists in Maine have shown is to be confidently anticipated, ought to be improved. Mr. George Bliss, for example, "thought it simply a matter of consideration whether it is necessary to protect the Republican party from unfair legislation by the Democratic legislatures in other States." The Democrats, on the other hand, of course, take the lofty ground that no legislature that was not specially elected to make such a change has any right to violate traditions so peremptorily and for such evidently interested reasons, and they rely largely upon the "conservatism of the country."

The proposition has, nevertheless, been received with coldness, singularly enough, by the friends of Mr. Conkling, by whom it is deemed a shrewd but flimsy device to belittle the entire stock in trade of the Favorite Son of the "pivotal State." It is said that he himself is, of course, out of the Presidential race, and is only to be considered for the reason that he is supposed to carry "the great State of New York" in his pocket, and to be inclined to place its electoral votes at the disposal of his former chief. But the signs of the times all point to a rapid decline of the Grant movement. In three States, all more or less "pivotal" (namely, Indiana, Ohio, and Pennsylvania), a renewed newspaper effort has just been made to "feel the popular pulse" on the Presidential question, with disastrous results for the "boom"; Sherman and Blaine appear to be large favorites over Grant. Consequently the friends of Senator Conkling are beginning to ask themselves whether it is not worth while to proclaim him openly as a principal, instead of tacitly regarding him as a second. The main difficulty in the way of this is the ridiculousness of his candidacy; but it is quite clear that this is not sufficiently apparent to him and his friends to prevent them from thinking him—provided the third-term notion finally collapses—a greatly abused and curiously unappreciated public leader.

The Senate Committee on Finance have reported adversely on Mr. Bayard's bill for withdrawing the legal-tender quality from the greenbacks, to which only himself and Mr. Kernan subscribe unconditionally; Mr. Wallace desiring to amend it and Mr. Morrill being opposed to its taking effect immediately without an interval of preparation. The interest which the Senate takes in financial matters generally was shown on the same day when Mr. Morrill attempted to discuss the possible rate of interest for refunding and was very uncivilly treated by his colleagues, who paid no attention to him. Mr. Hoar has again brought up the question of the final distribution of the Geneva Award, and has threatened to take it out of the hands of the Committee on the Judiciary if they delay much longer. The Sixteenth Amendment, which seems predestined to relate to woman's suffrage, has been introduced by Mr. Ferry, of Michigan. In the House, the Committee on Banking and Currency has reported with amendments Mr. Price's bill compelling banks to keep one-half of their reserve in gold and silver.

On Monday Mr. Kelley got a large vote on a motion to suspend the rules and pass a resolution declaring that the negotiation, by the Executive and Senate, of a commercial treaty fixing the rates of duties on imported articles would be "an infraction of the Constitution, and an invasion of one of the highest prerogatives of the House of Representatives." Mr. Kelley relies on §7 of Art. I. of the Constitution, which says that "all *bills* for raising revenue shall originate in the House." Mr. Morrill, of Vermont, took the same ground in the Senate in regard to the Sandwich Islands Treaty, which nevertheless was ratified by 51 to 12 five years ago (March 18, 1875). But we consider a less doubtful objection to be that one house should not forestall or misrepresent public opinion on a question on which parties have divided and may divide again with great intensity, and which regularly should be settled by modifications of the tariff agreed to by both houses, after due and public deliberation. The latter method, too, has educational advantages which ought not to be lightly abandoned.

The Voorhees Committee for investigating the causes of the negro exodus from the South began taking testimony on Monday. The first persons examined were a Congregational minister in Washington and Assistant Postmaster Tullock, who stated that they had agreed to serve as the Board of Audit of a certain Emigrant Aid Society, whose circular begging for assistance in helping the freedmen find refuge from persecution is being widely distributed and bears their names; but they denied any personal knowledge of the causes of the emigration, or of the circular. This seems a little singular, and shows the uses to which a board of audit can be put, but it also unpleasantly recalls the liberties taken with the names of prominent Republicans by the originators of the Freedmen's Savings-Bank. A colored clerk in the Treasury Department appeared as a member of the Society in question, who had had many conversations with the North Carolina emigrants on their way to Indiana. The chief reason for their removal, he discovered, was simply that they did not get enough money for their work in the former State. An Indiana judge testified that there was no room for the new-comers in Vigo County, and that they were ill received because "the general impression is that they are brought there only to vote." Meantime, the movement does not lack for opposition in North Carolina itself and among the colored people. In the Christmas issue of the Raleigh *Journal of Industry* there is a warm editorial protest against it, on the ground of the general well-being of the blacks in the State, and their wonderful progress in all respects since the war; and the paper contends that "those who are leaving the 'Old North State' are principally the more shiftless or worthless class of our population." The Chicago papers are printing charitable appeals from Kansas on behalf of the refugees there, who are represented as suffering greatly for want of clothes and shelter.

The appointment of the Superintendent of Public Works in this State, a very important office, was lodged in the Governor's hands by the recent Constitutional Amendment for the express purpose of taking it out of politics. It has become Governor Cornell's duty to fill the place for a new term, and he has promptly appointed Mr. Silas B. Dutcher, the well-known custom-house appraiser. Mr. Dutcher has had no experience at all in connection with "public works," but he is a "worker" of undoubted activity and ability. He knows all about "fixing" and "controlling primaries," and on such subjects as the "Solid South," the "Brigadiers," and "rebel claims," and the criminal jurisprudence of South Carolina and Mississippi, he is sound as a bell. He excited some attention as a stump speaker in the late canvass by his having been permitted by Secretary Sherman, in direct violation of the civil-service rules, to leave his post in the Custom-house in order to thunder through the State on the above-named topics. His appointment is very properly taken as an indication that Mr. Cornell means to work the Machine vigorously during the coming year—and of this no one who voted for him can reasonably complain. But it ought to be observed that the jobbery and corruption in the public works will probably be fully as great as under the old régime. He is now being solemnly warned not to reappoint Smyth, the wicked Conklingite Superintendent of Insurance, but there is no efficient reason for his heeding these warnings. No man in the State is more opposed to murders in Mississippi and Louisiana than Smyth.

The return flow of currency towards New York has at last begun in considerable volume, and the banks are each week increasing their reserves. During the week one of the large national banks of this city—the Metropolitan—gave up its note circulation of $2,200,000, principally in order to be able to turn into cash a profit of $90,000 which existed on the 4 per cent. bonds pledged to secure these notes, the bonds being exceptionally high and the season of the year being one in which the profits of bank-note circulation are small. The returning ease of the money market has caused speculation to blossom anew, and the Stock Exchange has been the scene of several extraordinary speculations. One of these involved the stocks of two railroads, the Louisville and Nashville and the Nashville and Chattanooga. After months of rivalry between the respective managers the former stole a march on the latter by secretly buying enough of its stock to get control. This was announced with a great flourish as one of the most important railroad combinations on record, and besides as one of the "neatest pieces of financing" known, and the Louisville and Nashville stock jumped from 89½ to 121, but fell back to 110. The stock of the Nashville and Chattanooga, which was the vanquished contestant, advanced from 89½ to 95¾, but afterwards receded to 80. The other speculation was in the stocks of the Union Pacific and the Kansas Pacific railroads. These

were advanced, on the proposed consolidation of them, the former from 89 to 97½, and the latter from 95 to 107; the one fell back to 93½ and the other to 94. There were other minor movements of the same sort. Investments of all kinds were strong; and the New York Central Syndicate offered to the public here and in Europe the 250,000 of the stock recently bought from Mr. W. H. Vanderbilt. Bids were invited for it for three days, and will be opened at the close of business to-day. Accompanying the invitation for bids was a statement which shows that the road is now earning at the rate of more than 14 per cent. per annum. Silver in London advanced to 52½*d.* per oz.; and the bullion value here of the 412½-grain silver dollar advanced to $0.8817.

Sir Henry Layard's first attempt to discipline the Turks has not been very successful. Dr. Köller, a German missionary, employed a Turkish priest, named Ahmed Tewfik, to translate some religious compositions in manuscript into Turkish. The police got wind of the matter and arrested Ahmed Tewfik, and confiscated the religious composition, and condemned the translator to death. The British Minister remonstrated, and, no attention being paid to him, sent in an ultimatum demanding the restoration of the manuscript and Ahmed Tewfik's release, and the dismissal of Hafiz Pasha, the Minister of Police, a miscreant who had figured prominently in the Bulgarian massacres, and whose punishment had, therefore, been demanded by Lord Derby. Pending the Porte's answer, Sir Henry suspended diplomatic relations and telegraphed home for instructions. The Porte then answered that Dr. Köller was a German subject; that his manuscript would be restored; that Ahmed Tewfik would not be executed, but exiled to a Christian island, and that Hafiz Pasha would not be dismissed, as it was the Sultan himself who had ordered the arrest.

This the English Liberals regard as a snub for Sir Henry, while the Tories say that the Sultan was put up to the arrest by the wicked and cunning Russians, who wished to embroil him with his Western friends. But the real interest of the incident lies in the impudent reliance of the Porte on its weakness. It knows that no Power but Russia dares to exert any real pressure on it. It shows, moreover, that, in spite of the Tanzimat and the Hatti Hamayon, the religious toleration which exists in Turkey is no greater than it ever was, in the eyes of the authorities. Non-Mussulmans were always allowed freedom of worship and freedom of proselytizing among each other; but to convert a Mussulman or to leave the Mussulman Church is not permitted now any more than ever. On this point the law is positive. The case of an ulema translating or spreading infidel documents is not provided for in terms, but any Mussulman who blasphemes God, or his attributes, or the Koran, or denies the divine mission of Moses or Christ, incurs the penalty of instant death. So does any one who attacks the Mussulman faith, or the obligation of its rites and ceremonies, or derides its sacred things.

The distress in Ireland seems to grow, and so does the turbulence. There is in many districts open and concerted resistance to the service of processes looking to eviction, and in one case it went to the point of a conflict with the police, who charged with the bayonet and wounded several persons. The best statement of what can be done, and ought to be done, for Irish discontent by legislation, which has yet appeared from an authoritative source, is a paper by Dr. Neilson Hancock, the well-known statistician of Dublin, in the last number of the *Fortnightly Review*. He gives the highest praise to Mr. Gladstone's legislation during the years 1869, 1870, and declares that his Irish Church Act and Irish Land Act of these years gave everything to Ireland which she would have gained if the Treaty of Limerick had not been broken, and Pitt had been allowed by George III. to carry out the pledges made at the time of the Union. Unhappily, the beneficent policy thus entered upon was dropped by the Beaconsfield Ministry for the more attractive work of extending the empire abroad. The things Dr. Hancock now asks for as sufficient are, the complete assimilation of the Irish electoral franchise to that of England and Scotland; the introduction of cumulative voting into the election of local boards; the election of county governments by the taxpayers; an increase in the discretionary powers of these boards; the assimilation of the Irish to the English and Scotch poor-laws by the out-door relief of the able-bodied. This class can now only obtain relief in Ireland by entering the workhouse, which they abhor, and sooner than do it they resort in times of distress to crime, as they undoubtedly would in Scotland and England also. Finally, Dr. Hancock asks for the legalization all over the island of the Ulster tenant-right custom, which gives an outgoing tenant the right to sell the good-will of his farm, and an increase in the legal facilities for the purchase by tenants of the fee of their holdings on estates sold by the Encumbered Estates Court. The article ought to be read carefully by Mr. Beecher, and such sons of thunder all over the country as are declaiming on the Irish land question. Mr. Parnell himself could hardly do better than read it aloud to his audiences.

Germany has at last recognized the independence of Rumania, a step which it appears was delayed, in spite of the emancipation of the Jews of the Principality, by a dispute between a Jewish syndicate in Berlin, whose cause Prince Bismarck espoused, and the Rumanian Government over a railroad concession. This incident derives additional interest from the fact that a terrible press war is raging in Germany between the Jews and the Christians, and that Bismarck has got over the intolerance which made him declare in 1847 that he would concede them all rights but one, that of filling administrative offices in a Christian state. The Crown Prince has also recently taken occasion to appear at a charitable meeting in a synagogue to testify his sympathy with the Jews under the tempest of hostility which is now beating on them. The well-known publicist, Treitschke, has attacked them, and to him Dr. Paulus Cassell has replied in the *Preussische Jahrbücher*. Eleven anti-Jew pamphlets have appeared in the same controversy, some of which have run to ten or twelve editions, with such titles as the "Victory of Judaism over Germanism"; "News from the Theatre of the Jewish War"; "The Jewish Question from the Point of View of German Commerce and Industry"; "Down with the Jews"; "The New Palestine, or Germany Judaized." The Jews and their friends have been equally prolific in reply, and the conflict wages fiercer every day. The anti-Jews say that the great enemy of the German nation works neither with plough, nor trowel, nor hammer, nor pickaxe, nor spade; that he escapes military service by being flat-footed, bow-legged, humpbacked, and weak-backed; that he monopolizes commerce and controls the money market; that he is pushing, restless, intrusive, gets all the best places for himself, and lives in the country as if it were a tavern. To which the Jews reply, that for ages they were shut out from all employments but that of money-changer or trader; that their physical defects are the result of the wretched existence long led by the race under Christian oppression; that they make no money by any means not open to everybody, and that they use it for as noble purposes as the Christians; that they are as public-spirited and patriotic; that the race has given Germany Mendelssohn, Meyerbeer, and Heine, and the world Spinoza, Moses, and Jesus Christ.

Treitschke treats the Jewish question as most momentous, and says that Germany is being overrun by northern Jews, who are eating up the country in all fields of activity, besides seizing on the periodical press; that it is all very well for Englishmen and Frenchmen to laugh over the German excitement, but there are in Italy only 40,000 Jews, in England only 45,000, in France only 45,000, while Germany has 600,000, and the cry is still they come. He declares "that the anti-Semitic movement is powerful and deep in all the most enlightened and cultivated circles, and amongst those who are furthest removed from all idea of religious intolerance or national pride. There is only one opinion on the matter—'the Jews are our curse.'"

THE RAILROADS AND THE TARIFF.

THE *rationale* of the existing protective tariff is that while public opinion has not been greatly moved one way or the other, either to raise or lower the scale of duties on imports, or to maintain them at any particular level, certain important and powerful interests deriving profits from the restrictions imposed upon foreign trade have been well organized and constantly on the alert at Washington to prevent any meddling with this source of their gains. Hitherto there has been no united effort or set purpose on the part of any particular class or interest in opposition to any particular branch of the protective system. The overthrow of the duties on quinine last summer was due mainly to the ravages of yellow fever in the South; and the sudden and sweeping success of the measure shows that whenever public opinion is considerably aroused respecting the duties levied by way of protection upon articles of general use and necessity, the protected classes are powerless to resist it. In the absence of any such manifestation of public opinion, or of any opposing interest, the existing duties, however unreasonable or comical—for some of them seem to have been inserted into the law only to excite laughter—bid fair to remain undisturbed, in obedience to the law of statics, for an indefinite period of time.

There are signs, however, of movements, both general and special, directed against particular features of the protective system. A motion in the House of Representatives last week to abolish the duties on salt resulted in a tie vote, which is something surprising seeing that it was brought before the House on the responsibility of a single member without the previous consideration of a committee. The yellow-metal manufacturers of the United States have sent a memorial to the Committee on Commerce praying a repeal of the duties on copper (the chief raw material of their industry), or, as an alternative, a reimposition of the duties on sheathing-metal for ships' bottoms, which ship-builders are enabled by the act of 1872 to withdraw from bond without the payment of duty. They allege that Lake Superior copper has been exported to foreign markets during the past year at about 13 cents per pound, and has at no time been sold for consumption at home for less than 15½ cents, while at the date of the memorial the price was 21 to 22 cents per pound, or about the price at which the same copper could have been brought back from England with the duty added. They allege further that the manufacture of yellow metal was begun in this country thirty-five years ago without the aid of protection, that it succeeded so well on the basis of free-trade that it drove the British article first out of our own markets and eventually out of those of South America and China, but that under the operation of the copper tariff and the act of 1872 English sheathing-metal has returned and driven our manufacturers out of the home market. Perhaps nothing could illustrate the cut-throat principles of the existing tariff more forcibly than this example.

A case of much greater magnitude and interest, however, has been brought before the Committee of Ways and Means by a number of railroad companies which are laying or relaying their tracks with steel rails. In the "memorandum" which they have presented to Congress they show that the duty on steel rails ($28 per ton) was at a recent date equal to 120 per cent. *ad valorem*, while the cost of ocean transportation, which operates equally with the duty as protection to the manufacturer in this country, brought the virtual rate of protection up to 131 per cent. This is more than double and nearly treble the rate of duty imposed upon manufactures of steel generally, which is fixed in the tariff at 45 per cent. *ad valorem*, which was also the rate on steel rails prior to 1871.

The "confidential" petition of the steel-rail makers to Congress in 1870, praying an increase of the then existing duty (45 per cent.), is appended to the present memorandum. This is an important, but by no means novel, document. It is signed by six persons, representing as many corporations then engaged in the manufacture of steel rails, and it sets forth that, as their branch of industry "is new and in its earliest stages, it should just now receive exceptional protection"; that the capacity of the existing works is equal to the present demand; that steel rails are used only by railways in the Eastern and Middle States, and, hence, that the Western and Southern States are not interested to resist an increase of the duty; that by the time the Western and Southern roads require steel rails "home competition will have secured to them the best domestic rail at a price lower than the foreign rail can be obtained," etc. The prayer of the petitioners was for a duty of two cents per pound, or $44 80 per ton. They had, perhaps, learned by experience in former cases that the Committee of Ways and Means were in the habit at that time of cutting down the demands of applicants about 33 per cent., and accordingly raised their own figure to meet the anticipated paring. At all events, they secured a duty of 1¾ cent per pound, or $28 per ton. The capacity of the six companies was stated to be 100,000 tons per annum. It proved to be somewhat larger than this; but so far was it from supplying the demand that in the three following years more than 400,000 tons of steel rails were imported from abroad, paying the increased duty, and imposing a corresponding charge upon the transportation of freight and passengers.

Nearly ten years have passed since this extravagant tax was placed upon one of the most important instruments of civilization; and the railway companies, pressed upon all sides by demands for lower rates in their scale of charges, have begun to ask whether the phrase "just now," with which the steel manufacturers prefaced their petition to Congress in 1870 for exceptional protection, is bounded by time or only by eternity. It is known that in the progress of mankind there was a stone age, followed by a bronze age, succeeded by an iron age, and it is enquired whether the steel age of 100 per cent. duties is to last as long as the others. The railway companies are greatly to blame for allowing this tax to be imposed upon the chief raw material of their business, seeing that it was not imposed for public revenue but the contrary. They could have prevented it if they had chosen to do so. Some of them aided in securing the passage of the bill; others believed that they could collect the tax off their customers *in perpetuo*, while the great majority, using only iron rails, were indifferent as to steel. The public gave as little heed to the matter as they did to the bill, which passed about the same time, expunging the silver dollar from the coinage.

So great a change has come over the steel industry since then by the cheapening of processes, labor, and materials, both here and abroad, that the cost of steel rails is now but a trifle above that of iron. Steel rails sold in this country in 1869 at $132 per ton, in 1879 at $42 50; while in England they declined in the same period from $55 to $22. A duty of 1¾ cents per pound when the price abroad is $55 is equal to 50 per cent., but when the price falls to $22 it is equal to 122 per cent. The gradual equalization of price between iron and steel has, of course, greatly multiplied the use of the latter, so that the demand in the United States has again outrun the domestic supply, and the importation is now going on from both England and Germany at a rapid rate in spite of the duty. A writer in the *Herald* (Mr. J. A. Roberts) estimates that the demand in this country, for work already laid out, exceeds by 1,000,000 tons the capacity of the American mills to supply. So great a demand has, of course, raised the price abroad as well as at home. The demand may possibly be equal to, or in excess of, the world's present power of supply, in which case the total abolition of the tariff would not immediately lower the price, and hence would not lessen the profits of the American manufacturer. But the supply would eventually overtake the demand, and the price of rails would fall to the cost of production plus the average rate of profit in manufacturing industry generally. The promise of the steel-rail makers that "by the time the Western and Southern roads require large quantities of steel, home competition will have secured to them the best domestic rail at a price lower than the foreign rail can be obtained," has not been realized. The Western and Southern roads require large quantities of steel now, and are actually importing it

from abroad, but the price of the domestic rail remains (as was intended) $28 per ton above the foreign.

The petition of the railway companies is for a reduction of the duty to $10 per ton. This is a higher tax than there is any present or prospective need of, but a lower one can hardly be expected now. The question of the success or failure of the movement in Congress depends very much upon the earnestness and unanimity of the railway companies themselves. When in 1870 they allowed the increase of duty to be imposed, times were good, freight was pressing upon the means of transportation, railway profits were uniformly large, Granger legislation had not begun to torment them, and the "railway problem" had not agitated the public mind to any great extent. There was every reason to suppose that the railways would be able, in the future as in the past, to charge over upon the public every item of cost that entered into their own expenditures. But the times have changed and ideas have changed also. Great havoc has taken place in railway property from one cause and another, and competition has reduced the cost of transportation generally to a very narrow margin of profit to the carriers—probably not above four per cent. average on the capital actually employed—the "memorandum" says only two per cent., taking the whole country together. Times are improving now for railways as well as for other trades, but there is evidence tending to show that the law of competition will not hereafter regulate the rates of railway transportation exclusively, except where it regulates them downward. A strong public opinion has to be taken account of henceforward, so that even in good times railway companies cannot confidently rely upon getting back from their customers every sort of expense that may be imposed upon them by excessive duties and taxes or by their own improvidence. On the other hand, the public must recognize the fact that the actual cost of railway transportation has to be paid for, at all events, by the goods and passengers transported, whether railway shareholders get much or little, and that the chief item of cost is in the rails that support the traffic. Consequently, they have an interest in the pending question at least equal to that which they take in the regulation of railways by State laws and State commissions. The steel-rail makers will probably exhibit a new lot of public advantages to result from maintaining the present rate of duty, but the failure of their former predictions, both as to their ability to supply the home demand and to supply it at as low a rate as the foreign article, ought to disqualify them as witnesses.

THE GERMAN CHANCELLORSHIP.

THE statements of the telegraph about Bismarck's condition are vague and contradictory, but they leave little doubt that the Prince is really in a serious condition, and that the worst result is unhappily not beyond the range of the possible. Even though he survive the present attack, it seems not impossible that he may practically relinquish his duties and retire from affairs. The question of the succession becomes, therefore, what the French call an actual one, and the public mind of Berlin, which has so long, so recklessly, and one might add so systematically neglected to prepare for the inevitable vacancy in the first office of the Empire, is now meditating uneasily on its near approach.

That this will prove to be a costly improvidence seems to be already apparent to the Prince himself, if the anxiety which he is said to have lately expressed was the product of a sound mind rather than of an unsound body. But the discovery comes, in any case, too late to vindicate his reputation for prescience, except, indeed, at the cost of his reputation for prudence. He is himself the worst offender; he himself has taught Germany to be indifferent about the future. If his countrymen, awed by the spectacle of his own greatness, seemed reluctant or unable to place him within those stern rules of mortality from which no statesman is exempt, it was his duty to correct their error by a wise provision for the last emergency. When they seemed dazzled by the splendor of his achievements he ought to have been training up pupils who should preserve those achievements after his departure. This he has neglected or refused to do, but rather throughout his career—alike in constructive statesmanship, in regular legislation, and in his relations with men or parties—has made his policy so strictly a personal one that no system permanently available and no successor at all competent has been created. In private he used sometimes to deplore the absence of two compact rival parties and of rival sets of efficient statesmen, both of which he found in England. For this equilibrium and abundance of resources England, he has said, was to be envied. But his hearers commonly took such observations not as maxims of practical wisdom, but rather as ironical commentaries on the helplessness of German parties as against his own authority and on the folly of all petty aspirants to his own place—an interpretation which the Prince never, to our knowledge, corrected. And in the same way the friendships which he showed for one man or another were never lasting or significant enough to make out of their object a recognized candidate for the succession. This incredulity may have been unjust to the Prince, but the consequences were not for that reason any the less serious. It is to-day more than ever apparent that Germany not only has no second statesman who can be named in the same breath with Bismarck, but that there is not even one whose prominence in the state or popularity with the people would in the least facilitate the choice of a successor. There is only an indefinite group of respectable politicians from whom, *faute de mieux*, the next chancellor may be selected. Some of these we will briefly mention.

The first impulse of the Court and the military party, in case the chancellorship should become vacant, would probably be to look for a fitting person in the ranks of diplomacy. Bismarck himself began his political career and first made his reputation in that service; his influence will first there be missed; and urgent as undoubtedly is the need of continued progress in the work of domestic reform, it is still in foreign politics that the most serious interests of the Empire are engaged. But the diplomatic service boasts only one possible chancellor, Prince Hohenlohe. There are other accomplished ambassadors, such as Von Keudell, Prince Reuss, Count Hatzfeldt, one or two of whom are favorites of Bismarck; but Prince Hohenlohe alone has been regarded as in any sense in training for the chancellorship, and even he has one grave disqualification. He is a nobleman of the highest social rank; has an ample fortune; his course during the critical years between Sadowa and Sedan was patriotic and sagacious; he has approved himself a cautious diplomatist, sufficiently docile to satisfy even Bismarck's exacting notions; and he enjoys the advantage of a Prussian bureaucratic training. But he is a Bavarian, and this alone will probably render him ineligible for the higher post. An unwritten law, to which Bismarck himself has often given utterance, requires that the Chancellor of the Empire be also Minister President of Prussia, and a Bavarian in the latter capacity is hardly to be imagined. There was even a considerable outcry when two minor non-Prussian officials were admitted into the royal ministry. If, again, we leave the narrower field of diplomacy and search for the new Bismarck in the bureaucracy at large—that of Prussia being always understood—the material seems to be more copious, but the result is little less barren. The civil service produces admirable officials and few statesmen. The training is too technical, the discipline too rigid; and initiative being sternly repressed by the very spirit of the system, its members seldom acquire the vigor and self-reliance in opinion and action which are indispensable to the political administrator.

Where among the ornaments or the victims of this institution shall be found a man qualified to direct the fortunes of the Empire? It cannot be Eulenburg, the Minister of the Interior, an aristocratic dilettante, who broke down ludicrously in the effort to defend the Socialist law before the Diet; or Stolberg-Wernigerode, whose nominal office as Vice-President of the Council is only a dignified retreat for an incompetent nobleman; or Von Puttkammer, who had the audacity to take the place vacated by Dr. Falk, and has since made himself notorious by a long series of those blunders

which in political life are equal to crimes; or Lucius, the Minister of Agriculture, but really a reputable physician, almost as much out of his place as Garcelon; or, in short, any one of the disciplined mediocrities whom for his own purposes, or because he found them in the system, Prince Bismarck has used without trusting and favored without educating. None of these men would have the confidence of Germany or the respect of Europe. To speak of them as candidates for the responsible post of Chancellor of the Empire, and for the succession to Bismarck, is futile, and they may be dismissed without further ceremony. The military class demands even less attention. Germany has one political soldier of the highest capacity, and another soldier who is a deputy, and on rare occasions an effective speaker; both of them are admired by their countrymen. But Manteuffel, as Governor of Alsace-Lorraine, has already a place where his civil and his military talents are sufficiently tried, and, notwithstanding his popularity with the Emperor, his aspirations are believed to rest short of the chancellorship; while Moltke is old, is a bitter reactionist, and has no ambition. The appointment of a soldier would in any case be a menace, not to say a provocation, to Russia and France, but it would also be a dangerous symptom of anxiety about the future. The Emperor alone would be unconditionally in favor of such a measure.

There remain, finally, parliament and the parliamentary leaders. Here there is a much greater wealth of original talent, of political education, and of possible statesmanship; and the choice of a chancellor could most easily be made from among the leaders of debate in either the Imperial Diet or that of Prussia. The Liberals alone could form a complete cabinet, in which, with the single though momentous exception of the chancellor himself, every member should be superior to the present ministers. Richter or Bamberger would make an admirable Minister of Finance, having, indeed, less bureaucratic experience but far more special knowledge; Lasker is a Liberal jurist who has statesmanlike views, and Dr. Gneist is a professor of law whose reputation is world-wide; Dr. Falk would find his old place in the Ministry of Education awaiting him; and the other portfolios would pass into the hands of men no less capable. The disposition of the chancellorship would depend on the composition of the cabinet, but it would almost necessarily fall to one of two men. These are Von Bennigsen and Delbrück. If the cabinet should have a pronounced parliamentary and Liberal character, Von Bennigsen, leader of the Left in the Reichstag and Speaker of the Landtag, and a man endowed with real qualifications for statesmanship, would be its fitting and representative head. But if, on the other hand, considerations of party should give way, as is not unlikely, Dr. Delbrück would be almost the predestined chief of a ministry organized for practical work. He has, indeed, political opinions, moderately liberal and, for the most part, perfectly correct. For one of them, his devotion to free-trade, he separated himself from Bismarck, and went into retirement, in circumstances extremely flattering to his honesty and independence. But he grew up in the civil service, and has not quite shaken the bureaucratic dust from his garments.

These two men would probably, of all others, command the largest, or at least the most compact, following both in Parliament and in the country. They would most nearly introduce an era of parliamentary government. And yet there is reason to believe that at the royal palace this very fact would be an objection to them. It is a notorious truth that the Emperor has been impatient even under such concessions as Bismarck has thought it advisable now and then, but only since 1866, to make to the popular will, and the course into which, freed from that restraining hand, his despotic impulses and his obstinacy might lead him, is unfortunately not calculable. If he should long survive he might do irreparable mischief. But he too is approaching his end; and although it is not impossible that the last years of his reign may revive the violent and dangerous years with which it began, his death, making way for a more liberal and conciliatory successor, would bring in at least the possibility of a mild, just, and hopeful policy.

THE IRISH PARTY IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

London, Jan. 6, 1880.

YOU have Mr. Parnell among you; and it will be natural to judge the Irish party in the House of Commons, of which he is the leader, by his language, manner, and appearance. This will be natural, but it will be a source of mistake. Mr. Parnell leads the Irish party because he is in almost every respect unlike the rank and file of it. Though Irish by some generations of descent, and by the mingling, through his mother, of American-Irish blood with the original current, his family traces its beginning to the little town of Congleton, in Cheshire, whence his kinsman, better known in Whig administrations as Sir Henry Parnell, took the title by which he was elevated to the peerage. Mr. Parnell is essentially an English gentleman in Ireland, and what is more to the purpose, he is essentially an English gentleman in the House of Commons, understanding the forms of society, and speaking with the accent of Belgravia. Educated at Cambridge, his associations have been largely English. To these qualities, and the fact that he is a Protestant country gentleman, quite as much as to his devotion to Irish questions and parliamentary business, or rather parliamentary obstruction, he owes the leadership of the party.

I have spoken of Mr. Parnell as the leader, though that post nominally belongs to Mr. Shaw, a wealthy Irish merchant and Methodist, of considerable sagacity and faculty for business. Mr. Shaw's relation to Mr. Parnell is that of Lord Hartington to Mr. Gladstone. Mr. Parnell was the real leader even while Mr. Butt (also, by the way, a Protestant) lived, his relations with whom were a sort of parody on those which a generation ago subsisted between Smith O'Brien and O'Connell. Mr. Butt was a sort of feeble shadow of O'Connell. The resemblance would have been closer if he had had O'Connell's genius and oratoric power, and if O'Connell had had Mr. Butt's amiable vices. Both had a considerable faculty of humor; both were consummate tacticians, alike in the House of Commons and the courts of law; both had the highest positions on the judicial bench within their reach if they had pursued their career at the bar. O'Connell gave up his profession for the work of agitation. Mr. Butt took to the business of agitation when his profession gave up him. The pleasures of the table were too much for poor Mr. Butt—of the card-table and of the dinner-table. He was a dexterous hand at drawing parliamentary bills, but he occupied himself more frequently in drawing bills of another sort, for which he found it even more difficult to get acceptance. Imperfectly clean and imperfectly sober, with face and hands half-washed and a suit of thread-bare black, unbrushed save by the friction of long wear, Mr. Butt was, of late years, a melancholy spectacle in the lobby of the House of Commons. While he was practically an exile in England doing hack literary work, and skulking silently on back benches, he saw his juniors becoming attorneys and solicitors-general for Ireland, and his inferiors Irish chief-justices and chancellors. Mr. Butt made many desperate sallies, one of which brought him to the front as leader of the Irish tenant-right agitation, and afterwards of the Home-Rule movement. He got again into a sort of practice in Ireland, though his fees were always forestalled, and though no one could tell whether he would not break down, through a relapse into bad habits, in a strong case, or by a vigorous rally pull through a client in an apparently hopeless one. In the House of Commons he acquired during his later years a sort of consideration, through his good humor, his dexterity as a speaker, though he was seldom eloquent, and through the restraint which as a parliamentary tactician, with some remains of respect for parliamentary forms, he exercised upon the more ardent and unscrupulous spirits about him. But he was roughly thrust aside, and, though when he died still nominally leader, was deposed by Mr. Parnell, as O'Connell was by Smith O'Brien. The parallel is not likely to go much further. Mr. Parnell practises obstruction with the strictest regard to those parliamentary forms which poor Smith O'Brien defied, and he practises obstruction with a scrupulous abstinence from even the show of violence. The coal-hole, the cabbage-garden, the convict prison, and the penal settlement, which were stages in Smith O'Brien's career, will be carefully avoided by his successor.

The leadership of the Irish party in the House of Commons has certainly gained in moral respectability in passing from the hands of the clever, broken-down, card-playing, whiskey-drinking, debt-incurring, creditor-evading "Ikey" Butt into those of the clean, well-dressed, industrious, sober, consummately respectable Mr. Parnell. The former was a boon companion; the latter is the least bit of a prig, who is believed to pass in the reading of bills, and blue-books, and May's 'Parlia-

mentary Practice' every moment that is not spent in the House of Commons. He studies these things, as Count Moltke studied every inch of French soil and every stone in French fortresses, with a view to hostile operations. Mr Parnell, as you have found out, is not eloquent, but he has a certain readiness ; and he understands parliamentary forms at least as well as the Speaker or the Chairmen of Committees. They are seldom able to rule against him, and they are as often wrong as right when they do so. Mr. Parnell is always polite and submissive, but he is always evasive, and if one form of procedure fails him he is ready with another. As to Irish eloquence, it is difficult to say what has become of it. It is a tradition, but it is scarcely a living reality in the House of Commons. It may be with eloquence as with a jest : its prosperity may lie in the ears of those who hear it quite as much as on the tongues of the speakers. That condition of prosperity is lacking in St. Stephen's. The ears of the majority of the members of Parliament are skinned, as the French expressively have it, by the rough side of the Irish tongue. Apart from this, there may be a certain antipathetic feeling between the two races. Burke, whose whole training was in the House of Commons, was never in harmony with it ; and Grattan's failure was not due merely to the difficulty of transplanting an old oak. The late Mr. Maguire was the last cultivator of the impassioned style ; the "good-God, Mr. Speaker," fashion of oratory, which Lord Beaconsfield censured in Canning, expired upon the foaming lips of the late member for Cork. Mr. P. J. Smyth, a mild revolutionist, somewhat resembling the late Mr. J. S. Mill in appearance, is a consummately graceful reciter of speeches whose admirable literary form rivets the attention of the House ; but Mr. Smyth is among Irish orators what Gray was among poets, and a single speech is supposed to cost him the unremitted labor of a whole year. The best debating speaker among the Irish Home-Rulers, both in manner and in substance, and one of the best in the House, though, for reasons which Cicero's doctrine about oratory might partially explain, he is not much heeded, and not at all reported, is Mr. O'Connor Power. Mr. Justin McCarthy, whose character and literary reputation make him a very valuable accession to the Home-Rule ranks, has great readiness of ideas and fluency of speech, and there is an artistic form about what he does which is refreshing amid the slovenliness of British oratory. But at present the training of the journalist and the book man is conspicuous ; and Mr. McCarthy improvises essays and leading articles rather than parliamentary speeches. As for Mr. O'Donnell and Mr. Biggar, they have every fault except that of want of fluency (which in their case would be a merit) that parliamentary speakers can possess.

The constitution of the Irish Home-Rule party in the House of Commons differs in some respects from that of other sections of the House. It is less plutocratic. Irishmen, who were formerly the military adventurers of Europe, are now the parliamentary soldiers of fortune ; and the way lies through the House of Commons and political repentance and conversion to commissionerships, secretaryships of boards, and even to colonial governorships. The phrase that half the world does not know how the other half lives, applies, with a variation in the proportion, to the House of Commons and a large section of the Irish Home-Rulers. It is commonly supposed that they sleep in the open air on the benches of St. James's Park, in the intervals between their being turned out of one lodging and finding the money to pay a week in advance for another. But this is a fable and a calumny. Occasional newspaper work, the writing of correspondence for provincial journals, and other hack literary business fall to their lot. When these things fail they lend to each other, and club their poverty. Besides, there are young men of fortune and family who are Home-Rulers, as young lordlings and squires in England are Radicals, by way of sowing their wild oats and alarming their elderly relatives among the female aristocracy. Conspicuous among them is Lord Francis Conyngham, a descendant of George IV.'s Marchioness Conyngham, lately the Home-Rule whip and much admired in the Ladies' Gallery from his supposed resemblance to a pirate of the Byronic order. There are the honest political theorists of Home Rule, and the casuistical minimizers of it who accept it in words as the condition of getting a seat, and explain it away into a system of county or provincial boards. The Home-Rule party, which has its "whip" in Major Nolan, a distinguished and scientific artillery officer, its titular leader in Mr. Shaw, and its real leader in Mr. Parnell, has also its joker, or clown of the ring, in Major O'Gorman, who, if not as witty as Mr. Bernal Osborne, or as sprightly as Sir Wilfrid Lawson, is more grotesquely amusing than either. The Major, who more than confirms the young lady's theory that all majors are fat and elderly, is himself a greater joke than any he ever perpetrated. The sergeant-at-arms smoking-room is the scene of performances, on his part limited to a select few, as amusing as those of which the whole House is the witness. There is no reason to think that the Home-Rule party will ever conquer home rule, but they may help to bring about a more reasonable distribution of power between Parliament and local boards. If they do this they will effect more good and less harm than they design. † † †

MADAME DE RÉMUSAT'S MEMOIRS.—VOL. II.

PARIS, January 9, 1880.

THE first volume of the Memoirs of Madame de Rémusat ends with the proclamation of the French Empire in 1804. The new Cæsar is organizing his court, while Moreau, M. de Polignac, and his accomplices are being tried. Napoleon spared the life of Polignac at the instance of Madame de Polignac, who was a daughter of the famous Helvetius. Seven royalists were sent to prison, thirteen were executed, and Moreau was embarked for the United States. Napoleon continued meanwhile to organize his fleet of transports for an expedition against England, and soon left for the camp of Boulogne. Josephine was getting more and more uneasy about the divorce, and Napoleon gave her the most signal proofs of infidelity. Madame de Rémusat continued to be the confidante of Josephine, and some of the stories she narrates show that Napoleon had completely ceased to keep bounds with his wife. I have tried to ascertain who the Madame —— is who is mentioned in connection with a most painful incident at Saint-Cloud (pages 45 to 49), for there are still persons who keep the traditions of those times. When I heard the name I was not surprised that the author of the Memoirs did not like to have it printed in full.

Josephine always took advantage of such incidents. The vain Creole was extremely anxious to be crowned at the ceremony of the coronation, which had become the subject of a negotiation with the Pope. She succeeded, and two days before the coronation she had the satisfaction also of being religiously married to Napoleon (hitherto they had only been civilly married). The religious marriage took place in the Emperor's room, through the ministry of Cardinal Fesch, before two aides-de-camp only. The coronation took place on the 2d of December. The Empress was forty-one years old, but with her splendid diamonds and her hair arranged in the style of the time of Louis XIV., she seemed only twenty-five years old, says Madame de Rémusat. When she went to the altar she had a moment of altercation with her sisters-in-law, who did not like to bear the ends of her imperial mantle. The Emperor had to say a few sharp words to his sisters. The Empress soon had new reasons for jealousy, and Madame de Rémusat, as usual, tried to smooth matters between the pair. Napoleon told her once that "he could not be in love ; that Madame de —— was no more to him than any other woman ; that love was made for other characters than his ; politics absorbed him ; he would not hear at his court of the empire of women ; they had hurt Henri IV. and Louis XIV.; he had a much more serious business before him than these princes."

In the year 1805 the crown of Italy was added to the imperial crown of France ; this event was the occasion for new fêtes, and "Athalie" was played at Saint Cloud for the first time in a number of years. Napoleon heard it with interest, remarking "that he should like such a play to have been written under his reign." He allowed Corneille and Racine to be played again in Paris, with a few corrections by the censors. M. de Rémusat accompanied Napoleon to Milan, where he was to receive the Iron Crown. This great ceremony took place on the 23d of May, and M. de Rémusat wrote to his wife that the spectators were much struck by the way in which Napoleon repeated the famous formula: "Il cielo me la diede, guai a chi la tocchera." Prince Eugène Beauharnais became viceroy of the new Italian kingdom, and Napoleon started for the valley of the Adige to make a reconnoissance of the Austrian forces. War had become inevitable, and Napoleon had resolved on it, as he understood that Austria could not see with equanimity the formation of a French kingdom in Italy. The Emperor presented his sister Eliza, who had accompanied him, with the principality of Lucca and Piombino; he gave the most splendid popular fêtes at Verona, in the amphitheatre, and at Genoa, on floating gardens and islands built on boats.

When he returned to France the *Moniteur* became ominous in its tone towards Europe. The Emperor had received in Italy denunciations against Madame de Rémusat ; his secret police represented her as too free in her comments on the Emperor and his family. He became cold towards her, and she became timid before him. His manners with the ladies in waiting, who had grown to be very numerous (there were now

Italian and Belgian ladies, besides the French), were sometimes very offensive.

"One day a certain number of us were breakfasting with the Empress, and in the number were the ladies who had gone to Italy with the Empress. Bonaparte suddenly enters the dining-room, and, with a rather cheerful face, leaning on the back of his wife's chair, addresses to one and another some insignificant remarks, and, asking questions about our life, tells us, at first in covered words, that among us there are a few who are the subject of comments on the part of the public. The Empress, who knew her husband, and who knew that from words to words he could go very far, tried to change the conversation; but the Emperor, going on, soon made it very embarrassing. 'Yes, ladies, you occupy the good inhabitants of the faubourg St. Germain. They say, for instance, that you, Madame ——, have a *liaison* with M. ——; that you, Madame ——'; and so he addressed himself to two or three among us. It is easy to understand the embarrassment into which such a speech threw us all. I believe still, in truth, that the Emperor amused himself with this uneasiness. 'But,' said he suddenly, 'people must not think that I approve such gossip. To attack my court is to attack me; I will not have one word said about me, or my family, or my court.' And then, his face becoming threatening, in a more severe voice, he uttered a long tirade against that portion of Paris society which was still in rebellion, saying that he would exile any woman who should say a word about a *dame de palais*."

After he was gone it is not much to be wondered at that one of the ladies assured the Empress, "If the Emperor defends us once more in this way, we are lost women." At Saint-Cloud the duty of M. de Rémusat was to organize the plays of the evening to amuse the man whom Talleyrand called *l'inamusable*. (Madame de Maintenon also once said of Louis XIV. to her niece: "Ce vieux roi n'est plus amusable.') In vain did M. de Rémusat choose among the masterpieces of the French theatre; in vain did the best comedians make the greatest efforts. The Emperor was always preoccupied; he scolded the Grand Chamberlain, he scolded Racine, Corneille, the actors. He had a sort of affection for Talma, whom he had known when he was young and obscure; he received him familiarly and gave him much money. "Like a sick man who makes everybody responsible for his ill-health, he was angry when he found himself insensible to what the rest considered a pleasure; and he always thought that by scolding and worrying he could oblige people to invent something which would amuse him."

War was his great, his only amusement. He had passed in review his great army at Boulogne, but the French fleet was defeated off Cape Finisterre and the expedition against England was abandoned. A coalition was formed against Napoleon on the Continent, between Russia and Austria, and the Emperor sent M. de Talleyrand to Strasbourg. Talleyrand had been named Minister of Foreign Affairs through the influence of Madame de Staël, who had recommended him to the Director Barras. He had been indispensable to Napoleon during the Consulate and the first years of the Empire. When the Emperor of Austria entered Bavaria, the Elector retired to Wurzburg, and Napoleon went to the French Senate and called for the reserves of five years. He started for Strasbourg with the Empress; he had become, since war was decided on, much more serene and amiable; he had praised Corneille's "Menteur" two days before his departure from Saint-Cloud, and at Strasbourg he remembered Fleury, who had played in it, and sent him a present. These small incidents show the real man; Napoleon was really never himself except in the camp, in the tumult and confusion of war; he was a born conqueror; war was the game which calmed and excited him at the same time.

Madame de Rémusat says that this new war was not popular; money got scarce; every family was trembling for its sons. The army of Boulogne had been transported, as by enchantment, from the shores of the Channel to Germany, and Bonaparte entered Bavaria; his activity was truly surprising. The campaign began on the 1st of October, and by the middle of October he wrote to his wife: "Reassure yourself; I promise you the shortest and most brilliant campaign." The bulletins of the Grand Army contained such phrases as: "The destinies of the campaign are fixed." The capitulation of Ulm, which was prepared by the most masterly strategy, struck all Germany with terror. After this great event the Emperor himself dictated to the editor of the bulletin this phrase: "The eulogy of the army can be made in two words: it is worthy of its chief." On the 13th of November the French army entered Vienna. "The Emperor," said the bulletin, "has established himself in the palace of Schönbrunn; he works in a room adorned with the statue of Maria Theresa. When he saw it he exclaimed: 'Ah! if this great queen were still alive, she would not let herself be guided by the intrigues of a woman like Madame de Colloredo! Always surrounded by the great statesmen of her country, she would have known the wishes of her people. She would not have opened her provinces to the ravages of the Muscovites!'"

The joy of Bonaparte was somewhat dampened by the news of Trafalgar; he sent for Talleyrand and prepared with him the ground of the future negotiations. M. de Rémusat also received an order to leave Strasbourg for Vienna; when he arrived, the Emperor had gone; the approach of the Russians had determined the Emperor of Austria to try once more the fortune of arms. The two armies had joined in Moravia at Austerlitz; Bonaparte resolved to attack them on the 2d of December, the anniversary of his coronation: "Il faut finir cette guerre," said he in his proclamation to his troops, "par un coup de tonnerre." The day before the battle he received the visit of Prince Dolgorouki, who came with proposals of peace, but he was not in a mood to receive them. "Russia asked that France should abandon Belgium and give up the Italian kingdom." "If France," said Napoleon in his proclamation, "can only obtain peace on the conditions proposed by the aid-de-camp Dolgorouki, Russia would not obtain them even if her army were encamped on the heights of Montmartre." "It was written," says Madame de Rémusat, who does not often indulge in such philosophical reflections, "that these same armies should one day encamp on those heights of Montmartre, and that Alexander should see at Belleville a messenger from Napoleon offering him any peace of which he should himself dictate the terms."

Three armies and three emperors met at Austerlitz; the Austrian and Russian emperors were obliged to take to flight to escape being made prisoners. Bonaparte himself wrote, on the battle-field, the account of this momentous struggle.

Correspondence.

BISHOP COLENSO AND THE ZULU WAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A letter just received from Dr. Colenso, dated Bishopstowe, Maritzburg, Natal, Nov. 20, 1879, contains an announcement which may possibly interest some of the readers of the *Nation:*

"I have just sent to England for publication," he writes, "a small work entitled 'Private Journal of Cetshawayo's Dutchman,' being an account of the sojourn in Zululand during the war of a white trader who wrote the King's letters for him and read and explained those of Lord Chelmsford. In the Dutchman's narrative, which I have translated, I have added a series of notes and prefixed a good photo. of the King; at least I have arranged for the work being published in this form, and sold at a low price, for the Dutchman's benefit, in order that as much light as possible may be thrown upon the treatment received by the Zulu King and nation at the hands of the representatives of a Christian people during the late war. I think if this little book falls in your way you may like to read it, and perhaps mention it to others."

Elsewhere in the same letter Dr. Colenso speaks of "facts coming to light which show how shamefully the character of the Zulu King has been blackened in order to support a foregone policy."

It may not be generally known that the only influential voice raised in South Africa against the invasion of Zululand—there regarded as a source of profit and in England as a necessary step toward increasing "our magnificent empire"—was that of Bishop Colenso. He alone denounced from the pulpit with unsparing severity the great crime of the British Government and of the colonists themselves. In England, however, six prelates of the Church, of undoubted orthodoxy, by their votes in the House of Lords, cast the episcopal sanction upon the Tory policy of war and conquest.

Notwithstanding its apparent failure as a guide to national rectitude, perhaps orthodoxy has its use. A. J. L.

Brooklyn, January 18, 1880.

THE VENUS OF MILO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If, as I judge, the writer of the note on the above subject, in the *Nation* No. 755, signed "M. F. C.," and patently a reply to mine in No. 754, is the same as the author of the article in the *Atlantic*, I beg her pardon for having said anything to offend her. If she had signed the *Atlantic* article I should have been disarmed, and, perhaps, not have merited the accusation of having "patented" anything in archæology.

The case stands thus: M. Doussault, in 1847, heard certain statements

from a very old man of something that happened a quarter of a century before. The old man, neither architect nor archæologist, gave M. Doussault indications from which he constructed plans of a seventh-century Christian church, etc., etc. These statements are confessedly contradicted by those made by the officers who were engaged in removing the statue; they are contradicted by the statements of M. Brest, junior, made to me about twenty years later. Twenty-five years these facts had lain in the memory of the elder Brest, and thirty in that of M. Doussault, for the book is only published in 1877, and we are asked to accept this statement as scientific evidence without M. Doussault having taken the trouble to verify the facts by a visit to Melos and inspection of the ruins, and without photographs or any irrefragable documents attesting the existence of them, or, so far as stated in this connection, any confirmatory statements by other people of any part of the story.

On the other hand, I personally visited Melos, and saw what M. Brest, junior, assured me was the niche in which the statue was found, and he detailed to me the circumstances of the finding, which I communicated to the *Nation*. I have no file and cannot recall the date, even within a year, but it was near enough to the narration to be free from great probability of any material error in transcription. This story, as any one may read it in the *Nation* of that date, absolutely contradicts that told in the *Atlantic* article on the authority of M. Doussault (or Grasset d'Orcet).

I do not pretend to infallibility either of memory or judgment, and it is quite possible—1st, that M. Brest, junior, deceived *me;* 2d, that I may have walked over and through the ruins of a seventh-century church and not have seen them ; 3d, that I may have seen them and forgotten them; and 4th, that my natural capacities for telling such a story may be much less than those of M. Doussault. Your readers must decide where the balance of probabilities lies, but I must say that I cannot perceive that "M. F. C." has made out a better claim for a patent to M. Doussault than I have; at any rate my caveat was filed before his. In the doubt, I submit that it is fair that the testimony of the officers engaged in the rescue of the statue from the Turks should be allowed to weigh. As my "patent" is entirely *pro bono publico*, I have no interest to maintain it if reasonably contested or otherwise.

Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

Florence, Jan. 2.

COLOR-BLINDNESS AND THE MASSACHUSETTS RAILROAD COMMISSIONERS.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : In my copy of the *Nation* (No. 759) I find, on page 45, a notice of what the Massachusetts Railroad Commissioners are supposed to have done in their investigations in regard to color-blindness, in which their action is criticised for lack of thoroughness, etc.

As the writer of the notice at the time it was written could not have known from the Report of the Commissioners what its contents were, or what they had done, it was at least premature, and a specimen of pretty poor *guessing*. The Report has been delayed by the late fire in Boston, which injured the offices of Rand, Avery & Co., the publishers, but I send you to-day a copy of a portion of the advance sheets of the Report, published through the enterprise of the Boston *Herald*, from which I think you will see that the *reviewer* fell into several errors. The Commissioners did not "detail a conductor" to make the examinations of employees upon the Fitchburg Railroad. This false charge was made in the *Advertiser* (through an erroneous statement) and denied the next day. What the Commissioners did, and why, you will see by the Report. Again, the article says, "their action does not take enough account of the experience of foreign countries in the matter." The Report shows that the Commissioners were not wholly unfamiliar with that experience, and, as a matter of fact, they sent two hundred circulars to medical experts of all the principal countries of Europe, and their conclusions were largely based upon the communications received in answer to those circulars.

Very respectfully yours,

Albert D. Briggs.

Springfield, Mass., January 17, 1880.

[We made no attempt to anticipate the Commissioners' Report or to guess its contents. Of course, if we had seen the correction of the misstatement, our paragraph would have been modified or not written.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO. have in press 'The King's Rifle : From the Atlantic to the Indian Ocean,' by Major Serpa Pinto, the well-known Portuguese explorer ; and 'The Great Living Men of Our Country,' a dictionary of biographical notices.——Ginn & Heath have brought out the second edition of Prof. Goodwin's 'Elementary Greek Grammar,' which has been thoroughly worked over and much enlarged. The new preface contains some very sensible remarks on the teaching of Greek as well as of other languages.——Estes & Lauriat will publish 'The Experiences of a Barrister and Confessions of an Attorney,' by Samuel Warren ; 'Our Common School System,' by Gail Hamilton ; and Masson's 'Outlines of the History of France,' abridged from Guizot's 'Popular History.'——Henry Holt & Co. have in preparation a volume of poems by Austin Dobson, and Mrs. Brassey's new book, 'Sunshine and Storm in the East.'——J. W. Bouton is the American agent for the illustrated library edition of 'Don Quixote' (Motteux's translation) undertaken by William Paterson, Edinburgh. The work will be beautifully printed, in four volumes octavo, with thirty-seven etchings by Ad. Lalauze. ——Harper & Bros. have added 'Hawthorne,' by Henry James, jr., to the "English Men of Letters" series.——A new edition of Alger's 'History of the Doctrine of a Future Life' is promised shortly by Roberts Bros. ——'Lamartine and his Friends,' *ana* and correspondence ; and Blanqui's 'History of Political Economy,' are announced by G. P. Putnam's Sons.——Macmillan & Co. have just published the 'Life and Work of Mary Carpenter'; and a memoir of her brother, the late Dr. Philip P. Carpenter, has also appeared in England, with the imprint of C. Kegan Paul & Co. Macmillan & Co. will issue immediately a complete index to the four volumes of Lanfrey's 'History of Napoleon I.'——We sincerely regret to record the death on Thursday last of Mr. Joel Munsell, of Albany, a publisher of the most disinterested character, who has especially done much to foster the publication of family and town histories and to encourage antiquarian research generally.——We accidentally gave last week a wrong address to Mr. J. P. Soule, Boston, who may be found at No. 338 Washington Street.——The first number of the *American Entomologist* is before us. The salutatory recalls the *American Entomologist and Botanist* suspended nine years ago, of which Dr. Riley conducted the entomological portion, as now (in connection with Mr. Andrew S. Fuller) he conductst he revived and restricted periodical. The chief articles of value in the present number are a discussion of the hibernation of the cotton-worm ; a revelation of the food-habits of thrushes, which, we are sorry to say, are convicted of living on the useful predaceous beetles ; and a review of Entomology in America during the past year, by Mr. J. A. Lintner.——A second edition of 'Appleton's Dictionary of New York,' revised and improved, has already appeared. The work is kept in type, so that revision can be made at once as the growth and changes of the city may demand.——The English dramatic magazine called the *Theatre* has passed into the hands of Mr. Clement Scott, an adapter of French plays and a copious writer on theatrical topics. The January number appears with a cover designed by Mr. Du Maurier, with photographs of Mr. Henry Irving and of Miss Ellen Terry in the "Merchant of Venice," and with the omission of the interesting theatrical summaries from foreign countries.——'Picturesque America,' under the name of 'L'Amérique du Nord Pittoresque,' has recently been published in Paris with great success by M. Quantin, the successor of M. J. Claye in the management of the great printing-house.——A German admirer of Wagner, named Hagen, has commenced the publication of a commentary on the libretto of "Rheingold." He finds as much to admire in Wagner's text as his most faithful followers have found in the music of the future. Indeed, the commentary bids fair to exceed the Cabbala in fanciefulness and the Talmud in length. Not content with a most thorough examination of the grammar, he even investigates at length the use of single letters; an O, for instance, representing entirely different ideas from an R or an S. Judging from the two volumes already issued, it is thought that the commentary will fill 80 volumes of 360 pages each and be completed about 2199.——We are glad to learn that the Boston Heliotype Printing Co., which suffered a total loss in the recent great fire, has promptly re-established itself in new quarters, and will continue to employ the large variety of photo-engraving processes which have added so much to the resources of book-making, commerce, and the study of the fine arts, and are fairly to be called indispensable.

—By an oversight last week we omitted to mention the dates of Mr.

John Fiske's four lectures on "America's Place in History," of which the first was given last evening in Chickering Hall. The remaining three will be delivered at the same place on the evenings of January 24, 28, and 31, and we can say for them, of knowledge, that they possess a degree of excellence very rare in our lecture courses, and which places them in the front rank of lectures anywhere. They are admirably comprehensive, and are as free from dulness as they are from commonplace.

—Professor Lounsbury concludes in the January number of the *New Englander* a series of three articles on Giraldus Cambrensis which together make a truly masterly piece of biography. An "old scholar of the twelfth century" is not only put before us in all his habits as he lived, but is made more entertaining than it is to be feared any scholar of the nineteenth century ever can be made, unless, which is devoutly to be wished, Professor Lounsbury should one day be entrusted with the charge of writing the life of Mr. E. A. Freeman. The three articles in the *New Englander* should, by all means, be brought out under one cover.

—All the illustrated prose articles in the February *Harper's* will repay reading in various ways. Mr. Howard Pyle, whose pen and skilful pencil keep even company, gossips about the elder Bartram and his botanic garden on the Schuylkill, and does what may be done in such limits to keep the memory of that worthy green and fragrant, as it deserves to be. Mr. B. F. De Costa's "Foreign Tips" is a humorous, not overdone summary of the exactions, in the shape of fees for services real or imaginary, which the American traveller experiences as soon as he leaves his native shores. The Grimani breviary in the library of San Marco at Venice is described by Mrs. J. W. Davis, but the admirably engraved specimens of the illuminations speak more forcibly of its splendor. "Washington as a Burgher," in Alexandria, is the subject of a paper by Mr. William F. Carne which contains much fresh information. Mr. John Bigelow's "Visit to the Republic of San Marino" gives in a few words what is, for all practical purposes, an exhaustive account of this anomalous government, and is accompanied by a topographical map and a good general view of the city of San Marino as seen from below. What is said of the Percheron and Norman horse by Mr. A. B. Allen is perhaps open to correction as regards the utility of this breed on the farm in comparison with lighter and more active stock. Mr. A. A. Hayes, jr.'s, papers on the mining regions of Colorado are apparently brought to a close in "Grub Stakes and Millions."

—The wood-engraving controversy is taken up by *Harper's* in a notable symposium, to which the following engravers contribute: Messrs. A. V. S. Anthony, Timotheus Cole, John P. Davis, Frederick Juengling, Richard A. Müller, John Tinkey, and Henry Wolf. The temper of the discussion is unexceptionable, and Mr. Linton, who is called by Mr. Anthony "the best engraver that ever lived," will not be offended even when he is told that he is guilty of faults he ascribes to others, that he cannot produce this or that effect by his method, and that "it is a shame for a man to cut such a lady's work [Miss Hallock's] in that way." There is a general agreement that photographing on the block has given the engraver a larger liberty and a fresh impulse, but all do not prefer it to a drawing, and its disadvantages—as falsifying color and requiring the original to be kept at hand, etc.—are freely admitted. It is pointed out that photography can delineate minutiæ which no draughtsman could put on the block; and it might have been added that, for certain subjects, abundance of detail and definiteness of purpose are qualities of the highest draughtsmanship which, from the nature of the case, the photograph possesses. Nearly all (Mr. Anthony seems to be an exception) hold that the engraver should efface himself in the effort to reproduce the spirit and stamp of the artist: "when seeing an engraving you should recognize the artist first and not the engraver." The necessity (under instructions) of imitating the brush-marks and the vehicle of the original is regretted by some, but accepted by others as legitimate. All things considered, we believe Mr. Cole more nearly expresses our own views than any of his associates. Mr. Müller announces his intention to achieve the *tour de force* of engraving "direct from nature on a blackened block," as if he were etching. The conception, of course, that the block is black and not white, like a sheet of paper, is fundamental in wood engraving and ought to be for draughtsmanship on the block.

—Since the appearance, more than twenty years ago, of Herbert Spencer's suggestive essay on the "Origin and Function of Music," and Mr. Darwin's more recent remarks on the subject in connection with sexual selection, various articles have been written and suggestions offered, without, however, with one or two exceptions, throwing much new light on the questions involved. The latest contribution is by Mr. James Sully, whose article on "Animal Music" in the November *Cornhill*, if it does not add much to our knowledge, is yet a convenient summary of some of the most important and striking facts, and may be of use in showing in what directions further observations are still desirable. In writing on animal music, birds necessarily form the chief topic, for though some insects, amphibia, and mammals are endowed with more or less musical voices, yet in regard to smoothness, compass, and variety of voice, birds are greatly their superiors, just as they are in regard to ornamentation and color. We find in the song of birds almost all the elements which enter into our own music; our latest acquisition, harmony, being the only primary factor that is conspicuously absent. There is, first, the sensuous element, which distinguishes from each other the voices of different species and individuals; then the emotional element, which marks any one strain as sad or joyful; and, finally, the intellectual element, as shown in an incipient sense for rhythm and tonality. Nor, although birds of a feather usually repeat the same sequence of notes all their life and hand it down to posterity, are their musical powers limited to these few notes, as might at first appear. For it has been pointed out by Mr. Wallace and others that if young birds are removed from their nests before they can have heard the song of their parents they will readily adopt some other simple melody of a different species. This shows that it is not an inflexible instinct, but the higher psychic power of imitation, which teaches birds to sing. Attempts have been frequently made to record the song of birds in our musical notation, and in the case of some birds which sing in true diatonic intervals, in whole notes, thirds, fourths, or fifths, this is easy enough. More frequently, however, the irregularity of the rhythm and the introduction of intervals smaller than a semitone allow only an approximation to correctness, as in the case of the erratic tenors and sopranos we often hear in concert and opera, whose song no existent device of man short of the phonograph would enable us to record. But as a good musical ear can distinguish an interval so small as the fiftieth of a semitone, and as the ancient Greeks in some forms of their music employed intervals of a quarter of a tone, which it is not impossible may be introduced again by some musician of the future, some ultimate improvement in our notation may yet enable us to record the song of all birds as well as that of operatic tenors and prima-donnas.

—The fact that mammals, with their superior nervous centres and general intelligence, should be so inferior to birds in musical development, is a hard nut for the comparative psychologist to crack. Our present ignorance of the individual and ancestral habits and traditions of most animals makes it, as yet, difficult to account for the development of musical gifts on the principle of utility by means of natural selection; and the difficulties seem even greater if we cling to the theory of sexual selection, which has been so seriously damaged by Mr. Wallace. Mr. Sully suggests several explanations of the apparently anomalous distribution of musical powers among animals, which, however, as he himself feels, are hardly satisfactory. But as long as sexual selection, and especially the selection of the male by the female, is an open question, it is surely premature for Mr. Sully to say that "it is *certain* that the songs of birds have as their express object the charming of female ears." Still more unwarranted, if not positively absurd, is the statement that "the capacity to enjoy tones by no means progresses uniformly with the development of the ear." This statement is based on the assertion by Brehm that the degree of musical sensibility of different animals would seem to vary inversely rather than directly with the degree of the development of the ear. To this we must reply that, in the first place, Herr Brehm, who is a descriptive naturalist, is no authority whatever in questions relating to the physiology and microscopic anatomy of the organs of sense. Secondly, his work appeared at a time when little was positively known in regard to the minute structure of this almost incredibly complicated organ, the ear, in comparison with which even the eye seems a model of simplicity. Helmholtz, Hasse, Hensen, Waldeyer, and Preyer have since then made many important discoveries, but much still remains for future observers. The difficulty and uncertainty of the subject is best shown by the fact that each of the four editions of Helmholtz's great work, especially the last (1877), has introduced important modifications in our views of the functions of different parts of the cochlea. In our opinion it is chiefly the arrangement of the hair cells and their connections with the nerve-fibres that await further research. The important discoveries of Max Schultze in regard to the eye should have taught Mr. Sully not to make such an utterly unscientific observation in regard to the ear. Max Schultze showed that the color-sense depends on the presence and arrangement in the eye of certain nervous elements called

cones, which are variously distributed in the retinæ of reptiles, birds, and mammals, not in accordance with their general rank in the scale of animal life, but entirely according to their habits of life and their *need* of a color sense. Hence there can be no reasonable doubt that when once the functions of *all* the parts of the ear are clearly ascertained there will be found a close correspondence between their development and the musical habits of animals.

—Miss Anna Bock, the gifted young pianist, who has appeared twice in public within the last few weeks, gave on Thursday last a concert of her own, in which she was supported by Messrs. Arnold, Ganzberg, Müller, and Dulcken. The opening number was a quartet by Brahms for piano, violin, viola, and violoncello, which, we believe, has not been heard here before in public. It is a work of decided merit, written in the best style of the modern school of chamber-music, of which Schumann, Mendelssohn, Brahms, and Raff may be taken as representatives. Schubert's compositions of this kind belong decidedly to the school of Beethoven, whose great works he took as a model for his own efforts. Brahms's serious and elaborate work did not produce much impression upon the audience on a first hearing, but we have little doubt that upon closer acquaintance it will become a favorite with our amateurs. It was performed by Miss Bock and her associates in a very spirited and highly-finished manner, particularly the last number, a brilliant Presto alla Zingarese, the technical difficulties of which are very great. Miss Bock appeared later in the evening in one more concerted piece, Beethoven's Kreutzer Sonata. By a highly intelligent and powerful rendering of this immortal composition and of Brahms's quartet the young artist fully justified the opinion which we expressed last week. Her brilliant technique and excellent memory also called for hearty admiration in the spirited performance of a series of ten solo pieces. Her programme, including the names of Beethoven, Schubert, and Rubinstein, in the first part, of Schumann, Saint-Saëns, Chopin, and Liszt in the second part, was most judiciously arranged. A numerous audience rewarded Miss Bock with enthusiastic applause.

—The third concert of the New York Symphony Society included a new instrumental composition by P. Tchaikoffsky, a suite for full orchestra in D minor. Since Hans von Bülow introduced this composer's pianoforte concertos here several years ago the public has become acquainted with numerous other of his works, both greater and smaller. Mr. Neuendorff gave last season two of his most elaborate works—a symphonic poem, "Francesca da Rimini," and a very long symphony. Tchaikoffsky's style is that of the modern German school, beginning with Schumann and ending with Liszt. While he is wanting in the original genius of the great representatives of that period, he has learned from them the art of powerful instrumentation and finished construction. These are the characteristics of his last composition, of which Dr. Damrosch gave an excellent rendering on Saturday last. Another interesting feature of the evening was the début in New York of M. Adolphe Fischer, a violoncello player of very great merit. M. Fischer's tone is not very powerful, but it is very sweet and pure, no matter on what string or in what position, and his execution is marvellous. These are the typical characteristics of the Belgian school, which has educated so many eminent artists, and to which M. Fischer belongs. His first number, a concerto by Camille Saint-Saëns, is a composition in which perhaps nothing higher is attempted than to exhibit the best qualities of the virtuoso. It bristles with breakneck difficulties, which were mastered by M. Fischer with the most perfect ease and with a placidity that was delightfully reassuring for the hearer. In one of those thoroughly martistic arrangements of one of Chopin's pianoforte nocturnes which ought to be excluded from serious concerts M. Fischer showed a better style of tone, and in his second solo number, a Tarantelle of his own composition, he displayed an amount of technique which astonished and delighted his audience. The remaining orchestral numbers, Beethoven's Pastoral Symphony and Wagner's introduction to "Tristan und Isolde," were given with the refined taste which, as a rule, characterizes Dr. Damrosch's performances.

—In one of his conversations with M. Soret Goethe looked into the future and gave three guesses, which are not without interest at the present juncture :

"Dined with Goethe. He spoke much, and with admiration, of Alexander von Humboldt, whose work on Cuba and Colombia he had begun to read, and whose views as to the project of making a passage through the Isthmus of Panama appeared to have a particular interest for him. 'Humboldt,' said Goethe, 'has, with a great knowledge of his subject, given other points, where, by making use of some streams which flow into the Gulf of Mexico, the end may be perhaps better attained than at Panama. All this is reserved for the future and for an enterprising spirit. So much, however, is certain, that if they succeed in cutting such a canal that ships of any burden and size can be navigated through it from the Mexican Gulf to the Pacific Ocean innumerable benefits would result to the whole human race, civilized and uncivilized. But I should wonder if the United States were to let an opportunity escape of getting such work into their own hands. It may be foreseen that this young state, with its decided predilection to the West, will, in thirty or forty years, have occupied and peopled the large tract of land beyond the Rocky Mountains. It may, furthermore, be foreseen that along the whole coast of the Pacific Ocean, where nature has already formed the most capacious and secure harbors, important commercial towns will gradually arise, for the furtherance of a great intercourse between China and the East Indies and the United States In such a case it would not only be desirable, but almost necessary, that a more rapid communication should be maintained between the eastern and western shores of North America, both by merchant ships and men of-war, than has hitherto been possible with the tedious, disagreeable, and expensive voyage round Cape Horn. I therefore repeat that it is absolutely indispensable for the United States to effect a passage from the Mexican Gulf to the Pacific Ocean ; and I am certain they will do it. Would that I might live to see it ! But I shall not. I should like to see another thing—a junction of the Danube and the Rhine. But this undertaking is so gigantic that I have doubts of its completion, particularly when I consider our German resources. And thirdly and lastly, I should wish to see England in possession of a canal through the Isthmus of Suez. Would I could live to see these three great works ! It would be well worth the trouble to last some fifty years more for the very purpose."

The fifty years which Goethe wished for have come and gone ; this conversation was held on Wednesday, February 21, 1827 (as is recorded on p. 222 of Mr. John Oxenford's translation of Goethe's 'Conversations with Eckermann and Soret'), and of the three things Goethe longed to see, though only one is accomplished, one other, at least, is in a fair way of being shortly begun.

—A new work is announced to appear by subscription in Belgium which deserves the special notice of astronomers, of librarians, and of all bibliographers whose collections contain works on astronomy. It is called 'Bibliographie générale de l'Astronomie, ou Catalogue méthodique des ouvrages, des mémoires et des observations astronomiques publiés depuis l'origine de l'imprimerie jusqu'en 1880, par J. C. Houzeau, Directeur de l'Observatoire Royal de Bruxelles, et A. Lancaster, Bibliothécaire de cet établissement.' The work is already partly in type, and it will appear in three thick octavo volumes. These will be published by *fascicules* of 300–400 pages. The price will be 30 centimes, or 3 pence English, per *feuille* of 16 pp., and the work can only be had by addressing the authors at the Royal Observatory, Brussels, Belgium. A brief description of the admirable plan adopted and of the contents is as follows : The three volumes embrace—I. Ouvrages, II. Mémoires, III. Observations Each part has a classified subject-index and also an author-index. Vol. I., *Ouvrages*, relates to books separately printed. These have been examined, either directly or through the standard bibliographies of Lalande, Erlecke, Scheibel, and others, and classified by subjects. That is, under the name of a subject, as *Polémique au sujet du mouvement de la Terre*, a brief history of the origin of the question is given, and then the works (A) in favor of the motion of the earth and (B) against it are given. The full title of each book is set down and bibliographic and astronomical notes added, sometimes from the authors' hands, sometimes from standard bibliographies. An example of an entry from (B) is—

"Havemann, M. Astraea, in qua de hypothesibus astronomicis disseritur, coelestis globus probe explicatur, adparentiae coelestes jucunde demonstrantur.—8vo, Rostochii, 1624.—4to, Francofurti, 1650.—4to, Stadae, 1684.

"Les deux dernières éditions ont pour titre : Astraea, sive epitome sideralis scientiæ, in qua etc.

"Dans ce premier ouvrage contre Copernic, il ne s'agit encore que de discuter la question physique."

Other subjects are treated in a like manner.

—Vol. II., *Mémoires*, classifies all the memoirs published in journals, transactions of scientific societies, etc., in the same way. It is sufficient to say for it that it does for astronomy what the subject-index by Drs. Billings and Fletcher, now publishing by the Surgeon-General's Office, does for medicine. An example of the form of entry is :

"Tisserand. Note sur l'invariabilité des grands axes des orbites des planètes.

"Paris, Crh., LXXXII., 1876, 442.

"Il refait la démonstration de Poisson, en combinant le mémoire de La Grange de 1809 avec certains passages du mémoire de Jacobi sur l'élimination des nœuds dans le problème des trois corps."

Vol. III., *Observations*, contains a classified list of the observations of each planet, etc., and extensive references to all subjects of observation. It is, in short, a classified subject index to the five hundred or more volumes which have been published by astronomical observatories, and also to all observations published in scientific journals, transactions, etc., something on the model of Carl's 'Repertorium der Cometen-Astro-

nomie.' When it is considered that the publications of observatories (except those of Washington and Greenwich) are entirely without proper indexes, it will appear that this volume alone will approve the work to professional astronomers. The complete classified lists of the other volumes will enable the librarian at once to answer any question as to the contents of his works on astronomy. The biographies of astronomers presented make the book valuable in a library of reference. Few persons know the immense labor involved in such a work, or even in one small part of it; but those consulting it will find that in some way all their wants have been attended to. Nothing of the kind has been published in Astronomy of anything like its value, and the writer, who speaks from personal experience of this kind of work, confidently commends it to the class of readers which it seeks to reach.

—'Staats- und socialwissenschaftliche Forschungen' is a series of monographs edited by Professor Schmoller, of Strassburg, as a supplement to Holtzendorff und Brentano's *Jahrbuch für Gesetzgebung*, etc. It is designed for papers which are too long and too special in their character for the periodical itself, while yet having a distinct bearing upon the practical questions of the day to which the periodical is devoted. In general they may be said to belong to that field in which the editor is so distinguished—the application of economical principles to historical problems; they discuss, for the most part, questions of historical finance. The first number, of 118 pages, published in 1878, is by Professor Inama-Sternegg, of Innsbruck, upon the formation of great estates (*Die Ausbildung der grossen Grundherrschaften*) in the Carolingian time. It is easy to see how important this investigation is for the history of feudalism—especially on its so much neglected side, its relation to the peasantry; it is, moreover, an almost wholly unexplored field. The essay consists of four chapters, besides a short introduction. The first chapter discusses the mark-community, which was the starting point in the entire process, especially in its social and economical aspects. The second is statistical; the third treats of the development of great estates; and the fourth of their social influence. These two chapters contain the substance of the work, and are remarkably clear and exhaustive statements. We have never seen described so fully the process by which the free peasantry was gradually brought into serfdom, or a condition analogous to it; nor is there, probably, so complete an account of the social condition of Germany at this period as that contained in these chapters. The fourth chapter is, perhaps, the most interesting. The author shows that the eighth century was distinguished by a rapid economic advance, which was not without its influence in subverting the freedom of the peasantry; when great fortunes are made rapidly, the weaker go to the wall. It was imperatively necessary, however, in the interests of economic progress, to pass from the narrowness and isolation of the earlier agricultural life; and the formation of great estates, with the feudalism that grew out of it, was an essential step in civilization. Here, too, the author shows clearly why it was that in Germany (the same thing is true for France) the feudal order of things, and so the modern, which grew out of it, was not based upon the earlier mark-communities, but upon the so-called *villication*, while in England the feudal unit, the manor, was identical with the township.

VILLARI'S MACHIAVELLI AND HIS TIMES.*

VILLARI'S first volume is a picture of Italian politics and society at the close of the fifteenth and the opening of the sixteenth century. If this first instalment of his great work lacks something of biographical interest it has the immense merit of bringing into a clear light the paradox of the Renaissance in Italy—that a period of new birth was also a period of national decay, and that the country which first entered into the spirit of modern European life perished at the very moment when surrounding nations were putting forth new power and energy. The existence of this paradox Villari, at any rate, makes so plain that even the most careless student cannot henceforth fail to observe what is after all one of the strangest of phenomena. "We behold in Italy," he writes, "an enormous intellectual activity. On all sides old traditions, forms, and institutions were crumbling and disappearing to make way for new." The scholastic methods give way to the new philosophy. The first steps are made in scientific experiment. Commerce and industry flourish. An Italian discovers America. Printing becomes an Italian trade. Classical learning is universally diffused. The sciences of politics, of war, of architecture, and of history are either created for the first time or revived from the dead. The age of Leonardo da Vinci, Machiavelli, Brunelleschi, Perugino, Raphael, and Michael Angelo is certainly an age of life, of hope, and of progress; yet in the midst of this vivid splendor strange and inexplicable contradictions were to be found. This people of Italy, "so rich, so industrious, so intelligent, before whom all Europe stood, as it were, in an ecstasy of admiration—this people was rapidly falling into corruption. Everywhere liberty was disappearing, tyrants springing up; family ties grew weaker and weaker; the domestic hearth was profaned; no man trusted any longer to the good faith of Italians. Both politically and morally the nation became so feeble that it could no longer withstand the shock of any foreign power; the first army that passed the Alps traversed the peninsula almost without striking a blow, and was soon followed by others which devastated and trampled upon the country with equal impunity"

Let it, however, be realized that both the bright and the dark side of this description are true, and the question at once suggests itself, What is the explanation of the undoubted fact that the pioneer of European civilization ultimately fell far behind nations which were almost barbarous when Italy was full of light and culture, and that the development of Italian intellect appears to have been almost bound up with decay in all the qualities which make up the moral character of a nation? Many of the explanations which pass current are most unsatisfactory. To point out that Italy fell from her greatness through her moral corruption, is little else than to restate the very fact which requires to be accounted for. To say, again, that the peninsula became a prey to foreigners because Italians were torn by the spirit of faction, is indeed to call attention to a circumstance which contributed to the ruin of the country; but Italian party spirit does not of itself explain why it was that Italy could not resist invaders, for the country was at least as much divided by the spirit of party during the Middle Ages as at the period of the Renaissance, whilst mediæval partisanship did not produce half the evil which resulted from the same spirit of faction in a later age. Villari, who fully perceives the nature of the problem to be solved, has the merit of suggesting considerations which afford, at any rate, a partial explanation of the calamities which afflicted Italy. His theory is in effect that the rapidity of Italian progress led the country to the brink of an inevitable social and political revolution, which, owing to foreign intervention, Italians could not conduct to a successful issue. The different points embraced in this view ought each to be carefully considered. The groundwork on which it rests is the fact that Italian civilization, like that of ancient Greece, was a civilization depending upon the astonishing intellectual and political activity of small city communities. The city, or the commune, played a part in Italy which it has never played in any other country of modern Europe. Florence and Venice, to take the two typical Italian republics, pressed forward to the condition of civilized states at a time when France, England, and Germany were comparatively barbarous countries, still weighed down by the burden of the feudal system. The result, however, of this very progress was that Italy at the moment of the Renaissance had outgrown her institutions, and, what was of at least as much consequence, had to a great extent thrown aside the moral and political ideals which influenced the rest of Europe. Everything in Italian life, and especially the rise of tyrannies, marked the necessity for some revolution. It is possible, one may perhaps say probable, that could the states of the peninsula have been left to themselves the changes necessary for the further progress of the country would have been carried out. Some one state or monarch might gradually have gained either leadership or supremacy, and thus have given to Italians that unity which was in their case a necessity if they were ever to maintain independence or to achieve a career of peaceful progress. The intervention, however, of foreigners arrested what may be termed the natural development of Italy, and for more than two centuries and a half prevented the states of the peninsula from attaining that national spirit which is proved to be for the states of modern Europe an essential condition of progress. Villari further makes clear that foreign intervention was itself an almost inevitable result of the condition at once of Italy and of the states by which she was surrounded. A city, for example, like Florence, which, while the whole country was going to ruin, bent all her efforts to the subjugation of Pisa, inevitably became dependent on foreign powers. A country such as France, where powerful monarchs were surrounded by armies longing for war, was certain—one might almost say fated—to invade a land which was at once civilized, disunited, and, so to speak, unarmed.

Villari's solution of the problems presented by the history of Italy in the sixteenth century is, as far as it goes, true, but is also almost certainly

* 'Pasquale Villari. Niccolò Machiavelli e i suoi tempi.' Firenze: Successori Le Monnier.
'Niccolò Machiavelli and his Times. By Prof. Pasquale Villari. Translated by Linda Villari.' London: C. Kegan Paul & Co.

incomplete. He does not fully perceive that the early advances in civilization made by the Italian republics were made at the cost of deviation from what has turned out to be the true path of modern progress. The essential difference between the classical world and the world of modern Europe is that the basis of classical civilization was the city, whilst the basis of modern society is the nation. The Italian states were formed upon the classical model. They were towns, the free citizens of which governed the subject country districts. They had many of the merits, but they had also most of the defects, of classical republics. Some of these faults were indeed intensified, for the curious blending of feudal and classical conceptions which is apparent in the city governments of the middle ages, divided a mediæval town from the country districts dependent upon it by even a harder line than that which separated the citizens of a classical state from the dependent population who had not the full rights of citizens. The great step made by modern civilization has been the gradual blending of town and country; but this step in the path of progress was one which the Italian cities were far less capable of making than, say, a country like England, which must have appeared to a statesman such as Machiavelli almost barbarous. The Florence, indeed, of Lorenzo de' Medici (1469-1492) must have appeared to the men of that age rich in all the elements of civilization in which the England of Edward IV. and Richard III. (1461-1485) was deficient; but we can now see clearly enough that England had, even before the end of the Wars of the Roses, in substance advanced further on the true road of modern civilization than Florence. The position of an English yeoman was politically better than the condition of the inhabitants of the villages round Florence. The yeoman was a British subject, with the rights of a freeman. The Tuscan countryman could not even be trusted with arms by the city, which could constrain his obedience but could not command his loyalty.

The Renaissance, further, was, it must be remembered, from one point of view a period of reaction or revival. To use a happy expression of Villari's, men found the new world of modern life in seeking to revive the old world of classical literature. Still the movement was, in its form at least, a revival of classicalism, and, in a country like Italy, consisting of cities which were in reality states, like those of the ancient world, had a tendency to reproduce the defects of classical conceptions. It is, for instance, apparent that the very revival of ancient learning intensified the exclusive spirit of Florentine liberty. Savonarola's feelings and principles were in the main those of a monastic reformer, but where he was not a monk he was a patriot of the Greek or Roman type. His loyalty was loyalty to Florence. He welcomed the French invader as a deliverer of the Florentine state. His very patriotism (and the same thing must have been true of men in every way his inferiors) led him to a policy radically inconsistent with the independence of Italy. Another example of what we may term the classical spirit is seen in Machiavelli's schemes for forming an army of free citizens; but the crowning proof of the fatal turn given to Italian history by the predominance of civic rather than national patriotism is seen in the view predominant among Italian statesmen, that the great danger of Italy lay in extension of Venetian power. To this must be added another characteristic of Italian statesmanship, which greatly added to the reputation of Italian politicians whilst it wrought deep evil to Italy. This characteristic was the overestimate of the personal side of political life. The Italians undoubtedly were the earliest diplomatists. Men like Machiavelli perceived what the untrained statesmen, say of England or Germany, had hardly learnt—how large was the part which diplomacy, and diplomacy of a very personal character, might play in the contests between states and nations. They invented and carried to perfection what has sometimes been called kingcraft. From them not only Italy but the whole of Europe imbibed the belief that the great aim of statesmen ought to be to gain their own ends by working on the sentiments, the prejudices, or the interests of kings and potentates. That this idea of politics, which made statesmanship a matter of intrigue, tended to undermine both public and private morality, is obvious. What is not perhaps so often remarked is, that it tended to conceal the importance to statesmen and rulers of acting in harmony with what may be called the permanent forces which govern society. Every one now knows that almost all truly successful statesmen, from Louis XI. down to Prince Bismarck, have owed the greater portion of their success to their having, either by virtue of insight or of happy accident, enlisted in favor of their schemes some strong popular feeling or interest. This was precisely the aspect of politics which Italian statesmen and their followers hardly understood. A Florentine diplomatist, could he have returned to life between 1860 and 1870, would have been able to enter with the utmost keenness into the contest of wits by which first Cavour and next Bismarck outmanœuvred the French Emperor. Such a politician might probably enough have suggested strokes, including possibly the occasional use of assassination, which would have escaped the acuteness and have shocked the conscience of both the Piedmontese and the Prussian statesman. But the Florentine diplomatist would have found a difficulty in perceiving that neither Cavour nor Bismarck owed half so much to his astuteness as to the fact that he had behind him all the force, in the one case of Italian, and in the other of German, national sentiment.

It is easy to perceive how the view of statesmanship which made it consist in the arts of diplomacy naturally grew up in the Italy of the sixteenth century. It is also easy to perceive that this onesided conception of politics was almost certain to lead Italian states to ruin. If, in short, we ask why it was that the Italian Renaissance led to something like the ruin of Italy, the answer appears to be, first, as suggested by Villari, that the rapid progress of Italian civilization necessitated a political and social revolution which the country was, owing in a great degree to foreign intervention, unable to effect; and, secondly, that Italian genius was, owing in part to the very circumstances which at one time placed Italy in advance of other nations, incapable of perceiving as clearly as did the statesmen of less civilized countries, what was the true direction towards which nations should steer that were to pass from the barbarism of the mediæval world to the true new world of modern civilization.

ICELAND'S ANNALS.*

AS the initial volume of the series of Icelandic texts to be issued by the University of Oxford no better work could have been selected by the delegates of the Clarendon Press than the 'Sturlunga Saga.' It has heretofore been edited but once—by the Icelandic Literary Society in its very earliest years (1816-20)—and then in a most uncritical way; and that edition has been so long out of print as to have become virtually inaccessible to English and American scholars. Its style and method distinguish it as one of the best of the many remarkable productions composed by Icelandic writers during the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries, while it is comparatively free from the corruptions introduced by the copyists into the texts of the other greater sagas. In its matter it embraces the period of Iceland's annals most instructive to the student of the history of Teutonic civilization—the final century of the Icelandic republic. The little Teutonic colony, planted in a land and under circumstances especially favorable to the development of an independent national life and an independent national literature, passed through the culminating period of its political and social prosperity in the years between the beginning of the eleventh century and the closing half of the twelfth. This prosperity, however, itself nourished the seeds of those domestic dissensions which finally put an end to the national existence. As Dr. Maurer, in his 'Island von seiner ersten Entdeckung bis zum Untergange des Freistaats,' has so well shown, the fabric of Iceland's political institutions rested upon the godord, or temple community, which, with the decay of the old faith, lost the religious part of its character and became purely political. At the head of the godord was the godi, who in the beginning exercised the functions both of priest and magistrate. So long as each of the communities into which the land was thus divided had its own godi, whose power extended over no other community—so long, in other words, as each godord remained distinct and intact—there was little danger of any resulting evil, for each of the chiefs was the equal of every other. The godar of each quarter or district, in the district Thing, or of all quarters in the Althing, met on equal terms. But unfortunately the office was alike hereditary and transferable, and this led to disastrous consequences. By marriage, by direct inheritance, and by purchase these godord began at length to fall into the possession of a few wealthy and powerful families, whose ambition and avarice filled the commonwealth with turmoil. A singular provision, which in its inception was evidently designed to guard the personal liberty of the members of these communities, turned out to be fraught with ill. Any citizen, if dissatisfied with the head of the community in which he lived, was allowed, without changing his residence, to place himself under the pro-

* 'Sturlunga Saga. Including the Islendinga Saga of Lawman Sturla Thordsson and other works. Edited, with prolegomena, appendices, tables, indices, and maps, by Dr. Gudbrand Vigfússon.' Oxford. 1878. 2 vols. 8vo. New York: Macmillan & Co.
'An Icelandic Prose Reader. With notes, grammar, and glossary. By Dr. Gudbrand Vigfússon and F. York Powell, M.A.' Oxford. 1879. 8vo. New York: Macmillan & Co.

tection of another godi. This soon gave to a rising chief a large clientèle distributed in all parts of the island.

The abuse and degeneration of the godord system were, perhaps, the most marked cause of the republic's decline. Another was the position occupied by the church. With the introduction of Christianity and the establishment of bishoprics and a priesthood the ecclesiastical power was divorced from the secular, and, the change being gradual, the demarcations of each were left undefined. Conflicts naturally resulted. The bishops of Skalholt and Holar were often at war with the powerful civil chiefs. The intercourse with Norway was another unfortunate incident of the times—unfortunate in more ways than one. The Icelandic sees were placed by Rome under the jurisdiction of the archbishops of Tronyem (the present Throndhjem or Drontheim), the then Norwegian capital, and it was natural that the kings of Norway should early conceive the idea of making the boundaries of the secular domain coincide with those of the spiritual. The members of the great Icelandic families, too, in their visits to Norway, soon learned the fascinations of courtly favor, and, on their return, by their graphic accounts of what they had seen—theirs was a nation of sagamen—infatuated others with an admiration of royalty. Like Ulrich, in Schiller's 'Wilhelm Tell,' this semi-nobility at last grew weary of ruling a nation of shepherds, and longed for stirring deeds and brilliant careers under the banners of kings who were indeed foreign, but whose language was still the language of Iceland, and who delighted to honor those who illustrated that language by works such as the motherland could not produce.

All the story of the stormy times which these various causes tended to bring about is told in the Sturlunga. The tale is necessarily one of turbulence—of quarrels, forays, assassinations, battles by land and sea, burning and rapine, insidious assaults and brutal revenges. But there are brighter, or at least lighter, sides to the picture. The daily life of the times, the social customs prevalent among the peculiar people of a peculiar clime, traces and traditions of a heathen age side by side with the newer practices of Christianity, strange superstitions contrasted with a simple religious faith, feasts and festivals and weddings, the shifting scenes of every-day life at court, occasional gleams of patriotism, flashes of poetic wit—all these things are portrayed, often with an intense dramatic vigor and always with historic fidelity. Through the panoramic narrative runs the thread spun of the fortunes and struggles of the Sturlungs—Iceland's greatest family. To this family belonged the author of the larger part of the work, Sturla Thórdarson (born 1214 or 1215, died 1284), who was an eye-witness of the principal scenes he portrays, and a participant in all the great events of the age. His more famous uncle, Snorri Sturluson, author of the Sagas of the Kings of Norway, whom Walter Scott somewhere styles the Cicero of the North, but who better deserves the appellation of the Northern Herodotus, is, until his death, the central figure; but all the Sturlungs play their parts—Sturla's father, the sagacious and peace-loving Thórd; Sturla's brother, Ólaf, known as the White Poet; Sighvat, the other uncle of the historian and his daring son, Sturla, the historian's beloved namesake; and Snorri's weak-minded son, Orækja, whom the reader soon comes to despise. Of the other characters, the crafty and wicked Earl Gizur, who presides over the final suicidal rites of the republic, when the land, in 1262–64, quarter by quarter, swears fealty to the Norwegian monarch; the cruel Kolbein, the unswerving foe of the Sturlungs, and Thórd Kakali, their avenger, are perhaps the principal ones. The possession of the godord now passed to the crown; the old common law which had made an active political life both possible and necessary, gave place to a written code; the Althing became a mere shadow of itself; and the great houses—the Sturlungs and Oddaverjar and Haukdælir—which, in the midst of their turbulence, had at least preserved the traditions of a better past, passed away with the commonwealth.

No other of the Icelandic sagas has been so well edited, and rarely has any work been edited with such a complete critical apparatus. The prolegomena of 245 closely-printed pages is by far the best sketch of the ancient literature of Iceland yet given to the public, and ought to be separately reprinted. It includes analyses of all the sagas, chapters on the skaldic and eddic lays, and treats with great fulness a hundred questions of interest. Among them may be cited, merely sample-wise, the elaboration of the newest theory in regard to the origin of the eddic poems (pp. 183 to 194)—namely, that they assumed their present shape in the Western Isles (that is, in the Orkneys, Shetland, the Hebrides, Man, and on the adjacent coasts of Ireland and Scotland), among the Norse colonists, whose emigration from the parent land began before the discovery of Iceland. "The lays are, in fact, to these islands what the saga was to Iceland." The large colored map of Iceland in the twelfth century which is attached to the second volume may serve to illustrate many of the sagas, and is a necessary aid to their comprehension, noting as it does the different godord and the boundaries of the quarters. The excursus on the site of the lögberg (mount of the law), accompanied by a map of the Thingvellir, is of interest, whether the reader adopt or not the theory advocated by the editor, Dr. Maurer, and the Danish topographer, Kaalund, against all the traditions of the later past. The volumes are likewise rich in fac-similes of manuscripts, various readings, genealogical tables, and full indices. The editor, it need hardly be said, is Dr. Gudbrand Vigfússon, whose noble Icelandic-English dictionary was published seven years ago by the Clarendon Press.

Dr. Vigfússon's labors ought to give a great impetus to the study of Icelandic among the English-speaking nations. Heretofore, in order to become familiar with the classic literature of the North, it was necessary first to learn Danish, as all the aids to the study of Icelandic were in that language. Now they are surpassed by those in our own tongue. The 'Icelandic Prose Reader,' by Dr. Vigfússon and Mr. York Powell, includes a grammar not essentially different, though less elaborate, than that prefixed to the Oxford Dictionary, and a glossary complete enough for the beginner. The texts are well selected, occasionally from inedited manuscripts. American students will be especially thankful for the saga of Erik the Red, which relates to our own continent, and which is here printed for the first time, from the best text. Useful to the critical scholar are the specimens of manuscripts, preserving the orthography of the copyists, the extracts from the treatises of the ancient grammarians, the section on runes, and the specimens of old Swedish law-texts. The notes to the body of the work are full of valuable suggestions. Those accompanying the translation of St. Matthew—from the first Icelandic New Testament (1540)—comprise an interesting account of the various editions of the Icelandic Bible.

RECENT NOVELS.*

AN 'Earnest Trifler' deserves some critical attention for more reasons than one. Although published in Boston, its author is known to be a young lady of Western origin and habitat, by name Miss Mary A. Sprague, of Newark, Ohio. The book has met with a marked success, and has been the means of procuring for Miss Sprague an amount of trans-Alleghanian journalistic fame which we will not say is beyond her deserts, but must, we think, have somewhat surprised her. One Ohio newspaper, in the course of an elaborate review, announces that the book "threatens to create a furore something like that aroused by little Fanny Burney's romance in the days of Dr. Samuel Johnson." With that unblushing effrontery which the Ohio critic has no doubt caught from exposure to the air of Ohio politics, it remarks that it almost "goes without saying" that the author is an Ohio woman; but attempts to reassure its readers by adding that "in Boston and New York people are reading it eagerly," and that "it has passed the ordeal of perusal in the most cultivated circles in this country, and has been enthusiastically approved." Another Ohio newspaper publishes an "interview with Professor Sanford, of the Cleveland Female Seminary," at which institution of learning Miss Sprague was formerly a pupil. The head-lines introducing the interview to the reader begin "Miss Sprague—School Life of the now Famous Authoress." The Professor was, like a true gentleman, "reluctant to say anything that would in any way compromise the modesty of Miss Sprague, which he greatly admired," but felt obliged to mention that "she was one of the kind that a teacher always likes to have in his classes, . . . highly honorable, conscientious, full of fun," but never allowing "fun" to interfere "with her duty." The Professor further declares that he is not surprised at Miss Sprague's success, and remarks that he understands that "the Newark people are as much gratified over her success as if they themselves had written the book." A more enterprising correspondent of the same paper has done better than this, and had an interview with Miss Sprague herself, in company with "a prominent citizen of Newark." He describes the father of the novelist as "a wealthy, intelligent, well-educated gentleman," and the family as consisting of "three sons and two daughters, the latter element being the more prominent" The "Sprague girls," it seems, have always been "popular in Newark society"; but whether the cause of this popularity is to be found in the intelligence for which they have both been noted, or in "their independence in wearing what they please without regard to fashion," is not stated. Miss Sprague's life, strange to say, has been "an uneventful

* 'An Earnest Trifler.' Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1879.

one," hitherto. The interviewer goes on to draw a striking picture of Miss Sprague's personal appearance, describing her "form," her eyes, etc., and finally her dress—"a neat-fitting black silk trimmed with velvet, buttoned close up to the throat and supplemented by a white linen collar."

No one could read a novel by Miss Sprague after this introduction to the world without a lively interest in the work. To tell the honest truth, 'An Earnest Trifler' is a clever little love-story of a sort that a clever woman knows best how to tell. Rachel Guerrin, the heroine, is a New England girl, living in a secluded village, through which a railroad has been laid out. Two engineers come to the place, representing two types familiar to novel readers—one the strong, earnest man, given to deep and overwhelming feelings, but poor at the expression of them; the other a gay young butterfly, charming in conversation, agreeable to women from his gayety and society, but more given to expression than to emotion. With Rachel both of these gentlemen fall in love, and, of course, the strong, earnest man marries her. It is just at this point that we are rather disappointed in Miss Sprague's novel. It appears from one of the newspaper accounts from which we have been quoting that Miss Sprague is studying in the style of James and Howells. What resemblance there is between the style of James and that of Howells we are at a loss to guess, but in Miss Sprague's disposition of her heroine's fortunes she has certainly not followed Mr. James's method. If 'An Earnest Trifler' had been written by the latter it is an absolute certainty that Rachel would not have married the strong, earnest man. She might possibly have married his rival, or not have been allowed to marry any one at all; but the strong, earnest man would never have married her. Again, if Miss Sprague is emulating Howells and James, it ought to be brought to her notice that they write better English than she does. The distinction between the proper and improper use of "will" and "shall" and "would" and "should" may possibly not be regarded by the Cleveland Female Seminary as a necessary part of an Ohio young lady's education, and we shall therefore say no more about it, except to mention that the use of these auxiliaries is one of the old-fashioned tests still applied by cis-Alleghanian criticism to English composition, just as the use of the knife at the table as a cutting instrument solely is among old-fashioned people a test of breeding. There are a good many other faults in Miss Sprague's English that we could point out, but it is hardly worth while. 'An Earnest Trifler' is a slight story by a clever young lady, who has, as many other clever young people of both sexes have done, put into it all that life has yet taught her. But in the nature of things it cannot have taught them much. It may reveal to them something of the nature of the feminine heart and mind, and this is exactly what it has done for Miss Sprague. Her Rachel Guerrin is an attractive picture of a girl brought up, as so many girls are brought up nowadays, in a remote and sequestered corner of the world, but admitted through literature of all kinds to a vicarious knowledge of men and cities. Her relations with her two lovers are well described, and her conversation is always bright. Indeed, it is in dialogue that Miss Sprague is at her best. Her conversations are always lively, if possibly a little too witty for real life. But the other characters are not good. The strong, earnest man does not justify the intense interest he excites in Rachel's breast, and though Halstead is much better, it is really Halstead in the act of flirting with Rachel that makes up most of his character as we see it. These flirtations are certainly admirable, but flirtation does not alone make a novel. No attempt is made at narration, so that it is impossible to say what Miss Sprague could do in that way, and there can hardly be said to be any plot. Under these circumstances it is impossible to tell what Miss Sprague will prove capable of in future. If she will take our advice, she will fear Ohio critics, especially when bringing editorial tribute, and go on as she has begun, learning what she can from life, as lately from her instructors at the Cleveland Female Seminary, and telling in turn only what she knows.

Miss Fothergill is already favorably known to novel-readers as the author of the 'First Violin,' which was noticed in these columns at the time of its first appearance. The two stories do not possess many traits in common beyond the author's simple, natural style. 'Probation' concerns itself, of course, with love; this time not with love in the æsthetic atmosphere of a German musical capital, but amid the prosaic surroundings of a Lancashire cotton-factory. Myles Heywood—an intelligent young man and an employee in this factory—of very humble birth, obstinate temper, strong ambition, and excellent character, falls in love with Adrienne Blisset, the half-English, half-European niece of old Mr. Blisset, who has come to spend the evening of his life in the town in which the mill is situated. Myles makes the acquaintance of Miss Blisset at the town library, and protects her from the insults of a brutal but well-to-do young man, whom he afterwards thrashes soundly at the "Club." Sebastian Mallory, the young owner of the factory, returns from foreign travel, and also falls in love with Miss Blisset, and asks her to marry him. She, however, is all the time in love with Myles; and finally, after that young man has been through terrible sufferings, marries him. Adrienne is drawn well, and so, too, is Myles Heywood. With the great people of the story, however, the author is less successful. Sebastian is rather a woman's man, while his mother's pride and contempt for the "lower classes" seem to be overdone. Miss Fothergill has rather injured the effect of the otherwise well-imagined love-story of Miles and Adrienne by bringing in Myles's family, who are on a social level so far below that of the heroine that her marrying one of them seems almost out of the question. We cannot help, too, from this and various other indications, suspecting the author of a desire to make her novel a demonstration of the moral superiority of the poor and humbly-born to the rich and well-born. However, in this we may do her wrong, as Sebastian Mallory is undoubtedly a good character, and Helena Spenceley also turns out well, after adversity has softened her. The story itself is clumsily and heavily managed, as was that of the 'First Violin.' Description and dialogue are Miss Fothergill's *forte*, as is the case with most of her sister novelists.

'Hope Mills' is a co-operative novel. One of the principal lessons taught by it is that enterprises which fail when carried on upon the basis of individual ownership and responsibility may be made profitable when managed on that of industrial partnership. Particularly is this true when the new management is in the hands of a spirited young fellow like Jack Darcy; and when he once puts his hand to the plough we have as little doubt that his balance-sheet will prove a favorable one as that he will ultimately marry the beautiful Irene Lawrence, and not Miss Barry, the latter being from the outset clearly destined by the author for Frederick Lawrence, the quondam school-fellow and friend of Jack, whose character is first spoiled by prosperity and then made over again by adversity and Miss Barry. There is nothing very original or interesting about 'Hope Mills'; but its effect, if any, on the stock of mills carried on in the non-co-operative way would be depressing.

'His Majesty, Myself' is good enough to excite regret that it is not better. It is an expansion of a short story that appeared a year or more ago in *Scribner's Monthly*, and bears the evidences of such treatment, its normal limits being somewhere between those of its two forms. The hero of the story, a deformed and suffering genius, assumes in the novel the functions of a Greek chorus, explaining the other characters with effusion and admiring the action with ecstasy. Although we are unable to enter into this enthusiasm so far as to mistake the lay figures of the book for real flesh and blood, there is no small power shown in their first sketching in and in the beginnings of their development, and we are somewhat disappointed to find that anything more than this, which may be called in reality only a rather indefinite statement of the problem of the book, is a little beyond the author's scope. The characters are numerous, as they should be to allow of seven deaths, but skilfully managed enough to seem more numerous than they are, and to give the principal quartette the air of living in the world. It should be said that the author evidently had a serious purpose in writing his (or her) book, and that he looks at life far more seriously than the authors of better novels have sometimes done.

Those who have given a warm welcome to Miss Phelps's former books will probably find a place for her latest, a collection of short stories mainly reprinted from the monthly magazines, and called, from the title of the first, 'Sealed Orders.' Miss Phelps excels in stories of kindly and lonely women, for the most part single, warped into an eccentricity that is quaint and amiable by a narrow life withdrawn from all the realities and activities of the world save the important exception of charity. The best of these stories is of such a woman, a poor dressmaker without friends, who becomes, through her goodness to all who need a helping hand at the boarding-house where she lives, the central figure and main-stay of them all, albeit quite unconsciously. She tells her own story, and yet leaves the impression of this unconsciousness, a difficult artistic accomplishment, for which Miss Phelps ought to have a long mark; witness the failure of Dickens in 'Bleak House.' 'The True Story of Guinever' has

'Probation: A Novel. By Jessie Fothergill.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1879. (Leisure-Hour Series, No. 108.)

'Hope Mills; or, Between Friend and Sweetheart. By Amanda M. Douglas.' Boston: Lee & Shepard; New York: Charles T. Dillingham. 1880.

'His Majesty, Myself.' No-Name Series. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

'Sealed Orders. By Elizabeth Stuart Phelps.' Boston: Roberts Brothers.

nothing to do with anything real, but is prettily fanciful. Queen Guinever, who is in this case the charming little wife of a master carpenter, is saved just on the brink of the catastrophe, and, with her sorrowful lesson fully learned, brought back to happiness again. A somewhat similar but less successfully told story is 'The Lady of Shalott.' The heroine of 'Running a Risk' needs to be told sharply that the only risk she runs is in consequence of her selfishness and sentimentality. The remaining tales are more or less marred by a meagreness of observation and experience, and by strained expressions of strained modes of thinking, which produce an unpleasant effect of what we may paradoxically call the eccentricity of commonplace.

'Doctor Hildreth' is almost spoiled by eccentricities of all kinds. The doctor is a peremptory little man of the kindest intentions, who avenges the irritations of life upon his phlegmatic and mentally amorphous wife. Besides these the materials of a conventional love-story are eked out with a match-making mamma, her two marriageable daughters, the conquering hero and his rival, the heroine with a French companion who has had "a past" and does the heavy villany, an old-maid aunt, two robbers and a tramp.

It is difficult to make out whether the object of the author of 'True as Steel' was mainly literary or moral, and this in itself raises an objection to the book. The scene is laid in France before and during the Franco-Prussian war, and the hero of the story is M. Clodion, the head of the Verified-Title Department in a certain Government office. His life is one long piece of self-sacrifice, which ends in his having himself shot instead of his nephew, who has been condemned to death by a German officer. The idea of a life of unrequited self-sacrifice is not an unfamiliar one in French fiction. Such masters of the art as Balzac and Droz have both made use of it in their own way: but it is one which requires consummate ability in handling. The difficulty with Madame Colomb's way of managing it is that she fails to make it interesting. M. Clodion is undoubtedly a very good man, and meets his self-inflicted death with true nobility; but this is not enough. A mere statement of the facts of the case does not arouse our sympathies. Owing to the unfortunate constitution of the human mind goodness as such is not interesting. The struggle of a man to save his own life may be very exciting; so may be his struggle to save another's. But the mere fact that A., being at liberty and in no danger of death, substitutes himself for B., and dies in his stead, is a very different matter. Unexplained it may excite curiosity, and might thus, in the hands of a Gaboriau or a Collins, serve as the groundwork of some blood-curdling tale of crime and love. When it is explained by the fact that the hero is a truly good man, the story, as in this case, too nearly suggests a syllogism: All truly good men die for their nephews; M. Clodion was a truly good man; therefore, M. Clodion died for his nephew. But we know very well that the major premiss is not true. We are willing to admit that some truly good men may die for their nephews, and that M. Clodion was a truly good man; but the conclusion that he necessarily dies for his nephew does not follow. In order that this logical hiatus may be bridged, we must have a vivid picture of the internal struggle in M. Clodion's mind which leads to his voluntary death. We must be taken into his confidence and made to feel that it is a very great and terrible struggle that leads to this tragic result. Instead of this, the reader at the end of the book is rather in the position of Combaleuf, who observes that "it was just like him," as if M. Clodion had been in the habit of dying for his nephew from time to time.

The Bible of To-day. A Course of Lectures by John W. Chadwick, Minister of the Second Unitarian Church in Brooklyn, N. Y. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1879.)—These lectures are eight in number, four treating of the Old Testament, one of the Apocrypha, and three of the New Testament. They were written during the winter of 1877–78—for the author's "own people"—and published "with the hope of propagating their ideas somewhat beyond the circle" of the original audience. Mr. Chadwick's object in preparing them for the press was "to condense into a single volume, modest in size and cost, the principal results of the best historical and scientific criticism of the separate books of the Bible, and of their mutual relations." For this volume he lays no claim "to any virtue of original research or exhaustive presentation," but he justly trusts that it will be found "at once compact and comprehensive."

As to the Old Covenant, Mr. Chadwick's standpoint is sufficiently defined by the bare mention of his chosen leader, Kuenen; it is the standpoint of general radicalism, of revolutionary subversion—not in obedience to temper or the behests of a formula, but to the dictates of thoroughgoing scientific enquiry, strict and logical, which overlooks no detail and shrinks from no generalization. The main conclusions reached by this school, which has become simultaneously flourishing in Holland and Germany—having in the latter country risen from Vatke, through Zunz, to Graf and Wellhausen—will be startling enough to nine-tenths of Mr. Chadwick's best-prepared readers. Let us state some of them: Moses is not the author of the Pentateuch—either of the chapter which relates his death, or of those which describe the creation of the world, or of the accounts of the lawgiver's own career; in fact, not of a single chapter. Moses was not the founder of Hebrew monotheism; he was no monotheist. The so-called Law of Moses is not his. The oldest parts of the Pentateuch were written, and not exactly as we have them, hundreds of years after his death; Deuteronomy, the first Book of the Law, was given to the people more than eight hundred years after the date commonly assigned to his death; the bulk of the Pentateuch, embracing portions of Genesis and Exodus, and almost all of Leviticus and Numbers, was composed a thousand years after that date. Most of the Levitical legislation was unknown before the Babylonian captivity. Joshua is neither the author of the book named after him nor the organizer of the Hebrew commonwealth. Samuel was a soothsayer, and his Jehovah a cruel god. David was neither wiser nor better, and the whole of his history is opposed to the notion of his having written a single one of the one hundred and fifty psalms. Nor did Solomon write the book of Proverbs or a part of it, or any of the books ascribed to him. The prophets Elijah and Elisha combated the worship of Baal, but they had no rebuke for the worship of Jehovah under the form of a young bull, as practised at Bethel.

The first historically-known representatives of pure monotheism are Amos and Hosea, closely followed by Isaiah and Micah. Israelitish monotheism, with its higher ethics, had gradually and slowly been developed; it became triumphant in the nation in the time of Josiah, about 620 B.C., when Jerusalem was made the exclusive centre of worship, and Deuteronomy was promulgated as the Law of God. But this reformation was also a victory of the priestly spirit in Israel over the free prophetic; and formalism, as soon after developed in the captivity—by men like Ezekiel against men like "the Great Unknown" of Is. xl.–lxvi.—finally rose to the dimensions of the Levitical legislation introduced by Ezra and Nehemiah, under Persian dominion, about 450 B.C. The Pentateuch was then complete, and all of it was falsely ascribed to Moses and direct divine revelation. The tragic end of Josiah's reign, the destruction of the Temple by the Chaldeans, the Babylonian captivity, and utter powerlessness under the Persians had brought about a general decay, which glaringly manifests itself in a comparison of the prophets of the Persian period, Haggai, Zechariah, and Malachi, with the prophets of the eighth century B.C., Amos and his followers. As Ezra's Pentateuch falsified the history of Israel's origin, so, two centuries later, Chronicles falsified the history of the kings; pious priestly motives inspired both transactions. As patriotic and religious ardor had induced the Deuteronomist to cover himself with the garb of Moses, so the Apocalyptic writer of the time of the Maccabees presented himself under the mask of Daniel. Judaism became Talmudical. New doctrines, concerning immortality, resurrection, angels and devils, paradise and hell, were introduced. These and Messianic expectations paved the way for Christianity.

Having thus epitomized Mr. Chadwick's outlines of the religious and literary history of Israel, even beyond the sphere of the Old Testament, we expect to be asked, Does the author prove all these startling points concerning the Hebrew Scriptures? To this we must answer, He does not, nor does he pretend to do so. Piles of books and dissertations were needed gradually to mature the critical results which Mr. Chadwick lays before his public in his first four lectures, and in these there is no room for even an epitome of the arguments. Our author's presentation of the main parts of his subject is both thorough and lucid. His diction, always energetic, is for us sometimes too much so; his delineations of traits are occasionally too vivid, his praise and blame too much accented; here and there his tone reminds us of Oort, Kuenen's foremost disciple, who so often reflects the intrinsically combative tenor of his master's 'Religion of Israel,' and so seldom the Socratic placidity of his 'Prophets and Prophecy in Israel.' Most of these remarks hold good also of Mr. Chadwick's treatment of New Testament topics, which, on the whole, however, will appear to his readers less novel, and comparatively almost conservative. It demands no full statement here.

'Doctor Hildreth. By Alfred Ludlow White.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.
'True as Steel. By Madame Colomb. Translated by Henry Frith.' With illustrations. London and New York: George Routledge & Sons.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 29, 1880.

The Week.

THE Senate has confirmed Mr. Lowell's nomination as Minister to England, together with the other nominations connected with his transfer from Spain. Of general business it has done little, except to discuss Mr. Bayard's resolution concerning the greenbacks, whose chief opponent was the senator from Kentucky. Mr. Beck did Mr. Bayard the service of recalling the fact that in May, 1878, when the act was passed forbidding the further retirement of legal-tender notes, the latter moved an amendment in the spirit and terms of the present resolution. For the rest he indulged in a free use of demagogic talk about the dictation of the money power; declared it "absolute folly" to doubt that the greenbacks would always be as good as coin; and in the same breath admitted that he believed their issue to have been unconstitutional, and hinted at the irregularity of the Supreme Court decision as to the war-issue, to which, nevertheless, he submitted, and would "make the most of it." Mr. Bayard made a masterly rejoinder on Tuesday. In the House the inflationists took fright at their own bill in regard to metallic bank-reserves, saw contraction in it, and refused it a third reading by 158 to 78. The hard-money men generally voted for it, and fifty-six of the seventy-eight yeas were Republicans. Mr. Kelley's resolution denouncing commercial treaties obtained a two-thirds vote on Monday. The question remains, What can the House do if the Senate and the Executive disregard its protest? The contingency is, however, remote enough. General debate on the new rules came to a close on Thursday.

Things have undergone very little change in Maine. The Republican Legislature still occupy the State-house, while the Fusionists meet in melancholy fashion in their hall; but there appears to be increasing difficulty in keeping the latter together. They have drawn up a list of questions, addressed to the Supreme Court, touching their own status, and affixed the great seal of the State to the application for an answer to them, but the judges have formally declined to recognize their existence as a body having any legal pretensions to be the genuine and duly elected Legislature, and "Governor" Smith is reported to be laying aside his unsupported title with great cheerfulness. All these submissions of disputed points to the Supreme Court have been deprived of a good deal of efficacy by the fact that there has never been any formal agreement between the disputants as to the facts, so that the Supreme Court has hitherto decided on assumptions which might or might not be true.

The Republicans have belittled themselves and their position during the week by calling out the militia, garrisoning the State-house, and commanding the front gate with a Gatling gun. This performance seems to have been the result of a hoax got up by some of the Fusionist wags. It appears to have been so successful that the Associated Press telegraphed all over the country that "triangular pieces of white paper" had been stuck on the doors of Republican houses in Augusta to mark them out for the torch of the Fusionist incendiary. As Mr. Blaine is the superintendent of the Republican operations, this awful mark must have excited the lurid imagination which so often has followed the murderous tracks of Ben Hill and the Brigadiers. For two or three days it seemed as if the "outrages" of the coming canvass would be supplied by Maine. The probability of use for the militia is declared not to be over yet, however. The Legislature is said to have passed a bill punishing theft of the State seal, public papers, etc., under which it is thought it will be possible to catch all the conspirators. As the seal and papers (returns) were removed before the act was passed it is, of course, inoperative with respect to the theft. But it also legislates against those who, having the same, shall fail to return them, as well as against the use of the seal by unauthorized persons. Now, it is intended, when all arrangements are made, to order Sawyer (the ex-Secretary of State) and "Governor" Smith, if he holds out to the end, to surrender the seal, etc. If they refuse, they are to be arrested; and if their friends resist, there will be a row.

We notice that the same nefarious ubiquity which is well known to be a characteristic of Mr. Tilden is beginning to be attributed to Secretary Sherman, though of course in a less degree. The New York *Times*, which was, we believe, the discoverer of the trait in Mr. Tilden, is naturally the first to get on the scent of Mr. Sherman's schemes, and shows them up with unction. It has ascertained that the Secretary "commenced his campaign for the Presidency" as soon as Mr. Hayes was inaugurated, and has since then had the support of the President. Considering the fact that Mr. Sherman long ago announced his candidacy, and that there is no other Hayes Republican in the field, there seems nothing improbable in either of these statements. But the *Times* also learns that the Sherman canvass is being managed as skilfully as possible, and that in all manner of direct and indirect ways the influence of the Administration is made to assist it. Only Sherman men are appointed to important positions, and the Treasury patronage is used "in the most barefaced way." Special agents are travelling in the South at the Government expense and starting Sherman clubs. Several specific instances are mentioned, and a letter of a special agent advocating "the claims" of his chief to the Chicago nomination has actually "fallen into" the hands of a *Times* correspondent. Meantime the Custom-house here is being "fixed," under the thin disguise of enforcing civil-service rules which are so applied as to "clean out the old fellows." The report that Grant would write a letter to the Pennsylvania Convention which assembles next week, declining to be considered a Presidential candidate, is also described as "a scheme gotten up in the interest of Secretary Sherman," to whom, moreover, the *Times* applies the same opprobrious stigma that was found so apt in Tilden's case—"restless activity," namely.

Mr. Voorhees is probably not disappointed with the result of his enquiries thus far as to the causes of the recent emigration from North Carolina; and if he could confine them to that State it might be well for "the party." During the week his committee has examined the President and Secretary of the Washington Emigrant Aid Society, from whose testimony it appears that the founders of that organization knew of no particular hardships among the negroes of North Carolina, and do not now know of any except the system of "store orders" and an assumed poverty-stricken soil; that they diverted the emigrants from Kansas to Indiana on the flattering representations of one J. H. Walker, an active Republican politician and United States mail agent at Terre Haute; and that they "incidentally" mentioned in their circulars what a good thing it would be, by making an early start, to elude the census-taker and so diminish the representation of North Carolina, while increasing the Republican strength in Indiana. This gave them a solid claim to Republican support in their appeals for aid. Still better evidence of the artificial character of the movement came from the Southern passenger-agent of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, who had gone down to North Carolina to help the exodus along and secure it for his road exclusively. Like the agents of other roads, he had arranged with the real promoters of this business, the colored men Evans, Perry, and Williams, at so much per head for

all the passengers they could deliver, and he would cheerfully make the same terms for transporting them back in case they became dissatisfied with Indiana. Evans had been working for upwards of a year through mass-meetings and secret societies, and the use of the Washington Society appears to be to keep the promise of his circulars that emigrants on arriving in that city shall receive clothes and transportation northward. As for Perry, he is said by the same witness to have been forced to leave the State suddenly under a charge of forging school certificates.

The House Committee on Military Affairs has made majority and minority reports in the usual fashion on General Fitz-John Porter's case. The majority recommend his restoration to the Army and the payment to him of between $50,000 and $60,000 arrears of pay, after a recital of the facts as found by the late Advisory Board. The minority refuse to pay any attention to the evidence produced since the first trial in the shape of surveys of the battle-field and the testimony of Confederate officers, on the ground that it is not "proper" to do so. They hold that Porter distrusted General Pope and did not obey his orders on the 29th of July, but refuse to pay any attention to the opinion of the Military Board as to the lawfulness and expediency of a corps commander doing so under the circumstances. They consider it foul scorn to take "Confederate testimony and Confederate reports to determine the right or wrong of the actions of a Union corps commander in battle so as to justify his restoration to the Army and the receipt of a large money reward." The breakdown of that portion of the case against Porter which charged him with shirking on the 30th while his brother commanders were resisting heavy attacks, under the production of evidence showing that the bulk of the fighting on that day was done by him and his corps, they dispose of by declaring that the reference of the Board to the events of that day, as favorable to Porter, "is foreign and out of place, and has no pertinence whatever; that it simply vindicates the patriotism and bravery of the soldiers, not their commander." In other words, they think reference to those events on Porter's trial for the purpose of blasting his character was all right, but reference to them for the purpose of vindicating him is damnable and impertinent. Like Dr. Johnson in reporting Parliamentary debates, it is their business to see that, whatever happens, "the Whig dogs get the worst of it."

The conclusion of the report is very bouffe in sound, but is produced seriously. It recommends "the remission of the remainder of the unexecuted sentence" which disqualifies Porter from holding office under the Government, and concedes that this is an illogical recommendation, but justifies it by the fact that all "persons formerly in arms against the United States have been amnestied and pardoned, and the removal of disabilities for offences as dangerous as his to the perpetuity of the Union are of daily occurrence," and deduces from these premises the conclusion "that the reasons of the minority for their action in the Porter case are obvious." These majority and minority Congressional reports make many a man a little ashamed of having his conduct regulated by the human mind; but this particular minority report is somewhat mitigated in its absurdity by the observations of the New York *Times*, which evidently sympathizes with it. That journal opposes Porter's restoration to the active list of the Army and his receipt of back pay, on the ground that during the past seventeen years since his dismissal he has been successfully engaged in professional pursuits in civil life. The fact is, we understand, that General Porter has had great difficulty during that period in supporting his family in any pursuit, for the simple reason that the sentence of the court-martial sent him out into the world as an infamous man, who had betrayed his country and his comrades in the hour of trial, and who was, therefore, regarded by the bulk of the community as unworthy of all confidence. We believe he had to relinquish one situation in the West owing to the insults to which he was exposed in the ordinary course of his business. So that his seventeen years of professional pursuits have really been a piece of prolonged torture, which nothing but extraordinary courage and fortitude would have enabled him to endure. To point to the fact that he has lived through it as a reason why he should not now receive even the money he lost by an unjust sentence, is even more grotesque than the conclusion of the minority report. We say all this, it is proper to add, with but the slightest possible acquaintance with General Porter, whom we never even saw until after the decision of the Advisory Board.

The report of the special Railroad Committee of the Assembly is, as was to have been expected, a voluminous one; but it is also clear, suggestive, and, so far as it goes, practical beyond the reports of many legislative committees of special investigation. Whether it results in anything useful or not, it serves as an excellent illustration of the kind of work in which legislators can, at all events, be least harmfully employed, and the statistical enquiry and collection of which, if systematically followed out, must very soon substantially improve the value of legislative sessions. The report is, in brief, a presentation in detail of the railway question as it at present stands in this State, and of the inferences which it seems to the Committee are naturally to be drawn from the testimony taken. The most important parts of it may be summarized as follows: Advantageously as New York and Brooklyn are situated, they greatly lack terminal facilities, and the important lighterage charge is a direct tax on transportation without being a benefit to anybody but the lighter-owners; so that, whereas the railroads are in no need of subsidies, they do need better terminal facilities, and the Committee think these should be secured by a co-operative private effort, with, however, "possible exercise of authority." As to rates, the already familiar facts are recited, the unjust and arbitrary discriminations strongly condemned, and the opinion expressed that secret rates should be forbidden. "Competition among railroads as a regulator of freight tariff is a failure." The possible exercise by the roads of vast political power is called "an unanswerable argument in favor of instituting governmental supervision." It is admitted that a road "must be run by brains and not by legislation," but to the plea of counsel that in guarding the interests of its stockholders it will regulate itself, the very excellent objection is made that railroads are by no means invariably run in the interest of the stockholders. For these and many other reasons the introduction of "a public element" is advised, and a commission accordingly recommended. The temper of the report, it is to be noticed, is throughout conservative, and its most positive recommendations are offered with caution and a realization of the difficulties involved in executing them.

Accompanying the report are six bills, one of which establishes a Railroad Commission of moderate functions, and with a capacity for usefulness which perhaps lies chiefly in the power to secure publicity for the acts and accounts of the companies. It is proposed that the Commissioners be three in number, holding office for five, four, and three years respectively, and provided with a clerk authorized to issue subpœnas for witnesses and administer oaths, and a marshal to serve notices; having their offices at Albany, with perhaps a branch in this city; and invested with "the general supervision of all railroads and railways." They are to examine these roads and keep informed of "their condition and the manner in which they are operated, with reference to the security and accommodation of the public, and the compliance of the several corporations with the provisions of their charters and the laws of the State"; to investigate accidents and report on them in their annual report; to notify the corporations in writing of their failure to comply with the law or any usurpation of authority, and to present their neglect to heed the notice to the Attorney-General for his action; to notify them likewise of necessary repairs or increased facilities or salutary changes of rates or fares, with the same recourse to the Attorney-General. They can also call for any desired information and for copies of all contracts and engagements; and they may prescribe

the form of the report now required to be made by the corporations, and must prepare from them tables and abstracts to be incorporated in their annual report. Finally, they are to draft "such bills as will, in their judgment, protect the people's interest in and upon the railways of this State." As in Massachusetts, the expenses of the Board are to be borne by the companies, and a maximum of $40,000—$45,000 for the first year—is assigned.

The New York Court of Appeals has reversed the ruling of the Extraordinary General Term in the Nichols case, and decided, in brief, that the action of the Mayor in removing officers of the city government is reviewable by the courts. His power of removal, the decision also affirms, is not an arbitrary one, but is to be exercised only upon just and reasonable grounds and after due notice to and hearing of the accused official. What the effect will be upon the particular case in question is of much less importance, of course, than its obvious bearings upon the opportunities and responsibilities of the Mayor in his administration of the city government.

The principal financial events of the week were (1) the sale, by the syndicate which bought in November last 250,000 shares of N. Y. Central & Hudson stock from Mr. W. H. Vanderbilt, of 200,000 shares of the same at an average of $133 per share; the price paid in November was $120 per share. The whole 250,000 shares were offered here and in London to the highest bidders; the remaining fifth was withdrawn. (2) The consolidation of the Union Pacific, the Kansas Pacific, and the Denver Pacific companies into one, to be known as the Union Pacific Railway Co.; all these roads now come under the control of Jay Gould, who also controls the Wabash system, and appears to be making rapid progress towards the completion of the transcontinental road which has always been regarded as the dream of an ambitious man. (3) The sale, by Mr. C. P. Huntington, of 50,000 shares of Central Pacific stock, with the privilege to the buyers of taking 50,000 shares additional. The buyers are a syndicate of Stock Exchange people, who have undertaken to popularize the stock in this market. One of the reasons why Mr. Huntington sells the stock is supposed to be to get cash with which to extend the Chesapeake & Ohio, and to forward the construction of the Southern Pacific. In addition to these events there have been continued negotiations to complete the union of the St. Louis & San Francisco, and the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé roads in the work of extending their lines to the Pacific coast under the old Atlantic & Pacific charter. The Vanderbilt or N. Y. Central interest has given fresh proof during the week of its friendliness for the Erie by making an arrangement by which the Eries increases its business from Buffalo as well as its New England business. These important events have furnished fuel for the speculative fire in Wall Street, and have been sufficient in their influence on prices to overcome the unfavorable effect of a bad bank statement. The notable event in which the Stock Exchange is, in company with mercantile interests, only indirectly interested, was the break-down in the "bull speculation" in wheat, hog products, and cotton. This was immediately followed by a decline in the rates for foreign exchange; and should this "bull speculation" be utterly routed, a renewal of gold imports from Europe is to be expected. The price of silver bullion in London advanced during the week to 52¾*d.* per oz. The bullion value here of the "buzzard dollar" at the close of the week was $0.8817.

Talmage on Sunday week "recalled" in his pulpit the assertion he had made in the same place that "materials" had been put into his hands which would enable him to show the "moral rottenness" of the ministers who accused him before the Presbytery. He evidently thinks that by so doing he leaves matters as they were before he made the charge; but in this he is undoubtedly mistaken. Retracting or "recalling" a charge may be all that would be necessary to atone for an insult; but a minister cannot get out of a scrape of this kind in this way. The question still remains, Did he or did he not tell a lie when he said he had proof of the "moral rottenness" of his accusers? If he had not such proof, he did tell a lie in his pulpit on Sunday, and a lie of a peculiarly atrocious kind, which cannot be "recalled." If he had such proof, he is bound to produce it before a proper tribunal, so as to rid the ministry of the thirteen or eighteen villains who have been assailing him. We trust these gentlemen will follow him up, and force the Church either to own him or disown him.

Apropos of the Jewish controversy, so well summarized by our correspondent in Berlin on another page, a Bremen paper has presented the geographical distribution of the Jews in Europe in some striking tables. Arranging the countries in the order in which this population abounds, Poland heads the list with 13.7 per cent., Austria-Hungary follows with 3.8, Rumania 3.6, Russia (including Finland) 2.8, the Netherlands 1.9, Germany 1.2, and Turkey 1 per cent. But, on the other hand, the absolute numbers (out of a total of 5,000,000 European Jews) give Russia 1,829,000, Austria 1,376,000, Poland 783,000, and Germany only 511,000, while, dividing the various peoples into ethnologic groups, we find in the Romance but 89,000 Jews, in the Germanic 842,000, and in the Slavic (*i.e.*, Russia and Finland, Poland, Hungary, Rumania, Servia, Turkey, and Greece) 4,047,000. The corresponding percentages are respectively 0.1, 0.79, and 3.6. Their peculiar concentration—eastward in the Germanic group, westward in the Slavic—creates a zone of greatest density extending from the lower Danube to the Baltic. There is a noticeable tendency on their part to flock to the most populous centres, so that in Berlin, for instance, from 1861 to 1871 the number of Jews was nearly doubled, while during the same period there was a falling off of about 16 per cent. in Posen. Bremen, in which the laws against them have been repressive and even prohibitory down to a very recent date, naturally shows a much smaller proportion (0.5 per cent. in 1871) than Hamburg (4.1 per cent.) or Frankfort (9.8 per cent.)

The news from Afghanistan a week ago was very cheerful, almost as cheerful as after the battle of Char-Asiab. General Roberts reported that the chiefs were coming in and making their submission; that the inhabitants had returned to Kabul, and that supplies were plentiful; that it was agreed on all hands that the last combination which had made the attack on the cantonment was the most formidable ever seen in Afghanistan, and that having failed, another attempt at resistance was very unlikely. This week the accounts have changed in character, showing clearly that the real state of the country is no better known at the British headquarters than it was before the Cavagnari tragedy or after the capture of Kabul. It is now announced that Mohammed Jan *is* preparing another combination, that he expects to attack early in March, and that Ghazni, which he holds, and where he has Mousa, Akbar Khan's grandson, is the centre of hostile intrigues against British rule, and may be the base of the next movement. Moreover, the winter hardships are telling heavily on the troops both in Shirpur and along the line of communication with Peshawur. There is no news as yet of Abderrahman Khan, Shir Ali's nephew, and the ablest claimant of the succession, who has long been the guest of the Russians, who wickedly made him an annual allowance, which he saved. He has made his escape from their hospitality, with the view, it is feared or believed, of setting up the standard of revolt somewhere. A possible programme has been telegraphed to the London *Times*, which is supposed to emanate from the Viceroy, according to which the British force would shortly retire to Jalalabad and Kandahar, and from these points observe without interference the Afghan attempts to set up a government, leaving subsequent action to be determined by circumstances. Whether this scheme is really entertained or is merely put out as a feeler, seems still uncertain. The hanging of prisoners has ceased, and the restrictions on correspondents have been withdrawn.

SCIENCE AND TRADE.

THE present uncertain condition of Mr. Edison's experimentation with the electric light, following close on an announcement that he had solved the problem of divisibility and cheapness, ought to be a warning to investors in these days of remarkable discoveries and inventions, not to be too hasty in accepting news from "the scientific world." There was a fall in the stock of gas companies, both here and in England, on the announcement made through the press, on information apparently furnished by himself or his assistants, that Mr. Edison had succeeded in producing an inexpensive electric lamp, and there was an enormous rise in the stock of a company formed before the invention was announced, to exploit it. This stock is said at one time to have reached $3,500; within a few days it fell one-half, and we do not know where it stands at this moment. We have undoubtedly reached a period in which remarkable inventions and discoveries may be looked for every year in great numbers, and probably in larger numbers in this country than in any other, because not only does the national genius seem to have a bent in that direction, but the application of science to the industrial arts has perhaps fewer rivals here than anywhere else in claiming the national attention. The industrial type bears undisputed sway among us. The number of inventors at work here, too, is unusually great, and the results of their work are very remarkable. But the inventor is nowhere else followed so closely and remorselessly by the speculator, and the speculator cares very little whether the invention or discovery is a really valuable one or not. His first object is to get stock on the market and get rid of it, and the first accounts of it are therefore pretty sure to emanate from him or be colored by him. The main defence of the public against imposition in this field must be found in the caution and integrity of scientific men. In too many cases hitherto the alliance between the scientific man and the speculator has ended in some kind of fraud or deception being practised on the public—that is to say, the speculator has too often succeeded in making the scientific man's dicta cover more ground than they were intended to cover, and excite expectations which they were never intended to excite, with a resulting explosion in which the speculator got all the money and the scientific man all the odium. The most striking examples of the evils and dangers of this alliance have hitherto occurred in the mining industry, but they have had the good effect of putting mining experts on their guard, and there are few of them now of any repute who care to furnish a vendor of mineral wealth with an opinion to be tacked on to the prospectus and used in the stock market.

Mr. Edison has done one or two very remarkable things in the field of discovery, and things well calculated to excite considerable expectations with regard to his powers. But he had done nothing to warrant the disregard of what may be called the decencies of research with which he entered on the pursuit of the cheap electric light. A "correct and authoritative account" by his "Mathematician," Mr. Francis Upton, endorsed by Mr. Edison himself, appears in the last *Scribner's Monthly*, and in it the conditions under which he began this pursuit are described with curious frankness. He was aware, he admits, that he was about to attack the value of $400,000,000 invested in gas-works in this country, and $500,000,000 in England, not to speak of other countries, but he mentions this not as a reason for caution and reticence in communicating the results of his work to the public, but by way of accounting for the ease with which he obtained $100,000 from capitalists in New York to enable him to prosecute his researches.

The Mathematician traces, in the article we have referred to, the history of experimentation with the electric light down to Sawyer and Mann's incandescent carbon stick, patented in 1873. This, like all histories of experimentation, tells of various attempts, some ending in total failure and some in positive additions to antecedent knowledge, the general result of the labors of the various investigators being that a very good electric light was produced, but a very expensive one, and one that did not admit of being substituted for gas in domestic use. The way Mr. Edison regarded these labors, however, is revealed in the remark that "Mr. Edison came to the investigation unhampered by the blunders of his predecessors. He had never seen an electric light. He took hold of the subject in his usual clear-headed, practical way. Next to solving a problem, its intelligent statement is to an investigator the most important thing. Mr. Edison saw that permanence in the lamp and a subdivision in the light were the main things to be sought after." *Cheapness* is in fact the main thing, but these others are also what his predecessors saw and strove for, and which his competitors are striving for still. There is a curious *naïveté* in the production of them as discoveries of Mr. Edison's. The whole electric world, if we may use the expression, is and has long been experimenting in this direction, but probably very few experimenters would acknowledge that the valuable failures of their forerunners were blunders "which hampered them."

We do not propose here to examine what Mr. Edison has achieved in his latest experimentation. It appears certain, however, that he has not, as yet, solved the problem of furnishing the electric light more cheaply than gas, to use the Mathematician's glowing language, "in a million domestic suns to illuminate a myriad homes." He may accomplish this feat yet. The fact to which we wish to direct attention is, that he was sufficiently injudicious, not only to allow his undoubted inventive powers to be converted into the capital of a joint-stock company—in which there is by itself no impropriety—but also to allow an enormous speculation in these shares, and an enormous attack on the large body of capital invested in gas, to be developed from very incomplete information as to what was going on in his laboratory. Stories of what he had accomplished, of the correctness of which he must have had some scientific doubt, were spread by the newspapers, embellished with all the reporter's art. The solution of the problem was, in fact, announced by visitors to his laboratory, without contradiction from him, long before the durability of his carbonized paper could have been ascertained; and excursion trains actually ran to his residence, taking hundreds to see the new wonder. For what these visitors said Mr. Edison was not, perhaps, responsible in all its details, but he himself made known through the article above mentioned, which was perhaps written in December, that "his crowning discovery," the electric light for domestic use, was at last "a scientific and practical success." He doubtless made this assertion in good faith at the time, but if events have since occurred at Menlo Park, as we believe they have, proving that he was mistaken, it shows that he had not at that date completed his experiments; and that the admission of the public to his laboratory, and the exhibition of his lamps as in successful operation, was improper, in view of the possible effect of these things on the stock market.

The higher a man's reputation as an inventor or discoverer stands, the greater his responsibility towards the public—and the public includes both those whom his discoveries will directly injure and those whom they will ultimately benefit. If Mr. Edison discovers "the domestic sun" he will confer a benefit on the world with which the loss of the money invested in gas is not to be compared for a moment, and he is not bound, of course, to think of this loss for a moment. But he is bound to see that no holder of gas-stock is frightened into selling at a loss by means of false rumors emanating from his laboratory, or by false expectations created by hasty or defective experimentation; and that nobody with money to invest puts it into electric-light stock in consequence of a premature announcement that his system of lighting is, on the economic side, a perfect substitute for gas. Caution on the part of inventors, and especially inventors of great genius, such as Mr. Edison undoubtedly is, is the more imperative because the public mind is just now in a most credulous condition with regard to scientific contributions to human command over the powers of nature. People are ready to believe anything, and it must be admitted that there is in the achievements of recent years abundant excuse for this credulity. Speculators will unavoidably trade on it, but scientific men ought not to be found lending them a hand.

THE RECENT CRISIS IN AUSTRIA.

THE long struggle over the Austrian military law, which lasted through the greater part of last month, and kept the country in a ferment of excitement, has ended with the complete defeat of the Liberals, or Constitutionalists. Whether the victory for the Ministry is as complete as the defeat is for the Opposition, remains to be seen. Coalition ministries are not apt to hold together long after the common enemy is disposed of, and it is very questionable whether the curious combination presided over by Count Taaffe will not quarrel over the spoils. At present it looks as if the Bohemian question would be the rock on which it will split.

The questions on which the recent parliamentary struggle turned are simple enough. The Ministry proposed a measure by which certain sections of the military law of 1868 were continued in force for ten years from the present time. These sections fix the strength of the standing army (including navy) at 800,000 men; and under them the Reichsrath surrenders for ten years the right of initiating any changes in the strength of the army and also in the number of recruits to be mustered in during each year. The right of annually determining the number of recruits is guaranteed the Reichsrath by the constitution, and consequently a two-thirds vote was necessary to part with this right. The system whose continuance unalterably for ten years was thus demanded was adopted in 1868, when Austria took lessons from her victor and adopted the system of universal compulsory service. The Constitutionalists, the present Opposition, introduced it; and as the period of active service was fixed at three years and that of service in the reserve at seven years, ten years were granted at that time, during which the Reichsrath gave up its right of making any determinations about the army. That the reasons which demanded this abdication of constitutional rights in 1868 are no longer imperative is shown by the fact that in 1878, when the ten years were over, the grants were continued only one year. Now, however, the Ministry of Count Taaffe demanded another grant for ten years. The Constitutionalists did not find it easy to adopt a common attitude with regard to this proposal. Finally, after long and exciting debates within the party, they agreed to grant the 800,000 men for ten years on condition that the peace-footing of the army should be reduced from 252,000, the present number, to 230,000.

Of course there were military specialists enough in the House who said that such a reduction, necessarily bringing with it a reduction in the time of service and training of the recruits, would seriously impair the efficiency of the army. And was it advisable to do this at a time when the state of affairs in Europe gave so little hope of peace and tranquillity? "It is curious how threatening the outlook becomes whenever a ministry wants men or money," remarked one of the Constitutionalists. Even the recent alliance with Germany was brought forward as a pretext for strengthening the army, as if the object of the alliance were not avowedly to preserve peace and diminish the necessity of being every day ready to fight. But by far the strongest argument in favor of the bill was contained in the speech of the Minister for War (or more properly for Defence—*Landesvertheidigung*), Von Horst. He presented an imposing array of figures showing that, compared to Germany, France, Russia, and Italy, Austria had the smallest standing army (Italy excepted), the smallest peace-footing, the smallest number of annual recruits, the smallest proportion of the population under arms; that her army cost her the smallest percentage of her annual income, and the smallest sum per head of population.

To the figures presented by the Minister, which were presumably reliable and certainly very striking, the Constitutionalists opposed a simple *non possumus*. Austria's burdens may be less than those of other states, but they cannot be increased, for her means are less in proportion. It may be true that in Austria the army costs only 24 per cent. of the total public income, while the Russian army costs 43 per cent.. the French 36, the German 30, the Italian 29½. Austria has a public debt of 1,500 millions of dollars, and interest on the debt and the army together divert 60 per cent. of the national income; while something like four per cent. goes for education and one per cent. for trade and industry. Austria is a poor country. She has for years been struggling with a deficit, which has been steadily increasing since 1870, and now amounts to nine millions of dollars. The population is heavily taxed and the taxes are in arrears, especially the income-tax. Suffrage in Austria, as is well known, is based on property; and it is not a good sign to find that in the last seven years, during which the population must have increased by a million, the number of voters has become smaller by twelve thousand. It is difficult not to share the conviction expressed without much circumlocution by members of the Left, that either the debit side of the budget must be brought down to a level with the credit side, or else the country must practically declare itself bankrupt by reducing the rate of interest on the debt. That such a thing is even thought of shows in what a desperate condition Austrian finances are. An increase of income is hardly to be looked for; help must be sought in saving, in diminishing the expenses. The military expenditure is the most unproductive in the budget; yet since 1869 it has steadily increased, now by some 40 per cent. altogether. The saving in this respect that would have been effected had the proposal of the Liberals been accepted (that the peace-footing of the army be reduced to 230,000 men), amounted to only three million gulden, of which two million (a million dollars) would have fallen to the Cis-Leithan part of the Empire. But as the beginning of a new movement, as the assertion of the principle of putting an end to the constant growth of the army expenses, the importance of these two millions cannot be overestimated.

It was acknowledged that the reduction of the peace-footing, as far as it went, would be detrimental to the efficiency of the army. Some few of the Constitutionalists were, indeed, bold enough to express a suspicion that the matter might not be of such vital importance. But what could be said in answer to the military specialists, the venerable generals, who vowed that the reduction would cause the greatest possible harm? The more radical members of the Left took higher ground, and were not afraid to express opinions which were at bottom shared not only by the Liberal party, but by many outside its ranks. It had been their wish that the army itself should be reduced to 600,000 men, and it was with reluctance, and only in order to preserve unity of action, that they accepted the compromise of reducing only the peace-footing. This reduction, as well as the saving of the million effected by it, would have given a needed check to the constant and devouring growth of the military system which has spread from Prussia over all Europe. All those who took part in the recent debates acknowledged that the huge army was an evil, if a necessary one; a few had the courage to doubt its absolute necessity. The international importance of the recent struggle lies in the fact that an attempt in the direction of disarmament was made—an attempt which failed, but which, when the history of the system of universal service comes to be written, will find a place in it. The dangers, social and economical, of this system have been pointed out often enough; its close connection with the theories of the professorial socialists is plain.

Notwithstanding the great superiority of the Constitutionalists in the debate, they were beaten. On two ballots the Ministry failed to obtain the requisite two-thirds majority; at last, on a third, a few members of the Left were persuaded to change their votes, and the matter was settled till the year 1889. How this persuasion was managed is now well known. The Emperor had a confidential interview with the President of the Liberal Club; there was a private meeting of the less steadfast Liberals; the proposer of the Liberal amendment, Czedik, is promised a portfolio. What more need be said? Perhaps the Emperor really was able to give the renegade Liberals information about foreign complications which rendered the maintenance of the efficiency of the army imperatively necessary. More likely it was only "playing soldiers" on one side and flunkyism on the other. But the inherent difficulty of constitutional government in Austria appears not in the action of these fickle few, but

in another constituent of the vote that passed the law. Looking over the list of names on the record of votes, one is struck by the fact that almost without exception the Slavic names vote yes, the majority of the German names no. The Czechs and Poles all voted with the Right. The Czech representatives, without whose votes the Ministry would have had no chance of success, took part in the proceedings of this session for the first time after a secession of eighteen years. Perhaps it is only a curious coincidence that on the same day on which the decisive vote was reached the so-called Czech memorandum was presented to the Emperor, in which the demands of the Czechs are categorically expressed—demands which, it must be confessed, are, at least for the present, moderate enough. Already a commission has been appointed to report on the memorandum, at whose head stands a pronounced friend of the Czechs. There can be but little doubt that some agreement was made between the Ministry and the Czechs, and that the latter have not given their votes for nothing. As much was acknowledged by Grégr, one of their leaders: "We expect [from the Ministry] the satisfaction of the just demands of our people; we expect, above all, that the equality of all the peoples of this Empire, which has up to the present been striven for in vain, will at last be realized." Many of the Czechs—the Young Czechs as opposed to the Old Czechs—who are led by the feudal nobility and the priesthood, would have preferred to vote against the military law; but what do they care for military laws and constitutional privileges, as long as they think their beloved Bohemia oppressed and their people defrauded of their just rights by the tyrannical Germans?

THE NEW "CULTUR" WAR IN GERMANY.

BERLIN, January 7, 1880.

MY bookseller has collected for me sixteen pamphlets of all sorts and sizes, on "the Jewish question," all published within a few months, and several of which have reached a fourth or fifth edition. Fourteen thousand copies of the first edition of an address by the court-chaplain, Stöcker, are said to have been sold in a week. Herr Glagau, a member of the Berlin Philosophical Society, has started an anti-Semitic semi-monthly called *Der Kulturkämpfer*, and Herr Marr, who first started the present agitation against the Jews, has founded a monthly called *Die Deutsche Wacht*. An "Anti-Semitic League" has been established, the object of which, as set forth in its statutes, is to restrict the Jews to an amount of influence proportioned to their numbers, to oppose the Jewish press, to resist the election or appointment of Jews to political or other offices, to withhold patronage from them in business, and to "free Germany from the oppression of Jewish influence, social, political, and ecclesiastical." The medical faculties in several universities have resolved to resist their further appointment to professorships, and at last Professor Treitschke, who has a great fondness for being on the popular side, has entered the lists against the Jews, and writes: "Let us not be deceived: the movement is very deep and strong. In circles of the highest authority, among men who reject with horror every thought of ecclesiastical intolerance or national pride, one hears to-day, as if uttered by a single voice: 'The Jews are our misfortune.'" Many, in fact most, of the pamphlets before me are ridiculously violent. The Jews are compared with the Gipsies, the Chinese, or negroes in America, the Catholics, the Jesuits, the Internationals, the Free-masons, shoddy aristocrats, etc. They are called, as were the Christians of old, "the enemies of the human race." Their creed is said to be found on the blank leaf between the Old and New Testaments. Their rule of life is the Talmudic verse which declares that, as man among animals, so is the Israelite among men. One writer says they must be expelled from Germany; and a Catholic paper in Silesia, I am told, declares that, but for the effeminate sentimentality of modern nerves, it would have a good moral effect to burn a few of them. The agitation seems in nearly every feature to be surprisingly mediæval and even inhuman. It bears every mark of an unreasoning race prejudice, and is disgraceful to the culture of Germany. I will try, however, to epitomize briefly and impartially the chief points in the controversy thus far.

The orthodox Lutherans urge that the daily press, owned by Jews, satirizes their clergy, conventions, and creed, making common cause with the reddest radicalism, while Christians never feel or express anything but reverence for the Old Testament or for the worship of Jehovah. They are outraged that a Jewish physician has urged, on purely medical grounds, that circumcision should be general, and that a Paris orator has lately said: "A new Messianic kingdom, a new Jerusalem, must arise instead of emperor or pope"; and accuse them of still cherishing the idea of "overcoming and enslaving humanity." The free-religious pamphleteers, on the other hand, argue that the Jews are now the same tricky, avaricious egoists that they painted themselves in the Old Testament, and are bound only by the letter, and fear only the penalties, of the law; and they reproach the Christian church for not having long since seen the vulgarity of the Old and clung to the New Testament alone. The first are more outraged by the reformed, the latter by the orthodox Jews, while both object that the Jews are allowed to send their teachers of religion to their own children in the public schools two or three hours a week. Another writer urges that, though possessed of strong and vigorous bodies and admirable vegetative physiques, a very large per cent. are found by medical examiners too weak of limb, from generations of sedentary life, to serve their time in the army, and, both as exempts and as being unwilling to fight their own race in armies of other nations, are eminently unpatriotic, and, in short, bad citizens and moneyed internationalists; while the "Alliance Universelle Israélite," founded in 1860, is described as hostile to patriotism in every country in Europe.

Again, it is said that, partly by introducing cheaper and less durable wares, as in ten-cent and dollar stores, they have destroyed the demand for good and thorough work, injured the retail trade, etc. Moreover, they are charged with being clannish, and always helping and playing into each other's hands. If a German Jew should see a strange French Jew and a German neighbor in distress, and could help but one, it would be the former, is repeated over and over again. If a Jew does anything at all noteworthy, his fellow Jews constitute themselves a mutual-admiration society to overpraise him. Thus, Disraeli; Gambetta; Ebers, the novelist; Heine, who by his flippant way of speaking of the deepest and most serious sentiments introduced a most un-German element into literature; Lasker, who conducted the National Liberal Party purely in accordance with Jewish interests; and many others, owe all their fame to the art of mutual laudation. It was the rapacious Jews who destroyed the springs of national life in Poland, causing it to fall so easily. Now they are doing the same thing in Rumania, under the protection of Disraeli's policy, as they will later do in Germany. They get the best seats in the theatre, the best coupés in the cars, are first served in the restaurants—all by bribery; and yet never work, produce nothing whatever that adds to values in the world, but only trade and speculate in the wares which others have produced; and therefore, since they decline all kinds of productive labor, refusing thus to bear the full burdens of citizenship, their rights should be restricted. Finally, the Prussian Minister of Public Works, Maybach, in a public address, denounced the Stock and Produce Exchange itself—a very large per cent. of whose members are Jews—as an upas-tree which poisoned national industry far and near, although, in consequence of the great excitement which his remark occasioned, he qualified it somewhat a few days later. On the one hand we are reminded that Marx, Lassalle, and even Nobiling were of Jewish descent, and perhaps in the following paragraph are told that next to their worship of the golden calf is the worship of the Jews for their own race and its traditions, and especially its prophecies. These last, in the scope they are now assuming, will be fulfilled only a few generations hence, when a material civilization shall have gone round the globe to Palestine again, which is best adapted by nature to be an universal emporium, and whence the nations will be ruled by a hegemony of banking satraps and feudal lords. Some Socialists now say that the present hard times are due to speculation and the accumulation of money in a few hands, and that Socialism will never be cured till the people rise *en masse* and drive out or plunder the Semites.

This will perhaps suffice to show how absurdly extreme and inconsistent are the current attacks. They remind an American of some of the anti-Catholic literature in the old Know-Nothing times. It is not impossible that some fanatic may vamp the old charges of poisoning wells and roasting Christian babies. The Jews, however, have shown that they know how to defend themselves. They urge, and I believe most justly, that they have been made the scapegoat for evils which they have not caused. Business depression has other causes, and the alienation of the community from the Christian faith is the inevitable drift of the age, with which they have nothing in the world to do. It is Christian far more than Jewish prejudice which prevents them from intermarrying and assimilating socially with the communities in which they live. It is the long, sad story of their restriction, oppression, and persecution through the Christian centuries which accounts for the accident that all their

family traditions, from the time when they were forbidden to enter any of the trades, incline them to traffic and to hold their possessions in movable form. If they are materialistic and self-seeking money-hunters, it is because they follow, not lead, the tendency of the age. They remind us that they number scarcely 50,000 in Berlin, and but a few thousand more in France or in all Great Britain; that their orthodoxy and radicalism are both less fanatical than that of the Christian sects; that they have always been the "Swiss guard of theism," and that the religious trouble began with Hegel's "veiled atheism" and ended with the Thersitic pessimism of Schopenhauer, neither of whom was a Jew. From Jews came the idea of one God, which superseded German polytheism. They refer with pride to their charities, and to the fact that a far larger per cent. of their young men than of Christians are in nearly all the higher institutions of learning in Germany, and compare their good citizenship with the political insubordination of the Catholic subjects of the Kaiser. There is no secret understanding whatever among Jews, and the Paris Alliance was only to aid in freeing and enlightening the Orient, as opposed to the benighted policy of Russia, from whose purer Panslavism alone Herr Marr sees possible redemption for Germany. That the Jews are proud of their ancient traditions and, perhaps, look upon Europe as young and inexperienced, somewhat as Europeans regard our own country, is for aught we know natural and certainly excusable enough. Their spokesmen now exhort them to remember that "Hamans and Marrs," that jealousy of their money, and religious and race hatred, have always assailed them; to "cleave everywhere to the party of liberty and progress which best represents humanity"; and thus to press forward to the accomplishment of all their mysterious destiny.

So far the Jewish side of the controversy has been a dignified, moderate, and rational plea of not guilty, with very little of the extravagance of their accusers and with almost no attempt at recrimination. Their numbers and influence are doubtless greater than in other large European countries, and no one denies that there are differences in religion and race. Haeckel thinks they spring from a different though by no means inferior species of ape to that from which the Japhetic peoples are descended. They are far the best of all the Semite races, and, in my opinion, both they and we should be nationally benefited by a fusion of blood. One writer, who defends them vigorously in every other respect, concedes at the end of his pamphlet that "Judaism unites realistic optimism with idealistic pessimism, while Christianity conversely is founded on realistic pessimism and idealistic optimism." But is it better to disparage or neglect the present in pursuing distant ideals or in hope of a transcendent future happiness, than to help a people like the Germans to react from the influence of absolute idealism toward a more broad and practical living, as the Jews have done, and to embody the utilitarian ideal of an enlightened even though "centrifugal" selfishness?

Correspondence.

SOUTHERN REPUDIATION AND THE NEGRO VOTE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent McC., of Tuscaloosa, says in the *Nation* of the 1st inst.: "The question which confronts us in the near future is not whether the negro will vote with the Democratic party or with the Republican party, but whether, in local questions involving the honor and well-being of State and municipal governments, his vote can be controlled by the conservative, taxpaying element, or by adventurers and malcontents?" This statement is true save that instead of being a question of the future, near or far, it is present now in Tennessee and Virginia. The disruption of parties began in this State and Virginia in the recent State-debt elections. The divisions then made will continue with more or less permanency for a long time to come. In the first trials of strength "the conservative taxpaying element" has been beaten. In this State another contest is to be held this year, with what result only time can prove; there is, however, every reasonable ground for hoping that the conservative, taxpaying element will triumph and preserve the credit of the State from total ruin. How far this division of parties is to extend beyond the limits of the Southern States will depend on the amount of repudiation material to be found in the Northern States. If the material for a repudiation party is present, leaders, bold, skilful, and unscrupulous, will soon present themselves. X.

Knoxville, Tenn., Jan. 19, 1880.

Notes.

THE late Gen. J. B. Hood's posthumous work, 'Advance and Retreat: Personal Experiences in the United States and Confederate States Armies,' has been published at New Orleans, by his comrade-in-arms, Gen. G. T. Beauregard. The entire proceeds of the sale of this work will be devoted to the Hood Orphan Memorial Fund.——Volume i. (including supplemental matter) of the 'American Catalogue' will, it is announced by the publishers, A. C. Armstrong & Son, be completed ready for binding in February.——The second edition of the 'Autobiography of Prince Metternich,' already called for and in press, will be accompanied by a reproduction of Unger's portrait of the prince.——The February number of *St. Nicholas* contains two special contributions by the poet Tennyson, one of which came set to music. In the succeeding number will be given a delayed revision of the score, which is now ascertained to be the composition of Mrs. Tennyson.——G. P. Putnam's Sons will shortly begin, with 'Knickerbocker's History of New York,' a new illustrated "Geoffrey Crayon" edition of Irving's works in twenty-seven volumes, the designs being by Mr. F. S. Church. Other forthcoming publications not previously announced are: 'Literary Essays,' by Bayard Taylor; 'The Genesis of Life,' by R. W. Wright; several additions to the New Plutarch series, and a large number of medical works.——Dr. G. R. Cutter's 'Dictionary of the German Terms used in Medicine,' published by the same house, is needed and will be of much use to medical students. In a future edition we hope to see English used more freely, in the place of a number of such useless words as paraphronetic, galactoplerosis, and cholemesis. A list of abbreviations is wanted; nor can we see why names of common drugs, not found in ordinary dictionaries, should not have been inserted, and some brief notice taken of the *terminations* of German chemical nomenclature. Words used in different senses by English and German writers should be given (*e.g.*, typhus, decubitus). More care should be taken in certain cases (*e.g.*, *Hemmung*, *Heerdsklerose*) to supply the word in current use in English.——President Eliot's annual report noticed below is also printed in No. 2 of the *Harvard Register*. In the same issue will be found the final report of the Committee on Elections, declaring Dr. H. W. Bellows eligible to the Board of Overseers.——With the December number *Munson's Phonographic News* completes its second volume, with the most favorable prospects of continuance. Its success, like its tasteful typographical appearance, has been exceptional.——Considerable interest is aroused at Oxford by the election, this month, to a travelling studentship for the encouragement of classical archæology, which has been offered by a member of the University. The early relations between the Greeks and the ancient civilizations of Asia, and, indeed, the whole of the archæology of Asia Minor, furnish comparatively new ground for exploration. Probably the new Hellenic Society, which is well aware what the French archæological schools in Rome and Athens have done, and how amply they have justified the support they receive from the French Government, will encourage and help to sustain both the English universities in so decided an advance in classical studies.——A new society for the publication of Old-Norse literature, particularly of the yet remaining unpublished Old-Norse manuscripts, has been organized at Copenhagen. Its executive committee consists of Dr. Svend Grundtvig (president), Dr. P. E. Christian Kaalund (secretary), Markus Lorenzen, Dr. Vilh. Thomsen, and Dr. Ludv. F. A. Wimmer, all eminent antiquarians. Prof. Rasmus Anderson, of Madison, Wis., has been appointed the agent of the society for America, and persons or institutions desiring to become members should address their letters to him.——With Parts 22, 23 the third edition of 'Spruner's Historical Hand-Atlas' has now been completed (New York: B. Westermann & Co.) They embrace four maps of Germany, and two of Italy (1137–1339), together with numerous side-maps, plans of cities, etc.——The English librarians, while well pleased with the *Library Journal* as an international medium, have found it inconvenient to await reports of their own proceedings from this side of the water. They have accordingly resolved to supplement (not supersede) this publication with "Monthly Notes," of which the first number reaches us from Trübner & Co., a businesslike duodecimo of eight pages, bound up with twelve of the publishers' advertisements.

—The size and costliness of the original edition of Mr. Ruskin's 'Stones of Venice' have prevented it from being generally serviceable as a hand-book for visitors to the city of which it treats. And yet for any one who desired to make a study of the works of art at Venice, and to understand their relation to its history and life, there was no other book

that could supply its place. The author has consequently done a great service to travellers in lately reprinting in two compact volumes, of a convenient size for the pocket, the portion of his original work which relates most directly to the history and monuments of the city, and especially the topical index, which by itself forms the most useful and instructive guide to the works of architecture and painting of chief interest. For the appreciation of the genius of Tintoretto, Mr. Ruskin's notes are, for instance, simply indispensable. The work in its present form contains little that any reader could find superfluous, and it may well be regarded as a necessary companion by any one who would fully enjoy the vast store of art which still makes the half-despoiled city one of the chief treasure-houses of the world. The work has been, as usual, reprinted in this country by John Wiley & Sons, though Mr. Ruskin derives no benefit from this edition. We notice, by the way, that the same publishers advertise their new octavo edition of 'Modern Painters' as "illustrated with all the plates and wood-engravings of the original London edition." It is not to be understood from this announcement, which is likely to mislead the unwary, that the "original" plates and woodcuts have been used in this edition. On the contrary, they have been reproduced by mechanical processes, and in the reproduction have been deprived of many of their finest qualities—qualities which give to the originals peculiar distinction, and place them among the most precious works of modern engraving. The American edition is comparatively cheap, but it may be a question whether it is not better to go without the book than to have it in this degraded form.

—A correspondent writes:

"In the *Nation*, No. 760, p. 61, we read: 'Of the three things Goethe longed to see, though *only one* is accomplished, one other, at least, is in a fair way of being shortly begun.' I call your attention to the existence since 1843 of the 'Ludwigscanal,' the junction of the Danube and Rhine. This canal was projected in 1834, commenced in 1836, and was made navigable and opened in 1843."

—The thirty-first annual report of the Astor Library, lately submitted to the Legislature, in addition to the usual information concerning the growth and increased use of the library, states that Mr. John Jacob Astor, following in the steps of his father and grandfather, has conveyed to the trustees a piece of land adjoining the present building on the north, and proposes to furnish the funds for an additional building, increasing the working space of the library by almost one-half. This information justifies the expectation that Mr. Astor will not permit the institution to go backwards while under his protection, and marks a new era in the history of the library. In 1848 Mr. John Jacob Astor provided by a devise of $400,000 "for the establishment of a public library in New York," naming with others as the first trustees Washington Irving, William B. Astor, Fitz-Greene Halleck, and Samuel B. Ruggles, of which body Mr. Ruggles, the sole survivor, remains an active trustee. An act of incorporation was speedily obtained, an unostentatious building erected capable of containing one hundred thousand volumes, and on the 1st of February, 1853, the library was opened, offering, without restriction, to the public use eighty thousand volumes, carefully selected, classified, and systematically arranged. All this had been accomplished within a short time, considering the task, quietly, without show or parade, and the library partook largely of the character of its first president, Mr. Irving, noted for his simplicity, accessibility, and accomplishments. More space being required, Mr. William B. Astor in 1855 conveyed to the trustees a piece of land adjoining the library, with an area much larger than that then occupied, and announced his intention to erect a suitable building as an addition, and to expend from time to time such sums as might be useful in the purchase of books. The carrying out of these liberal intentions found the library in 1859 in occupation of the whole building, 130 feet front, and containing more than one hundred and ten thousand volumes. General and analytical catalogues were soon after prepared through the labor and learning of Dr. Cogswell, accurate account was kept of the number of readers and the description of books called for by each, that the departments most used might be best supplied, and the total amount expended for books, beginning with $27,000 in 1849, had risen in 1869—twenty years after the incorporation—to more than $240,000. At the death of Mr. William B. Astor, which occurred in 1875, the property of the library had almost doubled. Mr. Astor by his will added a legacy of $249,000, and the entire property of the library at the date of the last report, being further increased by donations from Mr. John Jacob Astor, has reached the sum of $1,112,957. At the same time the fund for the maintenance of the library has grown to $421,000, and the number of books has reached almost 200,000.

—With this progress it was to be expected that the advantages offered would not be neglected, and the number of readers actually increased from 23,000 in 1865 to 59,000 in 1879. The library during all this time has been steadily and strictly conducted on the plan originally adopted. It sought to offer to the investigator in every branch of knowledge ample accommodations, and every requisite for thorough study. To this end, and because it was deemed necessary that every book needed should be promptly supplied, it was determined at the inception of the library that it should be devoted to reading and reference, and that no books, under any circumstances, should be taken from the building. Moreover, it has never attempted to attract desultory readers, nor to supply either fiction or the current ephemeral literature of the day. The undertaking was in many respects a novel one in this country, and it is fortunate that three generations of the same family should have so liberally supplied the means and so strictly adhered to the same system. The public patronage of the Astor Library has for some time outstripped the comfortable capacity of its reading-rooms, and the approaching enlargement comes none too soon. There are practical inconveniences in the present arrangement for delivering books at two different counters (according to a distinction of topics which the student constantly finds purely artificial) which we hope may be overcome with the aid of the new building. An increase in the hours during which the library is kept open, the ultimate use of the electric light when perfected, and a quadrupling of the assistants who procure the books called for, are also improvements which the generous object of the foundation imperatively demands.

—It is symptomatic of the long preparation required by our most popular periodicals that the "Midwinter" *Scribner's* should contain such out-of-door papers as "A Wheel Round the Hub," "New England Fences," "Success with Small Fruits," and "Notes of a Walker." More striking still, as evidence of the lapse of time between the completion of a manuscript and its appearance in print, is the authorized account of "Edison's Electric Light," by Mr. Francis R. Upton, the Mathematician of Menlo Park. The opening sentence and one other will illustrate what we mean: "The crowning discovery of Mr. Edison—the electric light for domestic use—is at last a scientific and practical success" "This lamp is Mr. Edison's main discovery." The most enduring contribution to the number is the first instalment of Mr. Eugene Schuyler's "Peter the Great," a narrative already of great interest, plentifully supplied with engravings often after little-known originals. It opens directly with the second marriage of the Tsar Alexis, the father of Peter. "A Wheel Around the Hub" describes a two-days' bicycle ride in the suburbs of Boston, by a club of forty-odd enthusiasts, and suggests much more than the writer is capable of describing. It is a not very successful attempt to combine adventure and local history, but the artists have made up for the shortcomings of the writer, who should profit by Mr. John Burroughs's "Notes of a Walker," on a succeeding page. A capital subject, which has long awaited treatment, is ably and poetically handled by Mr. Rowland C. Robinson in his "New England Fences"; his observations are very close, and will commend themselves to all who truly know New England scenery and the habits of her creeping things in field and wood. Mr. Robinson's English lacks the correctness of Mr. Burroughs's, but otherwise he seems to us a worthy peer of the latter. Mr. Edward Eggleston offers some timely and admirable criticisms on the present modes of Sunday-school instruction, and we hope that the replies which his paper will be apt to provoke will imitate his moderation of language. The political articles (for there are two in this number) show that the editorial sympathies are with the reformers in the Republican ranks—a remark which is, we think, applicable also to *Harper's* and the *Atlantic*, and is therefore of all the better omen We have found Part iv. of Mr. Cable's "Grandissimes" as entertaining as ever.

—An anonymous paper on "The Strong-Government Idea," and Goldwin Smith's article on "Pessimism," are the weightiest contributions to the February *Atlantic*. The first is brief, eminently to the point, and written with vigorous simplicity; it concisely sums up the progress the country has made "towards the realization of a broad ideal of national authority," the writer says, and, as we may admit, towards the familiarity with such an ideal at the least. The statements of our present condition, and the speculation as to the future, are perhaps of a somewhat summary nature, but the former shows much acuteness of observation and skill in presentation, and the latter must be regarded as sensible in temper, if not wholly convincing, by all who are neither alarmists nor optimists. The announcement that the State-rights theory survives "only as a sentiment associated with the beaten rebellion" is a matter of fact which it

would be difficult to prove, we imagine, though it is also to be said that it would be hard to disprove it. The writer has no feeling for it, evidently, and does not have any fears for the endurance of republican institutions in the event of its total abandonment. More reasons than the excellent ones given, however, for this confidence would have been acceptable, and, indeed, but for the frequent use of "our governmental system," etc, the paper might be taken, perhaps, for the production of an English Liberal of long familiarity with this country, acute powers of observation, but no particular sympathy with the principles still glorified in most lectures on American constitutional law. Mr. Smith's paper is highly entertaining in its review of the history of pessimism, sentimental and philosophical, and doubtless there are many readers who will enjoy accompanying the writer through the long and, we think we may add, suggestive speculation which follows this. It is worth noting, by the way, that the mention of Swift's intense misanthropy is, in great part, Thackeray done into less eloquent and more reasoned language, and—if Mr. Smith is a precisian, though we do not suspect it as regards light literature—that the oft lugubrious Richard Swiveller supplants Mark Tapley as "the impersonation of jollity." Mr. Howells's story increases, if possible, in cleverness, but we are nearing mistrust of the possibility of making the class of people he is so skilfully characterizing thoroughly interesting. Mr. Longfellow has a short poem of rhythmical beauty, and we believe we need particularize nothing else in a rather varied table of contents.

—Perhaps, however, we should not lightly pass over a somewhat remarkable and exhaustive review of Wordsworth by Mr. Christopher P. Cranch. "The age," the writer says, "grows more and more wisely critical, and is continually under the necessity of reviewing and enlarging its former judgments." With the rest the works of Wordsworth "are undergoing that winnowing process," and we have then three pages of the history of his career, when we come to consider him critically. "Nature and man form the substance of the themes he seeks to illustrate"; and though "other poets before him have touched these chords," and he listens to their "fitful strains," "he would commune at first-hand with the soul of man and nature," and the result is that "in the heart of the humblest peasant or beggar he can detect the heraldry of heaven." But he "has his prosaic side," and "the truth must be spoken": "his verses have good health and strong limbs, but they too often lack wings"; "we are not lifted, not fascinated, as we hoped." And it is curious that Wordsworth himself was blind to this; he has "such a proudly calm, persistent belief in himself" that you sometimes "begin to think you must have been wrong in any underestimate you may have arrived at." Nevertheless he "seemed to lack the artistic faculty both in selection and execution." We recur with zest to few of his poems as we do to "the finest symphonies of Beethoven or Schumann." "The truth is Wordsworth wrote too much." As to sonnets, now, "judgments differ of course, but it seems to me there are not more than thirty or forty really fine sonnets among his works." His ear for rhythm and sense of form were very defective, whereas "we could dispense with much profundity of thought were we only borne along by a musical motion which wedded itself spontaneously to the idea." But though "body and soul in verse are both desirable," still "if we cannot have both, let us, for Heaven's sake, have the soul." It is for the prevalence of this latter element in him, for his belief "in the beneficent ministry of nature to the soul of man," and among other things for "the oxygenic quality that lies in an apt expression of a commanding idea," that we must "rank Wordsworth among the foremost English poets." What that rank is precisely, "who can say"? We may be sure, at all events, that "the force of his poetry is more cumulative than dynamic," and "we must give him high praise for what he has uttered in his hours of highest thought and emotion." "We still sit at his feet . . . and are still lifted into a serener air by his confessions of that noble Pantheism which our Emerson has so devoutly and wisely taught us." It strikes us that, in the light of this last sentence and thinking of 'The Excursion,' this paper is also "more cumulative than dynamic."

—*Lippincott's* for February is pretty light reading, and we find little beyond the familiar epithet "varied" in the search for a favorable characterization. "A Day with the Ottawa Chantier-men" is a readable paper on the Canadian lumbermen; Mr. Oswald's eighth chapter of "Summerland Sketches" takes us to "The Delta of the Sumasinta River," and is perhaps pleasantly enough written to postpone the slight feeling of impatience his readers must be beginning to entertain for the conclusion of his series, of which, however, he is evidently making the most. A third illustrated paper is the first of two by Edward King on "Old and New Rouen," which is popular, but not particularly instructive. "A Future Capital of the United States" suggests "the claims" of Kansas City to that distinction, and declares that "now that the finance question is settled," the question of the removal of the capital will not be long kept in abeyance. Besides the geographical inconvenience of the present capital, it is situated, as appears, in the midst of a people "only faintly loyal"; and though Missouri is shown to have an even worse reputation as regards "loyalty," and to be unprogressive and dead to commercial honor, still Kansas City bids fair to be a great distributing centre, and Congress would not be in danger of starvation unless the farming interest should find it necessary to cut off supplies to hasten useful legislation. If the finance question had not been settled, and Mr. Hayes and General Sherman had not "dropped words" calculated to raise the hopes of Kansas City, we might think any present consideration of the question mooted premature. There is some talk about "Decorative Art," very sensible in the main. Elaine Goodale contributes a graceful little poem. "Adam and Eve" progresses entertainingly, and the shorter stories are unimportant.

—The annual report of President Eliot of Harvard contains the usual amount of valuable statistics of practice which make it the most eventful publication in the college world. As usual, too, it omits no opportunity of insisting on inadequate resources and of making appeals, sure sooner or later to be heeded, for material aid. Of most general interest are the remarks on the defects of the preparatory schools in mathematical, scientific, and English teaching, especially in English; on the feasibility of the New England colleges adopting common standards of examinations for admission; on the growing superiority of the private and endowed over the public schools in thoroughness of preparation; on the abolition of the Saturday holiday; on increase of salaries and institution of retiring annuities, etc. The case of the Lawrence Scientific School does not improve, and President Eliot's conclusion, after enumerating the causes of its diminishing vitality, that the most effective reinforcement which it could now receive "would be the endowment of a professorship of architecture," has almost a ludicrous sound. The Bussey Institution, the Law School, the Dental School, and the Library, are all in need of fresh endowments. That the Medical School will before long be opened to women clearly appears.

—The report explains and defends at some length the connection of the College with the Cambridge Divinity School, and defines theology as including "Hebrew, Arabic, and other Oriental languages, ecclesiastical history, the literature and criticism of the New Testament, natural theology, philosophy in its relation to religion, ethnic religions, and the history of religions," besides "Christian dogmatic theology," which, however, it says, "is quantitively a very small proportion of the enormous mass" of theological subjects. But this little body of "Christian dogmatic theology" is, after all, the leaven which leavens the whole mass. Without it all these other subjects which the report enumerates would have no claim whatever to be considered theological. "Hebrew, Arabic, and other Eastern languages" would be no more theology than French or German; ecclesiastical history would be simply the history of certain movements of the human mind; the literature and criticism of the New Testament would have no more interest or importance than the literature and criticism of the Rig-Veda; ethics would be no more theological than the common law, and the history of religions would be simply a chapter in the history of civilization, if they were not studied and taught with reference to the support they lend to and the light they throw on the dogmatic theology of Christianity. It is this and nothing else which puts it in anybody's head to call them "theology" and hand them over to the care of a divinity school. The report admits that "the expediency of grouping professorships which deal with these subjects into a separate organization called a Divinity School may be reasonably questioned." The letter of Dr. Bellows, printed in the appendix, defining the objects of the gift of $40,000 made to the Divinity School by Mrs. Tileston, will place those who administer the school on the above basis in a somewhat embarrassing position, because the gift is expressly declared to be made for the support of "theological *and religious* instruction." Religious instruction cannot be given through historical explorations or linguistic criticism. It must be given through expressions of belief in dogmas of some kind. By "religious instruction" Mrs. Tileston undoubtedly means instruction in the Christian religion. To use her money for teaching these subjects on a purely scientific method—that is, without bias and with indifference to the effect of the teaching on belief—would, therefore, be, as it seems to

us, an abuse of the trust. A very simple little test will throw a good deal of light on the real attitude of the College in this matter. The school, we believe, needs a professor of Hebrew. Outside Professor Ezra Abbot, who is otherwise engaged, there is little doubt that the best Hebraists to be had in this country, and by far the best, are Jews. If the Divinity School is a scientific institution there will be no hesitation in putting a Jew in the Hebrew chair. His faith or want of faith will be no more of a disqualification for it than it would be for the chair of chemistry. But we venture to assert that no Jew will have a chance of the place, no matter how high his Hebrew scholarship.

—It may be true, as the report says, that, "using the word theology in that broad sense which includes all the scientific subjects above enumerated, it is an indubitable fact that Harvard University has been thoroughly committed these many years to the maintenance of instruction in theology." There is, it seems to us, a little fallacy here. Harvard University has been committed, doubtless, to a study of some or many of the above-named subjects, and these subjects may be called "scientific" as well as theological, but the University has not been committed to instruction in them as scientific subjects. The Hollis Professorship of Divinity and the other theological professorships which were founded before 1819, as the report points out, were founded for the undoubted purpose of promoting belief in Christian dogmas and preparing ministers to teach them, and it is therefore not open to the College authorities to point to them now as examples of the traditional interest of the University in "scientific theology." The name, as well as the thing, was unknown at that time. The College can, of course, if it is deemed best, retain the sectarian character which belonged to it in the early part of the century; but if it now enters into the service of pure science in theology, as in other things, we do not see how it can accept large trusts for the maintenance of "religious instruction," or announce to the world that it is an unsectarian institution. There is, we feel bound to say, a vagueness and cloudiness about its position on this subject which the president and corporation owe it to the University and to the public to clear up thoroughly.

—Mr. Edgar Fawcett's play, "The False Friend," just brought out at the Union Square, seems likely to have a long run. Its immediate success has been due in great part to the acting, but the play, though by no means perfect, has considerable merits. It is probably the best "American" play of a serious sort that has yet been produced—though there is nothing very national about it, after all, except that one of the characters is American. The scene is laid in England and Australia; the plot is wholly English, as are all the characters, except the false friend. The play consists of a prologue and four acts. In the prologue we are introduced to *Lucian Gleyre*, an American "refugee," and *Cuthbert Fielding*, the heir of the great Fielding estates in England. They are in some Australian mountains, escaping from a band of cut-throats; *Fielding* is dying of a fever. Just before his death he reveals his real name and position to his friend, gives him his papers, among which is a diary containing a full account of his life, and then dies in his arms. *Gleyre* escapes, while the cut-throats appear in a highly operatic manner on the peaks of the lofty rocks which compose the scene, pointing at the body of *Fielding*. In act i. the scene changes to the Fielding estate in England, where the family have just received the joyful news that *Cuthbert* is on his way home. The principal persons in the family are *Edith*, the sister of *Cuthbert* (Miss Jewett); *Cyril Garland*, engaged to *Edith; Lady Ogden*, the aged aunt of *Cuthbert* (Mrs. E. J. Phillips); and *Andrew*, an old retainer of the family (Mr. Stoddart). At the same time there happens to be staying with them *Mrs. Chauncey*, the divorced wife of *Lucian Gleyre*. The scene on the lawn, with the tenant-farmers drinking healths and cheering in the background, is all very pretty. Of course it is *Lucian Gleyre* (Mr. Thorne) who makes his appearance as *Cuthbert*. To carry out his plot he relies on the fact that the man whom he undertakes to personate has not been seen by his family since boyhood, and upon his familiarity with all the events of *Cuthbert's* life, obtained from his diary. The presence of *Mrs. Chauncey* seems at first to be an insurmountable obstacle to his success. She attempts to expose him to the family, but he, with great presence of mind, admits his marriage and divorce, declares that he assumed the name of *Lucian Gleyre* while in America, turns the tables on her, and is recognized by all his relatives as *Cuthbert Fielding*. Up to this point the play is thoroughly well managed, and the climax at the end of the first act is very good.

—The second, third, and fourth acts, though full of telling situations, are not dramatically so well sustained. *Gleyre*, unluckily for him, falls in love with *Edith*, and out of jealousy of her lover, *Cyril*, postpones their marriage, and tries to separate them. There is a very good scene between him and *Edith* (acted with a great deal of delicacy and pathetic force by Miss Jewett), and another between him and *Cyril*. The best scene of the play, however, is one between *Gleyre* and *Lady Ogden* (who from the first has a lurking suspicion of the imposture), in which she puts him to a test by giving him a picture which she tells him is his mother's, though in reality it is not hers. He has no means of knowing whether it is a likeness of *Mrs. Fielding* or not, and he at once betrays himself. Mrs. Phillips's acting at this point, her indignation and resentment, are admirable. Mr. Fawcett's management of the rest of the scene, however, is rather clumsy. Instead of letting this disclosure terminate it, he makes *Gleyre* persuade *Lady Ogden* that he knew all along that the picture was not his mother's, and that he merely pretended to believe what she said in order to punish her for her distrust. She is persuaded by this, and promises to doubt him no more, thus bringing the scene to a second climax, when he again unmasks himself by mistaking another picture. This is, of course, final, and we have a third climax, in which the old lady forces him to admit that he is an impostor, and hurries from the stage to rouse the family and denounce him. The thunderstorm, however, which has been raging during the interview, also comes to a climax at this point, and *Lady Ogden* is struck by lightning before she has time to accomplish her purpose. All this is very awkward. Without being dogmatic, it is safe to say that the laws of dramatic composition will not tolerate so much climax in one scene. Notwithstanding this fault of construction, however, the acting of Mrs. Phillips makes it the best scene of the play. Of course in the end the real *Cuthbert Fielding* returns, and there is a very good interview between the two men, which terminates in the false Fielding ordering the real Fielding's arrest for imposture in attempting to assert his claims to his own name. The end of the play is rather feeble. *Edith* is persuaded, in order to test the true character of *Gleyre*, to find out whether his affection for her is really that of a brother, or something else. This is soon found out. He confesses his love and his deception, and the interview having been overheard by *Cyril*, *Cuthbert*, and other persons, the imposture is over and the play at an end. Why Mr. Fawcett, who is certainly fond of climax, held his hand here, where a climax was really needed, we cannot imagine. Though this is rather tame, the play as a whole is interesting, and the acting generally admirable. Of the comic plot which runs through the play we have nothing to say, except to call Mr. Fawcett's attention to the fact that farce and serious melodrama will not mix.

—The "Galley Slave" is another American play, written by Mr. Bartley Campbell, who, whatever faults may be found with his productions, has the merit of always hitting the popular taste. The "Galley Slave" has run many weeks, first at Haverly's, and, since it was taken off the boards there, at Niblo's. It is a wild kind of drama. *Cicely Blaine* (Miss Maude Granger), an American heiress, is betrothed to an Englishman of excellent character and commanding presence, who would undoubtedly marry her very early in the play were it not for the knavish tricks of one *Baron le Bois*, a nobleman of the vilest disposition. The baron has been married after a fashion to a young and beautiful Italian girl, who follows the somewhat humble occupation of a model, and who is also a model in a sense in which most models are not. The baron, of course, deserts *Francesca* (Signora Majeroni), and she wanders through Italy trying to find him. At length she is successful, and the baron seems on the point of being brought to account when, by a curious concatenation of circumstances, there is a complete misunderstanding of the facts by *Cicely*, who most unnecessarily insists on believing that the betrayer of *Francesca* is her own betrothed. In a fit of indignation and wretchedness she marries *Le Bois*, who thus secures, as he supposes, a rich prize. At the very moment of the marriage *Norcott* bursts into the house, and is discovered in an agonizing interview with *Cicely* by *Le Bois* and others of the *dramatis personæ*. Upon this, to save the reputation of *Cicely*, he declares that his purpose in effecting an entrance into the house was to commit a theft, and he is immediately consigned to the galleys by the remorseless ministers of the law for the long term always prescribed in cases of felonious trespass. Thenceforth he is the galley-slave, and the spectator becomes aware of the meaning of the name of the play. Of course *Francesca* and her child turn up at the galleys, and there is finally an explanation, and *Le Bois* is exposed, and *Norcott* and *Cicely* made happy again. It is really a very poor kind of play, for the misunderstanding which causes all the trouble is too im-

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probable even for melodrama. But there is enough incident, and passion, and villany, and virtue to thrill the nerves of the average audience, and it is distinctly to thrilling the nerves that Mr. Campbell looks for his success. Signora Majeroni is a competent Italian actress, who does the part of the model very well, while Miss Granger rants through *Cicely's* part in a truly terrible fashion. The rest of the cast is in no way remarkable, though the comic parts are fairly well done.

—Mr. Strakosch's season of Italian opera, which began last week, has so far proved an artistic failure. With one or two exceptions, there is not a member of his troupe whose performances would satisfy the most moderate demands. Besides the absence of any star of the first magnitude, the chorus is wretched, the orchestra weak and slovenly, the *mise-en-scène* miserable. The operas given so far are, "Lucia," "Traviata," "Faust," "Aïda," "Carmen," "Mignon," and "Puritani." Of these "Aïda" is the only one which requires more than a passing notice. Mlle. Singer, who made her début on this occasion in the title rôle, is an artist of decided merit, and would occupy a high rank among dramatic singers but for one drawback. She possesses a very fine voice, of remarkable compass and power; her intonation is perfect; and the quality of her tone is sweet and sympathetic. Her performance of *Aïda*, as far as the vocal part is concerned, was very excellent—indeed, we do not remember having heard a better rendering of this difficult part in this city; but her style of acting is inartistic and exaggerated. This is a fault common to her nation (Mlle. Singer is a Hungarian), but one from which Mme. Gerster last year proved to be charmingly exempt. Mlle. Singer is always in a state of tempestuous intensity, and will deliver the softest, gentlest cantilena with a frowning brow and flashing eyes. Next to her, Signor Storti, the baritone, is the most distinguished artist of the company. His voice is very powerful, yet possesses a warm and sympathetic tone, and he produces at times excellent effects. His faults are the same as those of the prima donna, an exaggerated, not to say vulgar, style of acting. If we now mention M. Castelmary, the French basso, who has a fine voice and is a capital actor, like all his countrymen, and Mlle. Belocca, a fine-looking girl, very conscientious and striving to do the best with her little mezzo-soprano voice, we have exhausted everything that can be said in praise of Mr. Strakosch's company.

—The Philharmonic Society's third public rehearsal and concert, which took place on Friday and Saturday last, again attracted a numerous audience to the Academy of Music. In spite of a great disappointment, caused by Mr. Joseffy's inability to fulfil his engagement on account of a bad finger, the performance was very interesting. Cherubini's bright overture to "Anacreon" was the opening number. We cannot speak too highly of Mr. Thomas's violins, who rendered the brilliant and difficult passages with which this overture abounds with the dash and precision of one man. The next number was a very attractive arrangement for string orchestra of three movements taken from two of Bach's violin sonatas—the third and the sixth—by Mr. Bachrich. The selection is a very judicious one, and forms a perfectly artistic and well-connected whole. The first movement is one of those rushing preludes with which every lover of the earliest school of pianoforte music is familiar; the second a beautiful elegy full of the devotional spirit characteristic of the pious, simple-hearted Lutheran organist. The third is a bright, sharply accentuated gavotte, followed by a delightful little rondo. In this instance again Mr. Thomas's string orchestra did admirable work. The concluding number was Rubinstein's "Dramatic Symphony," a work of great dimensions and, as Schumann says of one of Schubert's symphonies, of "most divine length"—it lasts for over an hour and a quarter—but it was given by Mr. Thomas with so much spirit and such clear and correct execution that it was listened to until the close of the mighty finale by an attentive and interested audience. Mr. Rietzel, who played Beethoven's concerto in G, proved a most welcome substitute for Mr. Joseffy. He has just returned from Stuttgardt, and will, no doubt, occupy some day a prominent place among the leading pianists in this city.

—The French liking for a logical ordering of things and the French artistic taste have united of late to call forth all sorts of art-bibliographies, or rather iconographies. Not only are all the portraits of Molière and Voltaire, or illustrations of any kind of any of their works, set down in order in stout volumes, but there are detailed lists drawn up of the works of even the less important living painters and engravers. It is with no wonder, then, that we take up 'Victor Hugo, ses Portraits et ses Charges,' catalogued by M. Aglaüs Bouvenne. From 1827 to 1879 M. Hugo was painted, or drawn on wood, or lithographed, or engraved, or etched one hundred and fifty-seven times, twelve of the portraits appearing during the first six months of 1879; and there are caricatures enough to bring up the total number to two hundred and thirty. M. Bouvenne adorns his neat little volume of 76 pp. with three illustrations; the frontispiece is a photogravure of an etching made by Célestin Nanteuil in 1833; the second is an etched copy by the compiler himself of a drawing made by Prosper Mérimée in 1840, and the last is a portrait of the poet as he appears to-day. A comparison of the three heads is curious; it is difficult to believe them identical. M. Bouvenne explains the great number of portraits of M. Hugo by pointing out that he has been "the chief of a new literary school, not only the first of poets but the first of citizens, the apostle of every liberty and the defender of all liberties." A few pages before he had likened M. Hugo to Homer, whose "only superiority lies in having been dead three thousand years."

—Under the heading, "The Fate of a Book," the Leipzig *Grenzboten* of December 18 publishes an account of the adventures which befell Dr. Busch's well-known work on Bismarck in the first year of its prosperous career. Seven translations of it have already appeared in London, New York, Paris, Moscow, and Utrecht. Of the original German edition seven thousand copies were sold in less than two months, the total number issued up to date being fourteen thousand, or, including the translations, forty-eight thousand. The Russian edition, of course, was purged of some of the passages relating to that country, and one of the French editions, issued by one of the *Figaro* staff, omitted a large portion of the original work. Why the French press did not deal with the book very gently is self-evident, but the almost ferocious attitude assumed by the German papers was less intelligible. The *Grenzboten*, which was formerly edited by Dr. Busch and still receives contributions from him, attributes this hostility to various motives, personal, political, and Semitic. Curiously enough, among the few German papers that passed a favorable verdict was the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine*, which pronounced the book superior in interest to any previous publication on the events of 1870 and 1871. The paper referred to is Bismarck's "inspired" organ, and never says a word that would be likely to displease the Chancellor. Various rumors were afloat at the time as to what Bismarck himself had said about his biographer's achievement, but they were set at rest when it was announced that he had been rewarded with a diplomatic appointment. The article in the *Grenzboten* consists mainly of extracts from the criticisms which 'Bismarck und seine Leute' called forth, showing that in general they were the more favorable the further the place where they appeared is from Leipzig. The article accordingly opens with some general remarks on the superiority of the English and American press to the German, the inferiority of which is attributed to the corrupting Semitic influence already alluded to. The favorable notices of the London *Times*, as well as our own, are quoted at length with satisfaction, although we were hardly prepared to find the *Nation* described as an "influential London periodical." As Dr. Busch has travelled much in America and repeatedly written on American subjects, this error will clear him of the suspicion of having himself written the not very modestly-worded biography of his own work.

—A special school of diplomacy is to be established at the Vatican. The pupils, it is understood, are to be exclusively ecclesiastics, and are to study the history of the pontifical diplomacy in the original documents preserved in the archives of the Vatican. The report that the Pope had entered into negotiations with France, in which he had expressed a willingness to consent to the exclusion of the Jesuits from instruction on condition of receiving concessions in regard to certain other points, is authoritatively denied by the *Osservatore Romano*, which adds that the Holy See would never consent to drive out of the work of education an order which has rendered such great services in that line. Evidently the course of the new liberal—but not for that reason any the less Catholic—Pope is destined to be one of the most interesting subjects of conjecture and observation for the next few years. As the politicians of Europe once hung upon the nod of the Third Napoleon, as they now speculate about the intentions of Bismarck, of Beaconsfield, of Gambetta, so they will watch for the revelations of the *Aurora*, the new reputed "organ" of his holiness. One feature in that journal has already excited remark. The list of its contributors is a list of men known for their progressive ideas. Nothing could more clearly show the wisdom of Leo XIII.; nothing could be more dangerous to Protestantism than a reconciliation of the Catholic Church with "the spirit of the age," and an adjustment of the forms of statement of Catholic ideas, not necessarily to real science, but to the popular ideas of science. The Reformation of the sixteenth

century was a moral and spiritual reformation, and its first astonishing progress was stopped almost entirely by a counter reformation within the Church, which, like our Western hunters, fought fire with fire. The reformation of the nineteenth century is political and philosophico-scientific. The Church under its late head was content, for the most part, to oppose this movement bluntly, directly, dogmatically, by an *ipse dixit*. Under its present leader the Church will perhaps adopt the methods of its opponents and fight its enemies with their own weapons. What the result will be on the Church it is impossible to predict; but one thing may be taken for certain, the Church of Rome will not be one whit less propagandist, exclusive, and "infallible" than heretofore.

JAMES'S HAWTHORNE.*

IT is a little singular, considering his vogue both contemporary and posthumous, that Hawthorne's place in literature should have been so long left to take care of itself, as it were. That it is an important place has never been disputed by any one, and by Americans at least he has for the past thirty or forty years been accepted as a prodigy in literature; as he was one of the few men of letters of indisputable genius we have had, perhaps with a patriotic people this could hardly have been otherwise. But the very fact of the abundant eulogy of him indicates that there has been a certain vagueness in the general admiration quite hostile to anything like serious criticism. At any rate no serious criticism of him has been written heretofore to any purpose, unless Mr. James would have us except Poe's; it has probably been a little difficult to secure the requisite perspective. Mr. James has thus in great measure had a virgin field. Another of his advantages is the evident ease he has experienced in getting far enough away from his subject not to be overpowered by its Titanic proportions. To many of his readers, indeed, much of his book will seem like detraction, and, we may suppose, will be cordially resented. We venture to think, however, not only that this will be unjust, but that Mr. James has made an important contribution to the literature of criticism in America, and that the fact will one day be recognized with the most effusiveness by the same persons who may now be cherishing irritation at his audacity in venturing to describe the features, instead of being content to worship at the shrine, of so august a divinity as Hawthorne. This at all events is what he has done. He has made a careful, conscientious and even vivid literary portrait, such as few of our own writers could have made, we may say with safety; and, we are tempted to add, such as no one of the eminent writers who have contributed to Mr. Morley's excellent series has made. Whatever its comparative value, it has the artistic advantage of being less formally a biography and more completely a criticism than any of its predecessors; it may, indeed, be said to be saturated with the essence of literary criticism, and to be a fine thing in itself. Barring the recurrence of a few stock phrases and a certain consciousness at the start, it is, as an example of what we mean by form, admirable; it is not a narrative of Hawthorne's life, nor an analytic examination of his works, nor a sequence of these succeeded by a formal summing up; its divisions are hardly noticeable, but its continuity is not wearisome, and it is not without the light and shade which the most harmonious instances of literary art sometimes lack. It is penetrated by its purpose, and, in a very graceful and charming way, its total effect is made to leave upon the reader the consistent and single impression with which it is clear the author sets out, and which he nowhere loses sight of either through carelessness or confusion.

This is high praise, certainly; but it is well considered, and there can by this time be nothing extraordinary in highly praising Mr. James's literary art. What is here, however, of most importance is the worth of this impression of Hawthorne which he holds so firmly and conveys so clearly and charmingly. Mr. James's notion of the dignity of criticism is not, perhaps, an unusually high one for a critic of his intelligence and cultivation, but it is unusually distinct and unusually omnipresent. He never forgets his function and its claims upon him when he is engaged in the exercise of it. It happens from this sometimes that when these and the claims of his subject conflict—which is occasionally inevitable—the latter apparently get slighted. Considering how prevalent the contrary error is, insistence on this is not important. But to his respect for his office of critic the emphasis of his characterization of Hawthorne as "exquisitely provincial," and of the New England life which was Hawthorne's material as blank, are probably to be attributed. It is important to him that his vision be not obscured by the glamour of Hawthorne's reputation, that his standpoint should be that of "the world in general," and that he should describe him and his surroundings exactly as they are, without allowances, and with relation to the whole class of phenomena to which they belong, without personal or other prejudice. This is an admirable and, indeed, the only worthy critical attitude, though perhaps Mr. James assumes it with a little over-intensity and obviousness. But it is questionable if he would have so much to say of the provinciality of Hawthorne and the blankness of the old New England life if provinciality were not a good deal of a *bête-noire* to him. He speaks of the habit of Americans in Europe (page 148) "of keeping one eye, as it were, on the American personality, while with the other they contemplate" foreign institutions. It is possible that Mr. James himself has acquired the "habit" of keeping one eye on this spectacle; it is certain, at all events, that he is not to be caught napping. This is, however, fortunate for us, and we have sides of American life shown us which it is very wholesome for us to contemplate, and which a foreigner could neither persuade us were true nor exhibit so faithfully. But we ought not to get a wrong idea of the proportions of things; and though what Mr. James notes about New England and Hawthorne is true, and though he only notes it among many other qualities, it seems to us that he insists upon it a little too much—that, whatever the truth of the things he says, the tendency of them, the impression they leave, is a little too strong, and that following him here too implicitly would lead us astray. One asks himself, How important is it that Hawthorne was provincial? Did his provinciality in any way hamper his genius? Did it not rather assist it, or at least determine its fortunate direction? Still, in a complete portrait of the man it was by all odds worth pointing out; and if a great many admirers of Hawthorne, to whom he is a Titan of letters besides being an exquisite romancer, could have ascertained it in no other way—and we are not sure that they could—it was worth dwelling upon and reiterating.

We by no means agree, however, with Mr. James's regret concerning the blankness of Hawthorne's surroundings. On the contrary, it seems to us an extremely lucky thing. Mr. James gives this striking picture of them (p. 42):

"No State, in the European sense of the word, and indeed barely a specific national name. No sovereign, no court, no personal loyalty, no aristocracy, no church, no clergy, no army, no diplomatic service, no country gentlemen, no palaces, no castles, nor manors, nor old country houses, nor parsonages, nor thatched cottages, nor ivied ruins; no cathedrals, nor abbeys, nor little Norman churches; no great universities, nor public schools—no Oxford, nor Eton, nor Harrow; no literature, no novels, no museums, no pictures, no political society, no sporting class—no Epsom nor Ascot!"

To find his lines cast in these places would be an almost crushing thing for every romancer in literary history, perhaps, save Hawthorne. But Hawthorne is almost the only romancer who was not concerned with painting life at all. He was engaged, to use a phrase of Carlyle's concerning quite a different writer, "airily sketching out" certain currents in life, and this with a good deal of graceful disregard for anything but his own fancy. Mr. James is, on the other hand, passionately fond of life. He enjoys nothing so well as to assist ("as the French say," he would explain) at the spectacle of it. Elsewhere he regrets that Hawthorne has not left us "a picture of the Boston society of fifty years ago"; he notes Hawthorne's absence of realism and recurs to it again and again; he has a partiality for 'The House of the Seven Gables' because it is "pervaded with that vague hum, that indefinable echo, of the whole multitudinous life of man, which is the real sign of a great work of fiction"; the chief fault he finds with it is, that "Holgrave is not sharply enough characterized," that "he lacks features," and that "he is not an individual, but a type." Throughout the book he seems to regard Hawthorne as a novelist, at least to regard him from the novelist's standpoint. He has a long, an ingenious, and an interesting contrast of 'The Scarlet Letter' with Lockhart's novel 'Adam Blair,' for example, which seems to us quite amiss. So far from applying the standards of the novelist to the author of 'The Scarlet Letter,' we should instead have great doubts about calling his romances "novels" at all—except, perhaps, 'The Blithedale Romance.' If it be necessary to do this in order to distinguish Hawthorne in kind from the mass of the other great romancers it is eminently appropriate; and it may have been Mr. James's intention to do only this—it is evidently a question which he alone could decide; but we are obliged to judge from the impression he makes upon us, and that is of considering at much length the merits and shortcomings of Hawthorne in a sphere to which he conspicuously does not belong.

Perhaps this also results from Mr. James's notion of the dignity of criticism and respect for academic canons. The difficulty with too keen

*'English Men of Letters. Edited by John Morley. Hawthorne. By Henry James, jr.' London: Macmillan & Co.; New York: Harper & Brothers.

a sense of the worth of academic canons is, however, well understood; it is that the critic whose criteria are the usually excellent ones of "the world in general" is apt to miss something of the flavor of the individual genius he is considering, and not to be quite careful enough concerning the sureness of his sympathy. We have the word for it of so sceptical a critic as Sainte-Beuve that sympathy is part of the necessary equipment of the critic; but it is quite true that it is a quality generally most insisted upon by the transcendental order of critics, and we should say that if anything jarred on Mr. James more than provincialism it was transcendentalism. He is probably so hostile to its essence that he has small respect for any of its dicta. At all events, his own method in literary criticism is, like his method in fiction, that of looking at the thing in question upon all sides, considering it in all its relations, describing it in detail, and representing it "as it is," from a strictly impersonal view-point—"objectively, as the metaphysicians say." This is admirable, when one feels sympathetically towards the thing in question, or, we may add, at the risk of making an unusual statement, towards its opposite. Now and then it has seemed to us Mr. James does not feel in either of these ways concerning his subjects, and in these instances he loses the pith of the matter. In the present work he speaks of Thoreau (page 94) in this way: "He was imperfect, unfinished, inartistic; he was worse than provincial—he was parochial. It is only at his best that he is readable," than which nothing, it seems to us, could be more unhappy. He means that Thoreau was unacademic, which is so true that it is almost a slip to speak of it; but surely one would be hard bestead to find anything more perfect, finished, and artistic than many things in the 'Week.' On the other hand, it is perhaps his intimate hostility to the whole spirit of the New England transcendental movement that leads him to speak thus of Margaret Fuller: "It is safe to assume that Hawthorne could not, on the whole, have had a high relish for the very positive personality of this accomplished and argumentative woman, in whose intellect high noon seemed ever to reign, as twilight did in his own. He must have been struck with the glare of her understanding, and, mentally speaking, have scowled and blinked a good deal in conversation with her." Again, the habit of relying upon one's observation, the being accustomed to see far more clearly and deeply than most people, inevitably begets an occasional careless trustfulness in itself.

It is due to both these reasons, we may infer, that Mr. James's account of Hawthorne fails in the respects in which it does fail. We cannot help thinking that if he had had a quicker sympathy with Hawthorne he would not have been so deeply impressed with Hawthorne's provinciality and the blankness of his surroundings, and he would not have omitted so conspicuously to consider the poetic quality of his writings. He once or twice refers to a poetic passage, and at the end he says, "he was not simply a poet," for "the poets are more purely inconclusive and irresponsible," which implies that he was a good deal of a poet. But here as elsewhere his poetry is referred to by implication and rarely, whereas his qualities as a novelist are mentioned directly and abundantly. Consistently, too, it is his poetic quality that Mr. James in a sort objects to; that is to say, one feels that he considers his fancifulness a limitation of his powers as a novelist. In many regards there has been no such just judgment of 'The Scarlet Letter' written. But it is impossible to be quite satisfied with this: "The faults of the book are, to my sense, a want of reality and an abuse of the fanciful element—of a certain superficial symbolism." And he goes on:

> "The people strike me not as characters, but as representatives, very picturesquely arrayed, of a single state of mind; and the interest of the story lies, not in them, but in the situation, which is insistently kept before us, with little progression, though with a great deal, as I have said, of a certain stable variation, and to which they, out of their reality, contribute little that helps it to live and move. . . . Lockhart was struck with the warmth of the subject that offered itself to him, and Hawthorne with its coldness . . . Hawthorne was a thin New-Englander, with a miasmatic conscience. The idea of the mystic A . . . should, I think, have been just made and dropped; . . . his enjoyment of it is puerile. . . . Hawthorne is perpetually looking for images which shall place themselves in picturesque correspondence with the spiritual facts with which he is concerned, and of course the search is of the very essence of poetry. But in such a process discretion is everything."

And in reviewing such a process, one feels impelled to add, ultra-discretion is dangerous. It almost calls for cordiality. In the review of 'The House of the Seven Gables' we find the same slight inadequacy. In the account of the 'Note Books,' after quoting "The aromatic odor of peat-smoke in the sunny autumnal air is very pleasant," Mr. James adds: "The reader says to himself that when a man turned thirty gives a place in his mind—and his inkstand—to such trifles as these, it is because nothing else of superior importance demands admission," and he laments afresh the "simple, democratic, thinly-composed society."

But when he ceases to object to Hawthorne's unsubstantiality *per se*, and to the extent to which it is sometimes pushed, and comes to consider generally the quality of his mind and the complexion of his temperament, he writes with a subtle felicity, and, at the same time, a certain wholesomeness, that are the mark of literary criticism of the first class. His portrait of Hawthorne discloses what we believe to be the truth about him, and, as we have said, this has never been formulated with any precision heretofore. On the one hand Hawthorne appears in this portrait a very different figure from the fiction conceived by M. Émile Montégut, who represents him, as he would perhaps be likely to appear to the Gallic imagination, as a *romancier pessimiste*. All that can be said in support of this Mr. James says is true "with a difference." Hawthorne was a *romancier pessimiste*, "minus the conviction." On the other hand, the popular American notion that he was a genuine Puritan, and that his books are, from the very fact of their poetic imaginativeness, valuable enforcements of the Puritan morality, important expositions of the Puritan code of ethics, as it were; that they emphasize the awfulness of sin, and its universality; and that the human conscience is treated in them with vivid realism, Mr. James very happily shows to be wholly beside the mark. One has only to think of the difference between 'Faust,' for example, and 'The Marble Faun' to see how different in kind was Hawthorne's treatment of sin and the conscience from treatment so little "realistic" as even Goethe's. "Nothing is more curious and interesting," says Mr. James, "than this almost exclusively *imported* character of the sense of sin in Hawthorne's mind; it seemed to exist there merely for an artistic or literary purpose." That this purpose was not the reverse of trivial, however, no one will pretend. Just how serious it was, Mr. James intimates in the last sentence of his book, a sentence which, quite as much through what it suggests as what it states, defines Hawthorne's place almost with precision: "Man's conscience was his theme, but he saw it in the light of a creative fancy which added out of its own substance an interest, and I may almost say, an importance."

WOOLSEY'S COMMUNISM AND SOCIALISM.*

THE greater part of this book appeared in the form of weekly letters last year in the *Independent*. It contains, first, an historical sketch of the various attempts made to establish societies, small and great, united in common life by some one principle or motive, and holding all property in common for the general undivided interest of the members, beginning with the Buddhist monasteries, and coming down through the Christian monasteries and communistic sects to the Harmonists, Zoarists, Inspirationists, Oneida Communists, and Shakers of our own day. Dr. Woolsey then discusses with greater fulness the various socialistic theories and Utopias of our own time, and examines the extent to which they have laid hold of the popular mind, and their probable influence on the future of modern society. The former portion is necessarily a mere outline; the latter is more interesting, as containing the author's opinions on some questions which are now seriously affecting the political life of the Old World at least.

We must, however, take exception to Dr. Woolsey's definition of the terms Communism and Socialism. He treats them as synonymous, "the first of earlier origin than the other," and puts on the same level with them "two others of still more modern birth," Collectivism and Mutualism. That they are used frequently as synonymous in the popular writing of the day is true. As a matter of fact, however, we believe Socialism took its rise as a generic term, denoting the subordination of political reform to social reform—or, in other words, the substitution in politics of social questions for questions relating to the structure of the government or the distribution of political sovereignty. As such it included, and properly includes, Communism, Mutualism, Collectivism, Fourierism, as species. A Socialist is, strictly speaking, a man who seeks a change in the industrial organization of society as the end of political action, and the change may take the form either of Communism, or Fourierism, or of several other systems. Communists are, therefore, a sect of Socialists, and they demand the abolition of individual property and its transmission to the state, to be used by the state both as capital and as the reward of labor. "The plan," to use Dr.

* 'Communism and Socialism in their History and Theory. A Sketch, by Theodore D. Woolsey.' New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1880.

Woolsey's language, "is to take away all means of production—all land, machinery, manufactories, all means of transport, and transfer them as property to the state; to abolish all private trade, credit, business relations, and the medium of circulation."

His examination of the probable effect of such a plan on the foreign relations of the state, on its finances, on the patriotism and public spirit of the people, on the monetary circulation, on knowledge, and on the relations of the community thus organized to religion, to marriage, and the family, is both interesting and suggestive. Though perhaps sufficient for the audience to which he originally addressed himself—"those who would relish neither extensive details touching the communities of the past, which have left no mark on society, nor a long exposition of the economic principles of modern Socialism"—one cannot help wishing that he had in the volume before us treated these topics with greater fulness. The closing chapter on the probable future of Socialism, and the extent to which it threatens the present form of society with overthrow, overlooks, as it seems to us, two important considerations. One is, that there is no sign as yet that the passion for equality, which, as Dr. Woolsey truly says, constitutes the strength of Socialism, has at all shaken the passion for individual ownership. This appears to be everywhere as strong as ever. Men may desire that nobody shall possess more property than his fellows, but Socialistic agitation has not as yet revealed any evidence that the instinct of private ownership has been at all weakened in the race, or that it does not actually gain strength with the progress of civilization. All attempts to extinguish it or keep it in tolerable subjection even among small numbers of men, unaided by religious enthusiasm, have thus far failed miserably. The strength of Socialism lies in popular hostility to large accumulations of wealth in single hands, but we doubt if there are ten per cent. of the Socialists who, if put to the test of practice, would agree never to own anything themselves individually. This fact makes the numbers of Socialist voters in any country very delusive as an indication of the real strength of the movement, or of its danger to the present social organization. What they are really seeking, in the bottom of their hearts, is not the abolition of property, but a more satisfactory division of it among individual proprietors.

The second consideration is this: Dr. Woolsey takes Schaeffle's description of the probable practical working of Socialism as the basis of his remarks. In the system thus described, Marx's standard of value, the time spent in labor, is to prevail; that is, an hour of any one kind of labor is to entitle a man to as much of the common stock as an hour of any other kind of labor. In the Socialistic state everything the individual needs is to be kept in state storehouses, and thither each person is to go with his certificate of the number of hours he has worked, and draw as much of the goods as this entitles him to. The state is to own everything—land, machinery, buildings, every instrument of production and all products of industry. Now, Schaeffle, to say nothing of Karl Marx or Lassalle, argues as if "the state" were an individual of extraordinary power, who could take over the property of the community by proclamation, and manage it with as much ease as the Government now manages the post-office. That this illusion should run through the speculations of Continental reformers is not surprising, considering the mystery which surrounds the Government, even in the eyes of educated men, in every Continental state. But it is surprising that Dr. Woolsey, as well as most English and American writers who have attacked Socialism, have failed to perceive that it is through an examination of the term "the state" that the movement can be most easily breached. The state in its executive capacity is simply a large body of agents, not a mysterious and all-powerful will pervading the community. Transferring the property of the community to the state does not mean, therefore, simply the issue of a decree; it means the seizure and safe-keeping of all the machinery, buildings, raw material, lands, minerals, farm-produce, by a vast body of officers, under some system of accountability and discipline and inspection, and these officers would have to be at least one-third as numerous as the present individual owners, and would have to be persons of good character and of a certain amount of capacity. When the work of production began, there would have to be another body of officers, of still higher capacity, to decide what should be produced, and to select and superintend the processes of production, and to see that the laborers did their hour of labor, and to give them certificates of having done it. These officers would have to provide some means, too, of preventing too much labor being expended in particular fields of production, and prevent the total abandonment of the coarser forms of labor; for who would engage in street-cleaning, ditching, draining, and the removal of night-soil when his order on the public store could be had just as readily for grooming horses, or sawing firewood, or haymaking? The storekeepers, too, would have either to serve goods out according to their own view of each applicant's proper necessities—a wonderful task—or else allow the full play of individual tastes. But if they allowed the play of individual tastes, how would it be possible to adjust the supply of particular articles to the demand? In saying this we simply indicate the difficulties of the plan. Any sane man can readily picture to himself the rest of the problem. In short, "the state," under communism, even in the State of New York, would be an army of officials larger than that which Xerxes led into Greece, charged with duties which none but very extraordinary men have hitherto shown themselves capable of performing, and drawing to such a degree on the organizing power of the community that there would be no one left to command them. In fact, it is hardly an exaggeration to say that so much industry and talent would be absorbed in storekeeping and distributing and superintending, that there would be but little or none left for production. A mere glance at this aspect of it gives the whole scheme the character of a Bedlamite dream, and might well save grave social philosophers the trouble of examining the effect it would have in practice on morals or religion, or commerce, or war.

A GREAT DICTIONARY OF GEOGRAPHY.*

THE first volume of M. Vivien de Saint-Martin's 'Geographical Dictionary,' a large quarto of eight hundred and fifty pages of very fine print, embraces the letters A, B, and C (entire). Considering the amount of space generally occupied by these three letters in similar French publications, it is evident that the whole work is intended to be finished in two more somewhat larger, or in three more smaller, volumes. In any case it will be a work of vast dimensions among publications of its kind, and as the production, not of a corps of writers under the lead of one or more editors, but mainly of one author, aided by assistants—an author, too, who means to write and systematically elaborate, and not merely to compile—it is an almost gigantic literary enterprise. Of the few scholars who would dare to approach such a task M. Vivien de Saint-Martin is one of the best prepared. A student of geography from childhood, the writer or editor of a score of geographical publications of note—the first of which, 'Atlas universel,' appeared in 1825—an indefatigable collector and annotator, he had almost half a century of preparatory labor behind him when he definitively shaped his plan, and now, almost an octogenarian, he calmly and vigorously proceeds in its execution. It is needless to add that the great publishing house which issues the Dictionary amply supplies him with materials and aids of every kind.

This 'Geographical Dictionary' combines the features of a systematic geography and of a gazetteer. The larger articles contain extensive descriptions—physical, political, economical, and ethnological—ample historical notices, and a large amount of appropriate bibliography. The sources from which the information is drawn embrace the best authorities on the subject to be found—in the original or in translation—in English, French, Italian, or Spanish; the descriptions are pleasantly executed; and long quotations from famous writers, not exclusively modern and Occidental, add variety to the more interesting pages. Not only such articles as "Albanie," "Arabie," "Basques," or "Chine" are elaborate and attractive, but even notices like "Brooklyn" or "Baltimore" are very readable. It is unnecessary to state that everything concerning France and her colonies is treated with special minuteness. What we should particularly call the gazetteer-part of the work is to contain notices of from twelve to fifteen thousand communes of France. Europe altogether is to occupy three-fifths of the entire work. In spite of this there remains room enough—to cite one American name—for Albany, county of New York (7 lines); Albany, county of Wyoming (5 l.); Albany, capital of New York (nearly 70 l.); Albany, town of Georgia (9 l.); Albany, town of Oregon (8 l.); Albany, township of Vermont (2 l.); and Albany, township of Maine (2 l.) As to the share of Great Britain in the collection we may mention that upwards of sixty names of localities compounded with "Bally" (Ballyadams, Ballybacon, etc.) are separately noticed. As a characteristic bibliographical sample we may literally reproduce the "Bibliographie" of "Colorado":

"Bayard Taylor, *Colorado:* New York, 1867.—W. A. Bell, *New Tracts in North America: a journal of travel . . .*; Londres, 1869, 2 vol.—Du même, *On the Basin of Colorado;* Journ. of the Royal Geogr. Soc., 1869,

* 'Nouveau dictionnaire de géographie universelle. Par M. Vivien de Saint-Martin, président honoraire de la Société de Géographie de Paris, membre correspondant de l'Académie royale de sciences de Berlin, etc., etc.' Tome premier. Paris: Hachette & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern. 1879.

vol. xxxix.—S. Bowles, *The Switzerland of America: a summer vacation in Colorado;* Boston, 1869.—W. Blackmore, *Colorado;* Washington, 1869, in-4to.—S. Southworth, *The new State of Colorado;* Geographical Magazine de Markham, mai 1875, p. 139-144.—Enfin un grand nombre de Mémoires sur la géographie, la géologie, l'histoire naturelle, l'archéologie du Colorado ont été publiés par F. V. Hayden et ses collègues dans les *Bulletins of the United States Geological and Geographical Survey of the Territories.*"

The bibliography of "Chine," nearly a page long, reaches down to the year 1873, but that of "Algérie" stops at 1873, that of "Australie" at 1872, and that of "Amoûr (Territoire de l')" at 1870. The titles, in various languages, are everywhere given with the same correctness which characterizes those above cited in English. The same accuracy marks, on the whole, the endless mass of names in most European languages, and also the Oriental names in scholarly French renderings. (The translation of names of this class is a feature of additional value.) Frequent inaccuracies occur, however, in Slavic names—the Russian excepted, in the revision of which the author has had excellent assistance—and especially in the names of polyglot Hungary. On page 540, for instance, we find "Kujavski," "*Ou*svica," "*Ou*szevo," "Bz*ou*ra," "Tarn*ov*," "Ro*pezye*," "*Vi*sloka," all Polish names false on their face; and on page 413 many more incorrect Magyar names: "Beregsz*asz*," "Munk*acs*," "T*é*mesvár," "Nagy-V*a*rad," "K*ö*ros," "Tem*è*s," "Bereny," "Zagyra," "Somegy," "Debreczèn," "Ung*h*vár," etc., etc. Worse mistakes occur in an Austro-Hungarian table of populations (p. 276), in which, besides many wrong spellings, "Kolosvar ou Zombor (Hongrie). . . . 25,000; Klausenbourg, capitale de la Transylvanie, . . . 25,000;" stands for this: Kolosvár ou Klausenbourg, capitale de la Transylvanie, . . . 25,000; Zombor (Hongrie), . . . 25,000.

Some lack of accuracy is discoverable also in regard to historical dates in the shorter notices. Thus, we read under "Bladensburg": "Les Anglais y gagnèrent une bataille en 1815" (they did in 1814); and under "Bull-Run": "ruisseau . . . devenu célèbre par la première bataille de la grande guerre de sécession, le 21 Juin, 1861" (it was fought on July 21). The second battle of Bull Run is not mentioned; the battles fought near Chattanooga and on the Chickahominy, and the operations for and after the capture of Atlanta, are correctly spoken of under the respective titles, but, probably from caution, without a date; Chickamauga, mentioned under "Chattanooga," has no separate notice. Some of the historical remarks are clear evidences of the writer's patriotism. Under "Bazeilles" we read: "Ce malheureux bourg, théâtre d'une action sanglante, le 1er Septembre, 1870, entre les Français et les Prussiens, fut le lendemain mis au pillage et impitoyablement livré aux flammes par ces derniers, en ressentiment des pertes cruelles qu'ils y avaient éprouvées." The fact is correct, but the reason alleged is a French version. Under "Canada," this remark is attached to a statement about the early French settlers: "Si leurs successeurs avaient continué leur œuvre dans le même esprit, l'Amérique serait en très-grande partie française."

To carry out a detailed examination of a number of the more extensive articles—and to pick out one or two could hardly serve any critical purpose—would require much more time and space than we can devote to this work. Suffice it to say that our general impression is that no library of any pretension can afford to remain without it.

Camps in the Caribbees. The Adventures of a Naturalist in the Lesser Antilles. Illustrated. By Fred. A. Ober. (Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1880. 8vo, pp. 366.)—This narrative of experiences in Guadeloupe, Martinique, Dominica, St. Vincent, Grenada, and the Grenadines, conveys in a popular manner a good deal of information on various branches of natural history. During a year and a half the author, in the field, in camp, or in the huts of the natives, armed with note-book and camera, gathered only such items as in his judgment would have a general interest. Though not at all exhaustive in the topics upon which he touches, he has succeeded in making an interesting work. The distances travelled were short; no hostile men and few or no ferocious beasts were met with; the country traversed is one in which an enthusiastic lover of nature revels in diversity. Mingled with the stories of adventure are descriptions of scenery and comprehensive notes on the plants, the birds, and the Caribs. Some space is devoted to early history and antiquities, and an enjoyable chapter to the home of the Empress Josephine and its surroundings. The primary object of the expedition being a collection of birds, these receive a great deal of well-bestowed attention.

The scientific pretensions of the work are most open to criticism. It is doubtful whether many will agree with our author in regard to the mysterious current spoken of in the opening chapter:

"Along the entire group of the Caribbee Isles, sweeping their western shores, flows a strange, mysterious current. Not subject, apparently, to the laws that govern the winds and tides of this region, it for years puzzled and baffled the ablest navigators and oldest sailors." "It was not known until a comparatively recent period that it was the outflow of a mighty river—no less than the great Orinoco—that caused all this disturbance of waters, and that dependent upon its different stages was the force of this river through the sea."

The great equatorial current, off the northeast coast of South America, flowing into the Caribbean Sea and making the Gulf Stream possible, carries the waters of the Orinoco in this direction, but their presence so many hundred miles to the northward and westward of the mouth of the river could only be a consequence, not a cause, of the Gulf Stream. The story of the discovery of the boiling lake in 1875, p. 66, needs investigation. A map of Dominica, published many years earlier, now in possession of Mr. Wm. Stedman, of Roseau, has a nameless lake in the position assigned to the recent discovery. In the account of the Hercules beetle, on page 158, the writer adopts an idea prevalent among the natives. It is said that the beetle seizes small branches between its horns (so called), and whirls around to cut them off. As the branch is of no imaginable use to the creature, and only the males possess the horns, the supposition that it is done to call the female is added by the author. The lower side of the upper horn is covered by a close growth of fine hairs, which, as Fabricius pointed out very early in the history of the insect, could not be retained if the limb were held between the horns tightly enough to cut it. The figure of this beetle will not deceive entomologists; it would have misled no one if the feet and claws had been supplied from the perfect specimens or good figures so easily obtained. There is no notice of its mutilated condition in the text. The following quotation occurs on page 159: "Further search among the leaves revealed several centipedes, which were more to be dreaded than the beetles, as their bites will throw one into a fever." This is the common belief among the negroes. Experiments in parts where fevers are excessively common have not verified it. Other instances might be cited which tend to show a degree of credulity and of recklessness in statement not always to be harmonized with the demands of science. The appendix contains a list of the birds collected by Mr. Ober, with descriptions of the new species.

Catharine and Craufurd Tait: A Memoir. Edited by the Rev. Wm. Benham. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.)—This memoir of the wife and son of Archbishop Tait lets the reader into the heart of an English home in which the religious duties and emotions made the central and absorbing fact of life; it has been printed, indeed, in the belief "that the lessons which these memorials are likely, under God's blessing, to call forth are too important for the Church of God to allow them to lie buried within the sanctity of home," and certainly no lesser motive would excuse such a revelation of the most sacred joys and sorrows of private life. Mrs. Tait seems to have had from childhood a devoutly religious temperament. She was bred in the evangelical faith, but in early life she received strong High-Church notions from Edward Fortescue, her brother-in-law, whose influence she believed would have made her a nun, had she not married Mr. Tait. The character of this influence may be judged of by the account of how she passed Good Friday in Mr. Fortescue's house:

"The day had been spent in fasting and prayer, in the solemn endeavor to realize the scenes of that terrible day in Jerusalem; and when the hours of darkness came, as they were alone in their rooms, there was an awful silence, broken at intervals by his deep voice through their open doors, pronouncing the words of the dying Saviour on the cross, this lasting through the three hours of agony He hung upon it."

It is not strange that about this time "her higher life was quickened by a message which seemed to have come direct from the source of it, when, on some occasion of keen enjoyment of the earthly pleasures surrounding her, she seemed to hear the words, 'make for the higher!'" From these vague and morbid emotions she was withdrawn by her marriage with Mr. Tait, then head-master of Rugby, and her duties in her new and busy station called out her surprising practical ability, which was as marked a characteristic as her devotion.

After four years at Rugby—the happiest of their life—they removed to the Deanery of Carlisle, where they met with their great sorrow, the loss of five little daughters within five weeks. The narrative of this event is written by Mrs. Tait herself, to be published after her death, in the hope that it might "speak a word of help and comfort to those upon

whom a similar burden is laid." This is the most remarkable portion of the book; it is acutely painful in itself and heartrending in its minute delineation of every detail of suffering and shade of sorrow, while the whole is pervaded by a trustful and almost fervent religious resignation. Fortunately it is seldom that such a story is laid bare; the pain it gives must exceed any comfort it can afford, and the experience itself is too sacred ever to be disclosed. The narrative throws light on the education which was thought good for these children; it is not unfair to let the reader judge by this sentence about one of them not yet nine years old: "Almost always in health, this dear girl would find and choose hymns about death; from her earliest babyhood death had seemed to my May a great and blessed reality."

Shortly after the children's death Mr. Tait was made Bishop of London and afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury. His wife, in the new duties she was thus called on to discharge, won all hearts; her business as well as her social abilities found full occupation, and her time was largely spent among the charitable institutions, particularly those which had the care of children in view. St. Peter's Orphanage was wholly her work. In these later years are introduced the memorials of Craufurd Tait, the story of whose boyhood and youth relieves the sombre religiosity of the book, and agreeably corrects the notion that home-life in this family was only a succession of prayers, Sunday-school lessons, hymns, religious books and services. He was amiable, attractive, and full of spirits, given to sports as much as to books; and in his manhood was modest, diligent, and devoted to his work in the Church. His death, soon after his visit to the United States, which is still pleasantly remembered by those who met him, was the last trial left for his mother, who survived it only six months. Throughout the book are attractive glimpses of English life, but the interest is made to centre in the exhibition of Christian character here given—examples which will appeal forcibly to those who sympathize with the emotions and share the conviction in which the mother and her son had their real life.

Shakespeare's Morals: Suggestive Selections, with brief collateral readings and Scriptural references. Edited by Arthur Gilman, M.A. (New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1880.)—Mr. Gilman has the authority of Coleridge for holding that Shakspere especially lends himself to the editor of "beauties and selections," and it is apparently to show how just is the eulogy of Coleridge and others of Shakspere's morality that he has made this book. It is well made, and evinces a great deal of thoughtful diligence wholly superior to mere ingenuity, but we cannot help thinking that the editor has been at considerable pains to do something not at all needful to be done. He says himself, in his preface, that "It was not the intention of Shakespeare in his literary work to elaborate a system of morals, or to give his hearers maxims for their guidance in life," and, little as can be certainly said of any of Shakspere's "intentions," this seems an entirely safe thing to say. Nevertheless, if it were anywhere maintained that Shakspere's morality could not be favorably "contrasted with that of the writers of his own or the succeeding age, or those of the present day," as Coleridge says, or even if it was not felt by every one to appear in his "literary work" as a distinct element of it, it would be worth while to show the contrary. But the fact is quite otherwise, and there is really no serious reason for turning Shakspere into a "hoard of maxims." To do this is really to pervert Shakspere. The question is not as to the fact of Shakspere's morality, but how morality appears in Shakspere. He had, as Carlyle says, "penetrated into innumerable things; far into Nature" and "far into man's workings with Nature," and his morality is so distinct an element of his work because "moral ideas are really so main a part of human life," to quote a recent utterance concerning Wordsworth. How different this is from presenting a series of didactic maxims, such as the Book of Proverbs presents, or even the Sermon on the Mount, it is not at all difficult to see. Whether it is better from a moral point of view, is not a consideration; to confound the two is simply a perversion which must jar on any nice literary sense; and it must in the end lead to all manner of intricate and whimsical perversion, of which it is no excuse at all to plead the best intentions. It does so lead with Mr. Gilman. He divides his book into sections, each labelled with some moral maxim or statement of doctrine, such as "Character not to be judged by Appearances," "Hereditary Sin," "The Atonement," "The Guilt and Folly of Suicide." Under each of these he quotes one or more passages from Shakspere, from the Bible, Sophocles, the late Dr. Bushnell, and others, as he chances to think of a literary analogue. The result is grotesque in one view, certainly, but our criticism is that it is misleading. Under "Hereditary Sin," for example, we have (page 22) from "Timon of Athens":

> "There's nothing level in our cursed natures
> But direct villany."

Under "Character not to be judged by Appearances" (page 29) is quoted this from "The Winter's Tale":

> "The self-same sun that shines upon his court
> Hides not his visage from our cottage, but
> Looks on alike";

and from the Bible, "He maketh his sun to rise on the evil and on the good," etc. Under "The Guilt and Folly of Suicide" (page 196) we have *Hamlet's* soliloquy. Who does not see here that *Timon's* fierce invective does not involve any belief about the doctrine of hereditary sin; that the passage from Matthew has a wholly different meaning from that of *Perdita's* words; and that *Hamlet's* bitter "Thus conscience does make cowards of us all" is not an expression of either the guilt or folly of self-slaughter? And these random instances might be multiplied by the dozen. Taken together, moreover, they leave a total impression of the way in which moral ideas appear in Shakspere that is quite as false as these individual instances, and there is less protection against this because it is not palpable. It is, of course, not only in quality of thought that Shakspere differs from the author of "The Proverbial Philosophy"; and its indirect implication that the contrary is true forms the main demerit of Mr. Gilman's book, and makes it one of the last which we would put into the hands of the student of Shakspere, who, reading Shakspere by its light, would, we are convinced, read him quite amiss. The importance of noticing such books at any length is obviously in direct proportion to the importance of not reading Shakspere amiss, whatever views it is best to entertain about original sin and the guilt of suicide.

Some Account of the Bills of Credit or Paper Money of Rhode Island, 1710–1786. By Elisha R. Potter and Sidney S. Rider. With twenty illustrations. Rhode Island Historical Tracts, No. 8. (Providence: Sidney S. Rider. 1880.)—Mr. Rider has rewritten Potter's history of the Rhode Island paper money into a very handsome volume, with curious facsimiles, and, in one case, an actual specimen of the colonial issues. The work has gained very much in clearness of form and statement, and the additions made by Mr. Rider are of real importance. The antiquarian interest seems to predominate over the economic interest in the book, so that the casual reader would fail to derive the instruction which the history really carries with it in regard to paper issues. It is safe to say that there is no variety of form or device for the issue of paper money which was not tried in the colonies. Rhode Island, especially, subjected the notion of "banks" to a full and final experiment. The "banks" were masses of paper notes printed and issued by the colonial government, and loaned on the security of mortgages. This device, which finds advocates over and over again in every generation, was thoroughly tested here in the colonial days. It would be a great service to the science of currency, supposing that the material exists, if some one of the investigators would give us the history of the accounts of these banks—what portion of the interest was never paid (no security was given for the interest), what portion of the principal was lost, how many suits the state had to prosecute against delinquents and how the suits resulted, how many debtors were not found, etc. It is known in general that the results of the experiment under all these heads were most unfortunate. Especially did the plan fail in respect to so much "redemption" as it provided for. It was assumed that when the loans were repaid to the state they would be paid in the notes, which would thereby be withdrawn and cancelled. If this plan had proved practicable the people would have operated upon themselves, from period to period, voluntary expansions and contractions of the currency. Of course they never did this, but, when the time for payment and contraction came, they clamored for further issues and further depreciation. Thus each bank made another one more necessary, and the debtor interest became larger and more vitally interested in the system.

Nine of these "banks" were issued before the Revolution. The "tenor" of the notes was varied so that different species of them were afloat, having different ratings. It is worth noticing that in one case, where a sum was provided for retiring certain counterfeits, these were worth twice as much as genuine notes. The whole history shows that the "bank" scheme is a mischievous delusion, that the paper system was a clog on the colony, and that, when the English Government forbade any further issues of bills of credit, none of the terrible consequences which had been anticipated came to pass.

Methodism: Old and New. With Sketches of some of its early Preachers. By J. R. Flanigen. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

1880.)—This book is an amplification of a number of newspaper articles the original purpose of which was much slighter, but whose reception persuaded the author to continue and expand them into what he trusts, with some reason, is "such an interesting and running synopsis of the history of Methodism as will prove entertaining as well as instructive to readers of all denominations." It is for its entertainment that it will be mainly esteemed, perhaps. As a history of Methodism its value is not of great importance; it does not succeed in giving any clear idea of the rise or distinctive tenets of Methodism, though it seems to attempt this; but Methodists themselves will, of course, find this no blemish, and it is for Methodists that it appears to have been written. It is also almost altogether devoted to the history of Methodism in Philadelphia, though it contains a sketch of Wesley's life, and allusions to the progress of the cause in England and in other parts of this country. That history, it may strike the wholly "unsectarian" reader, seems to have been varied by an uncommon number of painful controversies, schisms, and heart-burnings, but his minute record of these is an excellent witness of the historian's impartiality and his confidence in the essential nobility of his theme. Mr. Flanigen enjoyed the acquaintance of many of the "old-time" preachers of his denomination in Philadelphia, however, and his book contains, as its most interesting material, numerous sketches of these worthies, many of whom must have been decidedly picturesque figures; and to the picturesque side of them he has the merit of not being blind. Among these were Richard Allen, first bishop of "The African Methodist Episcopal Church," at one time a slave, and, though "learned only from nature," nevertheless "rather an extraordinary man for his times"; Bishop Asbury, to whom American Methodism owes more than to any other man, we are told; Dr. Durbin, who "reminded one constantly of Henry Clay," though they were utterly opposed in manner and style, and resembled each other only, so far as is mentioned, in their power over audiences; William Barns, familiarly known as "Billy Barns"; J. N. Maffitt, Joseph Rusling, Lorenzo Dow and his wife Peggy, "old father Gruber," "Pappy" Neal, and many others. Next, of course, to Dow the Rev. Billy Barns was possibly the most eccentric of this array. Mr. Flanigen has several amusing anecdotes to tell of him. His wife used to restrain his eloquence on occasion by catching his eye and giving him a warning look; once in the midst of a fervid sermon he broke out: "Oh! you may look, and you may look, Mrs. Barns, but the tri-colored flag of Methodism, the Bible, the Hymn-Book, and the Discipline, shall be carried to the front in triumph if it costs William Barns his life." He wore a wig and was accordingly reproved for ostentation. "Preaching one day one of his fiery sermons, he raised his hand over his head, exclaiming, 'Here is William Barns with his wig,' and suiting the action to the word, and grasping the wisp of hair and holding it aloft, he continued, 'and here is William Barnes without his wig. How do you like him best?'" The effect was, we are assured, "not only electric but to some extent ludicrous." Mr. Barns's style was of an oriental character, and as it is probably typical of much of the preaching of the day, we may reproduce part of a single sentence quoted by Mr. Flanigen, as follows: "the blue vault of heaven, where we shall pluck the stars as flowers from a garden, and, dressed in garments of dazzling light, we shall drink from cups of gold circled with diamonds and rubies, from the pure and everlasting springs that circle and flow around and over Jehovah's starry throne." Mr. Maffitt was also "sensational in the highest degree," though the author shares the distrust of many persons, he says, who "refused to believe that he had ever truly experienced religion." He was, however, of no great account, and is described as a mere "pyrotechnic exhalation." A preacher of a different sort was the Rev. "Josie" Rusling; he allowed "a very respectable man," who was, nevertheless, "perhaps just enough unhinged in mind to have become devilish," to shout out "That is a lie," upon three successive Sabbaths, at some point in the sermon, without losing his dignity or vouchsafing a retort. The occurrence, by the way, led ultimately to a long lawsuit. Lorenzo Dow is described at length by Mr. Flanigen, who seems not without a dash of humor occasionally, though, for the most part, he has the faculty under good control; he says of Dow, for example: "He wore his hair long like a woman, except that he didn't put it up." We also get stray anecdotical allusions to preachers of other denominations, as to the Rev. "Jimmie" Patterson, a Presbyterian divine, who "preached that there were children in hell only a week old," which the author terms "egregious doctrine," and a nameless preacher of the same persuasion (his residence is, however, given) whose rich congregation have tried to get rid of him twice by the heroic means of reducing his salary $1,000 each time; but he still "sticks"—a standing argument, Mr. Flanigen thinks, of the wisdom of itineracy, under which "this brother would, doubtless, be doing effective work on a circuit where the people might like him well enough." Here we seem to lose sight of Mr. Flanigen's humorous faculty entirely, but we have said enough to show that he has made a moderately amusing book.

Four Months in a Sneak-Box. By Nathaniel H. Bishop. (Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1879. 12mo, pp. xii. 322.)—The first of Mr. Bishop's boat-voyages from Northern waters to the Gulf of Mexico will be remembered (see the *Nation*, No. 673) as having been made in a paper canoe, and by the route of the so-called "inner Atlantic coast." The present volume describes the second of these long voyages, made in 1875–1876, for the most part upon the Ohio and the Mississippi Rivers, and with a small duck-boat, or "sneak-box," instead of a canoe as his vehicle. This craft had the advantage of sufficient strength to serve as a bed without risk of injuring it, which cannot be said of a wooden or paper canoe; being three or four times as heavy, it had the further advantage, as we consider it, that the voyager could not strap it upon his back and carry it across portages; weighing two hundred pounds, it could be "conveniently transported from one stream to another in an ordinary wagon." It was, Mr. Bishop tells us, "a very home-like boat, which, though only twelve feet long, four feet wide, and thirteen inches deep, was strong, stiff, dry, and safe, a craft that could be sailed or rowed, as wind, weather, or inclination might dictate." The interest of this book, as of the earlier one, is mainly in the notes of the rough types of character which Mr. Bishop met, notably of the floating population of the Mississippi River. There is abundant incident, too, often of a more or less peculiar sort. The maps which accompany the volume, though on a small scale, claim the merit of accuracy, having been engraved at the Bureau of the Coast Survey. Mr. Bishop has, indeed, a taste for accurate geography; but he speaks perhaps too confidently sometimes, as where he says (p. 119) that "the Missouri is the longest river in the world, and the Mississippi is only a branch of it." Even allowing his estimate for that river's length of "4,363 miles, without counting some of its highest sources," still the measurements of the Nile and the Yang-tse-kiang remain to be completed before this question can be considered as settled. For the rest, Mr. Bishop's book is written in a direct and readable style, and makes a closely-matched companion volume to his 'Voyage of the Paper Canoe.'

A Hand-Book of Double Stars. With a catalogue of 1,200 double stars and extensive lists of measures. With additional notes bringing the measures up to 1879. For the use of Amateurs. By Edward Crossley, F.R.A.S., Joseph Gledhill, F.R.A.S., and James M. Wilson, M.A., F.R.A.S. (London and New York: Macmillan. 1879. Pp. 464. Illustrated.)—This work on double stars by three distinguished amateur astronomers of England deserves especial notice and recommendation to the amateur observers of America. We have in this country scores of private observatories eminently well fitted to do work of value, and owned by gentlemen who have sufficient leisure to undertake really serious labor. The most common complaint from amateurs is that they do not know to what use to put their instruments, nor *exactly* how to spend their limited time to the best advantage. To those of them who care to take up the subject of double stars this book answers all questions. With it they can see what stars to observe, how to observe them, and how to draw useful and interesting conclusions from observation. As a book "for the use of amateurs" it is just what was needed, and if properly read and studied any intelligent owner of a telescope can learn precisely how he can obtain a solid return for his astronomical investment.

Although it is chiefly to amateurs that we desire to commend the work, it deserves notice for certain special points which will be of value to the professional astronomer. Its catalogue of twelve hundred stars makes a useful observing list; the notes to this contain a synoptic history of each star; the chapters on the computation of orbits of binary stars by Dr. Doberck and Mr. Wilson are of immediate practical value; the bibliography of double stars is very full and valuable, and the various topics are treated from the view-points of actual observers who are familiar with the practical difficulties.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Simpson (F. P.), Select Poems of Catullus	(Macmillan & Co.)	
Swinton (W.), New Word-Analysis	(Ivison, Blakeman & Co.)	
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Townsend (Prof. L. T.), Art of Speech, Vol I	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Woolsey (Prof. T. D.), Communism and Socialism	(Chas. Scribner's Sons)	$1 50
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 5, 1880.

The Week.

THE Pennsylvania State Convention met yesterday, too late for us to learn anything of its proceedings before going to press. The accounts of what its action is to be are at this writing extremely contradictory. None of the county delegates seem to have been "instructed" for Grant, and many have been "instructed" against him. Some time ago it was asserted that Mr. Cameron had made all the arrangements for the Convention's sending an instructed Grant delegation to Chicago; then it was said that, being a knowing man, and mindful of the uncertainties of politics, he was going to carry the delegation to Chicago unpledged, and then throw its united vote for the winning man, be he who he might; so that in all events Mr. Cameron would be on the safe side and get what he wanted. Now, it is said, he has changed his mind again, and insists on Grant instructions, and says the opposition to a third term is "all bosh." The question will be decided, however, before this reaches our readers.

If the Pennsylvania delegation should be instructed for Grant it would undoubtedly greatly increase the probability of his nomination, if it did not make it certain, as the Southern delegations will support his nomination *en masse* and with loud yells; and there is little doubt that the New York Convention is being at this moment carefully "fixed" with a like end in view. All accounts from Albany agree that there never has been a more complete devotion of the machinery of the State government, both executive and legislative, to the business of electioneering, of course under Mr. Conkling's superintendence, than exists at this moment. Mr. Cornell is doing the work given him to do with energy and ability, and the henchmen are all helping him. Of this, as we have before remarked, those who voted for Mr. Cornell have no right to complain, as he is stern and implacable as ever towards the Brigadiers and the Mississippi murderers. But there are still five months before the meeting of the Republican Presidential Convention, and the decline which has overtaken the Grant boom during the last two shows how easy it will be with proper methods to finish it by June next, and put his nomination out of the question. From every side the news comes that the movement has collapsed under discussion, in the eyes of the more reflective part of the community. Moreover, it has been greatly weakened in the eyes of those who are not reflective, but cry for "a strong man" whenever they feel uncomfortable, by the cessation of exciting debates in Congress and of news of "outrages" from the South. This is in a large degree due to the fact that Blaine and the other Republican candidates have perceived that stories of murders and "stirring up Ben Hill" all accrue to Grant's benefit. A certain amount of horror of the South was necessary to keep the party passions hot, but when it began to indicate a certain man for the Presidency they felt that there was enough of it.

The Independent Republicans, both in Pennsylvania and New York, have organized and begun their operations with the view of preventing the use of the Convention either for the Strong Man, the Machinist, or the Bad Man. The Pennsylvanians have prepared an address to their own State Convention, with a strong body of influential signers, in which they ask the delegates to take warning by the last election in New York; to remember that a third-term candidate, a Machine candidate, or a corruption candidate (Grant, Conkling, and Blaine) cannot get the support of a large number of Republicans under any circumstances, and to be wise in time by presenting the party with a candidate to whom there will be no organized opposition within the party. The New-Yorkers have passed resolutions denouncing the nomination of Grant on the ground that a third term would "bring back the abuses which disgraced his Administration and disintegrated the Republican party already"; and that of Blaine on the ground that he is "the chief representative of those abuses whose objectionable political methods, demoralizing the public conscience, made possible in his own State the wilful outrages of the Fusionists." The public ought to be reminded just now that Mr. Blaine enjoys the miserable distinction of being the one Speaker of a great legislative assembly who, in all parliamentary history, has been convicted, on the evidence of his own letter pitifully claiming his reward, of having ruled in the chair in favor of speculators, with the object of being considered a partner in their venture. Yet this is only a small part of what he would have to face in his canvass.

Mr. Parnell seems to be getting into very troubled water as he continues his oratory. He said when he first came over that the Queen of England was the only sovereign in Europe who contributed nothing to the relief of Irish distress during the famine of 1847. This was promptly declared to be a falsehood by a cable despatch from Lord Randolph Churchill, the Duke of Marlborough's son, who gave at the same time the amounts contributed by the Queen and other members of the royal family—$30,000 in all. Mr. Parnell now says that what the Queen did was to prevent the Sultan of Turkey from giving more than she herself gave. He has since stated that the fund raised by the Duchess of Marlborough for the relief of Irish distress was not applied to the relief of tenants who did not pay their rent. This has brought another despatch from the same quarter, pronouncing it another falsehood; and it is also alleged that it is *his* organization which is guilty of intolerance in refusing relief to those who *do* pay their rent. In fact, they are "making it hot under the old flag" for Mr. Parnell. He replies to this last contradiction by alleging that one of Lord Randolph Churchill's ancestors was the first Duke of Marlborough, who rose through the dishonor of his sister, and another the "notorious Sarah Jennings," the mistress of the Duke of York, and that therefore people with better ancestors must not mind what he says about the distribution of the fund. Mr. Parnell also adds, apparently in corroboration of the above, that he has "the best and most recent information from the distressed districts," and his charge is "absolutely true." He has also got into a controversy with the *Herald* because that paper does not report his speeches; but it defends itself very successfully by alleging that he delivers only one speech, and that it always reports any changes he makes in it. This savage quarrelling over a work of charity is, however, a repulsive spectacle to all decent people on both sides of the water, and the only substantial result it can have is to diminish the amount available for the relief of distress both among those who do and those who do not pay their rent, and to disgust the civilized world with Irish patriotism.

Mr. Thomas C. Platt, a very active Conklingite politician of this State, was a candidate for a seat in President Hayes's Cabinet, as a representative of the Conklingite interest, but his claims were not recognized. He was then chairman of the next State Convention at Saratoga, in which he denounced the Administration in unmeasured terms and thoroughly exposed the baseness and hypocrisy of the civil-service reformers, Senator Conkling applauding with conspicuous vigor. This was followed by the Senator's own exposure of Mr. George William Curtis. It was expected that when Mr. Cornell came into power some place of great dignity and emolument would be found for Mr. Platt, whose powers seemed to call for some large and thoroughly vacant field. The public has been, therefore, much surprised to find that he is consigned to the humble rôle of a Commissioner of Quarantine. What this means it is hard to say; but it is right to add that the place is one which the public would, if left to itself, have selected for him. The standards of capacity in use

in the inner circles of Conklingism are not, however, those of the outside world.

On Thursday last, Commissioner Hayt, of the Indian Bureau, was summarily removed from office by Mr. Schurz, without being allowed to resign. This took place in the midst of an investigation which the Commissioner was undergoing at the hands of the Board of Indian Commissioners, in consequence of charges preferred by one of its members—General Clinton B. Fisk. It is, however, alleged that Mr. Schurz's action was based not on the revelations of the enquiry, but on a clear discovery by the Secretary of concealment on the part of his subordinate amounting to official deception. For the immediate interest of the service, therefore, it is of little consequence whether Hayt is found guilty of improper conduct before he was made Commissioner, or whether during his control of the Bureau he has been neglectful of public affairs and careful of his own, arbitrary and unjust towards the employees of the Bureau, oppressive towards its creditors and responsible for starving certain tribes; or, finally, whether he has shielded from prosecution a corrupt Indian agent named Hart, who obtained a silver-mine on the border of the San Carlos (Arizona) reservation, induced an Indian inspector named Hammond (who had been sent to investigate him) to survey the mine out of the reservation, and gave him authority to sell it at the East, namely, to a son of the Commissioner, under an assumed name. What the affair shows is the tendency of the Indian management, in spite of every precaution and the vigilance of a humane and rigidly upright Secretary of the Interior, to become rotten at the crown as well as in the extremities; and what it enforces is the urgent necessity of beginning and pursuing a policy which shall take from the Indians the last vestige of their dependence on the national Government.

The present condition of the Navy is in a general way appreciated by probably every newspaper reader, but few persons, perhaps, will be prepared for the particularly unpleasant exposure of it made by Mr. Harris to the House last Friday, in presenting a bill to provide for a permanent construction fund. The report sets forth that small as the number of our naval vessels is, compared with the force of European powers, it is "infinitely smaller" in real fighting power; that the five "first-rate" vessels we have are now to be classed as obsolete and as "non-combatants"; that of the twenty-seven "second-rates" three are "unfinished on the stocks, rotten, and worthless," seven are probably not worth repairing, and only nine are in condition for service; that of twenty-nine third-rate steamers six should be broken up, and only fifteen are now fit for service; that the six fourth-rate steamers are "of really no account as vessels of war"; that of the twenty-four iron-clads four are "rotten and worthless," a number of them unfinished, and the fourteen that are serviceable are all "fourth-rates," and carry only two guns each—smooth-bores of five-inch calibre. "There is not," says the report, "a single rifled gun on our iron-clad fleet afloat." This state of affairs is only less ridiculous than it is melancholy, of course, and can be defended only by those who see no necessity for even the satirical semblance of a navy that we possess. Accordingly, the bill looking to a moderate and gradual reform which has been introduced by Mr. Harris ought to receive considerable attention.

Congressional proceedings during the week have been very dull. In both branches a day was given up to speeches on the late Senator Chandler, Mr. Blaine being prominent with a "cordial eulogy." The Senate has appointed a special committee of nine to take charge of the subject of an Atlantic-Pacific canal, and receive all documents relating thereto; and Mr. Thurman has introduced, with the approval of a majority of the Judiciary Committee, a bill reviving the Court of Commissioners of the *Alabama* Claims, in the terms of the act of June 23, 1874, but repealing so much of section 12 as excludes the claims of insurance companies and insurers. The House has passed a bill declaring all public roads and highways to be post-routes; a measure which Mr. Conger defended as being in the interest of economy, but which is supposed to have originated in a desire to shield Assistant-Postmaster Grady from the consequences of his practice of establishing service on post-routes as soon as established by law, without reference to appropriations for the support of it.

Several wild bills for the protection against suit for infringement of parties who buy patented inventions for their own use have been introduced in both Houses of Congress, and the New York *Times* has commended them on the ground that such parties, having paid the "market value" of the patented article, have not intended to defraud the patentee and are innocent purchasers. But infringing manufacturers pay nothing to the patentee, and hence can and generally do undersell the honest manufacturer who pays for the use of the invention. Patents are property, and the "market value" of stolen property is always less than that of property honestly acquired. The better remedy for what is called the "oppression of patents" would be an improvement in the method of granting patents. If Congress would appropriate for the use of the Patent Office a portion of the quarter of a million surplus income of the office last year, and provide for a larger examining corps and higher salaries, so that a larger number of able men could be permanently retained in the office, there would be a more thorough scrutiny and greater strictness in the allowance of applications for patents than is now physically possible. Congress ought at the same time to provide for more judges in our United States courts. The holding of patent cases in some instances two or three years without decision has been a substantial denial of justice both to the patentee and to the public, which apparently has been unavoidable because the judges were overworked.

The increasing resort to arbitration on the part of the railroads in settling their private contentions is furnishing a wholesome example to the community at large. Especially might certain States, whose character has been sadly damaged by a wanton repudiation of their obligations, profit by the recent submission to arbitration of the difference between the Cincinnati, Hamilton & Dayton Railroad Company and the holders (in part or wholly English) of bonds of the Cincinnati, Hamilton & Indianapolis Railroad, on which the interest was guaranteed by the former. This interest was actually paid till within two years, when the Company pleaded poverty, ceased its payments, and called upon the bondholders to scale down the bonds one-half and take stock in their place, or consent to a reduction of the interest. No agreement was reached, although the English holders offered to compromise on five per cent. instead of seven hereafter, and to remit the interest on coupons past due. Finally, the two parties chose as their arbitrators Messrs. M. E. Ingalls and J. D. Cox, of Cincinnati, who united in adding Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., to their number, and the board thus formed, after a careful examination and consideration of all the circumstances, decided that the condition and prospects of the road were excellent and did not justify its continuing to break its faith with the bondholders, and adjudged the full payment of all coupons hereafter maturing, and the conversion of those past-due and unpaid into preferred stock of the Cincinnati, Hamilton & Indianapolis Railroad Company, with interest at seven per cent., and with a title to dividends under certain contingencies. This award affects bonds to the amount of $1,800,000.

The State of New Hampshire has brought a suit in the United States Supreme Court against the State of Louisiana to compel the payment of interest on certain consolidated bonds of the latter State, which it has virtually repudiated by a recent popular vote directing that the taxes heretofore levied to pay the interest should be applied to other purposes. The bonds were held originally by citizens of New Hampshire, but have been transferred to the State under a late act of the Legislature intended to provide persons cheated by State governments with a legal remedy through the intervention of their own State government, which can sue a State, as individuals cannot. We have discussed this question a good deal

in our columns of late, and trust the New Hampshire experiment may be successful and put a check on swindling by plébiscite, such as Louisiana has perpetrated. That we are to have a good deal of this sort of thing at the South, especially when the negro has made his peace with the rascally white element in the population, there is much reason to fear.

The imports of foreign goods at this port are becoming very large, the total value of those received last week having been $11,753,252, against $6,264,720 during the corresponding week in 1879 and $4,298,575 in 1878. This increase, of course, correspondingly swells the revenues of the Treasury, which for the month of January ran up to $12,307,104. The withdrawal of so much money from the loan market into the Treasury has fully sufficed to offset the return flow of currency from the South and West, and the result is that for two weeks the surplus reserve of the New York banks has been reduced. The value of exports is larger than a year ago, the respective amounts having been $23,337,520 for January, 1880, against $19,056,779 for January, 1879—an increase which hardly more than represents the present higher prices of exportable commodities. Except for the grain blockade, which is the result of speculation, the exports would undoubtedly have been very large, and it is not at all unlikely that the importations of gold would have been continued up to the present time. Without doubt, however, the country is on the road to a change in the foreign-trade balance, although this change may not be reached for several months, for the reason that Europe is again freely taking American securities of approved value. It is well to keep in mind the fact that when the foreign exchanges finally turn against us, and specie exports become necessary, gold will disappear, and all the beauties of the "dollar of the fathers" will be made apparent even to the dullest. At the Stock Exchange the main event was the sale of 50,000 shares of Central Pacific stock, amid great excitement, within fifteen minutes, the stock having been offered by a syndicate which bought it from C. P. Huntington, representing himself and the Central Pacific Co. Prices of stocks were influenced to a large extent by negotiations for a traffic arrangement between the Erie and the Lake Shore and Michigan Southern companies. The price of silver bullion declined in London to 52½*d.* to 52$\frac{9}{16}$*d.* per oz. At the close the bullion value of the "buzzard" dollar here was $0.8817.

General Boynton, who served with distinction during the war, and has since the war been a very able and useful Washington correspondent of the Cincinnati *Gazette*, has got into a somewhat ludicrous controversy with General Sherman. Boynton had written a book of severe criticism on Sherman's Memoirs, in which he accused him of much inaccuracy and injustice, and the General has never since entertained very kindly feelings towards him, either as a critic or a man, and on a recent occasion embodied his dissatisfaction with him in four propositions communicated to a reporter: (1) That everybody knew him to be a notorious slanderer; (2) that you could hire him to do anything for money; (3) that he was entirely without character, and (4) that for one thousand dollars ($1,000) he would slander his own mother. At the request of General Boynton, General Sherman transmitted to him also these propositions in writing. That they contain libellous matter there can, of course, be no doubt, and they constitute, it appears, an indictable offence under the laws of the District of Columbia. But General Boynton has too much respect for the office of General of the Army to drag its incumbent before the criminal court, so he has asked the Secretary of War to have him tried by court-martial for violation of the Eighty-third Article of War. We doubt much if the propositions will damage anybody but General Sherman himself, but if they damage General Boynton, the remedy is to be sought in the place appointed by law, the courts of the District. The notion that General Sherman, or any man who misconducts himself, is too good to appear there, is a strange one for a newspaper correspondent to produce, and it falls in a little too strongly with the late and growing tendency to create "exalted personages" in the shape of military men, who must not be judged by the ordinary rules either of law or morals.

The Railway Commission in England, which has now been in existence for ten years, and whose working furnishes a good deal of useful suggestion for legislation here, has just met with a check in the courts. The chief duty of the Commission is to see that the railroads furnish "reasonable facilities" for receiving, forwarding, and delivering freight, and that they make or give no undue or unreasonable preference or advantage in favor of any particular person, or place, or description of traffic, and receive and forward freight freely from other railroads, and make no difficulty about connecting with other lines. Under this power the Commissioners have recently ordered the Southeastern Railroad Company to enlarge and improve to a considerable extent their station at Hastings for the accommodation of passengers, and the Company took an appeal to the Queen's Bench, which has decided in their favor, two judges against one. The majority of the court held that if the Commissioners could order a railroad to erect "structural works," such as large, expensive stations, they might order it to lay a new track and do various other things which might need fresh capital for which the traffic would not pay, and which would thus cut off dividends completely. In other words, the Commissioners could only order companies to do what was within their "power and means" as measured by their capital earnings.

The British troubles in South Africa have taken a new form. The Transvaal Republic, inhabited by the Dutch Boers, has been formally annexed as a consequence of the war with Cetewayo and Sukukuni, neither of whom the Boers were able to hold in check. Now, they hate English rule and have twice fled from it into the wilderness, and they refuse to be annexed, though they are willing to join the South African Confederacy as an autonomous state under British supremacy. Sir Garnet Wolseley, however, whether under instructions from home or out of his own head does not appear, has declared the Transvaal a crown colony—or, in other words, a colony like Jamaica, governed directly by officials appointed in England, and without a legislature, or, in fact, any "home rule." To this the Boers declare they will not submit, and have held a convention lasting five days, at which stirring speeches were delivered and very strong resolutions passed. There was more or less talk of shedding the last drop of their blood in resistance, but it appears to be recognized by the Boers themselves that they are no longer very formidable as fighting men, whatever they may have been in their earlier days.

The resolutions declare that they do not wish to be and will not become the subjects of the Queen; call for the prompt meeting of the Volksraad, or Legislature; announce that they are willing to enter into the South African Confederation; that if their independent existence is not recognized before the 6th of April, they will in every way oppose a passive resistance to English rule; that they will destroy all writings, books, and documents in the English language they can lay hands on; withdraw their children from English schools; prohibit English speech in their homes; and refuse hospitality, assistance, and protection to Englishmen in their houses and on the road. Of course they will not pay taxes either. It is reported, too, that the hostility to annexation is growing stronger instead of weaker, and that it has made a certain impression on opinion in England. The only good reason for the annexation is that the Boers ill-treat the natives and make quarrels with them, and then are unable to protect themselves against them, and the only excuse for treating them as a crown colony is that they are disaffected to British rule. It is, however, against all the recent usages and principles of English colonial policy to seize and hold settlements of white men by mere right of conquest, and there can be little doubt that if the Boers keep their temper and maintain their passive resistance they will succeed finally in getting back at least their autonomy, if not from the present Tory Ministry, from the Liberal one which will probably succeed it.

THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT AND THE PANAMA CANAL.

THE visit of M. de Lesseps to Panama, and the renewed confidence with which he speaks of pushing his scheme of an interoceanic canal, in spite of his failure last August, have excited considerable feeling in Washington about the danger of permitting so vast an enterprise, in which we are vitally interested both politically and commercially, to be carried out by a company organized under the charter and laws of a European country. The "Monroe doctrine" has been once more brought forward by men of all parties, and even so calm and conservative a statesman as Senator Bayard warns the country that the canal must be "under the control of the Government of the United States. Our power may be questioned, but it will be maintained. Every counsel of wisdom, therefore, exhorts us to 'seize the day,' and in time of peace prepare for war, for it is the surest mode to avert it." These apprehensions derive much support from the history of the repeated attempts of both France and England to gain a firm foothold on the Isthmus. The French envoy at Washington has assured Mr. Evarts that the French Government has no connection whatever with M. de Lesseps's enterprise, nor does it intend to guarantee or protect it in any way. But nobody in this country ever supposed the present Government of France would unnecessarily incur the ill-will of the United States by avowedly espousing the canal scheme. M. Outrey goes too far, however, when he says that his Government will not guarantee or protect the proposed company; for, once organized under its laws, the French Government will owe it protection, and while we might trust that under the present régime the proposed company would not be permitted to abuse its position on the Isthmus, we cannot expect such a state of things to be permanent. A great power like ours, with two long coasts and with complex commercial interests on both oceans, is bound to see that these advantages are not put in peril of any kind. Moreover, the Government is now bound by treaties, as we shall presently show, to guarantee "efficaciously" the nationality and neutrality of the Isthmus to both Colombia and Nicaragua, and it is therefore incumbent on us to take in advance the steps proper to prevent that responsibility from becoming too costly and burdensome.

Once established on the Isthmus, the French company would practically own the weak country crossed by their canal. Colombia is rent by continual civil wars; her customs revenues are pledged to England for debt; and although she receives from the Panama Railroad a very heavy annual tax, she is invariably a debtor to the company. It would, therefore, be easy for the French at an opportune moment to make an issue with the local authorities; the home Government would be called upon to protect its subjects, and in such a case there is no reason to believe that it would not try to realize, if it could, the dream of French statesmen as to the rôle of France in countries of Latin origin. The intervention of Napoleon in Mexico in 1861 was based on the supposed necessity of protecting French subjects. In 1838 France, in order to obtain satisfaction for the reclamations of some of her subjects, made a blockade (and an unlawful blockade in international law) of Vera Cruz, and seized San Juan de Ulloa. In the same year she blockaded Buenos Ayres in order to obtain reparation for some complaints of Frenchmen against Rosas. In 1819 France tried to establish an empire in the La Plata provinces, at the head of which it was contemplated putting the Duc de Lucques, who was expected to marry a Portuguese-Brazilian princess. In 1858 Spain would have invaded Mexico, also on account of private claims, but for the firm attitude of Secretary Cass, who, on October 2, wrote to Mr. Dodge, in Madrid, that this Government would not suffer any protectorate or political influence of any European country in states of the American continent. Twenty years have not elapsed since so enlightened a statesman as the recently deceased Michel Chevalier wrote, referring to Mexico, that "the European interest is to oppose a barrier to the extension of the United States throughout the whole continent of North America." Louis Napoleon, while a prisoner at Ham, wrote in favor of an empire in Nicaragua for the same purpose for which he afterwards, as Emperor of the French, established Maximilian in Mexico. In all these cases the pretext of the proposed intervention was some kind of private reclamation.

The present *concessionnaire* of the Panama canal has made no attempt to disguise how little he is concerned with the vital interests of the people of this country in the canal. This is the way in which, according to his own *Bulletin du Canal Interocéanique*, he disposes of the opposition manifested here to his scheme:

"The opposition of the United States—if there is any opposition at all—is not serious. Its representatives came to the Paris Congress to submit themselves to the verdict of science and public opinion. And that verdict has been pronounced."

What that "congress" amounted to, and how it was packed with M. de Lesseps's friends, we have already shown in the *Nation* (No. 375, July 31, 1879). Since then it has been ascertained that Lieutenant Bonaparte-Wyse had actually in his pocket, for a month before the Congress was summoned, a concession for a canal in Panama, and that M. de Lesseps bought that concession of M. Wyse about two months later. It has also been ascertained that the much-talked-of exploration by MM. Wyse and Réclus of the proposed Panama route was carried on by Lieutenant Réclus and three engineers in precisely forty-five days, from March 5 to April 20, 1878. And now M. de Lesseps has come to Panama to decide most intricate points of engineering in less than a month, and in a few days will be, here and in Paris, assuring the world that everything in his scheme is feasible, and he cannot see why we are opposed to it.

However, this is a matter that rather concerns those who may be induced to lend him their money. Whether this canal be built or not, it is important for us to consider in time our position on the Isthmus in relation to the whole question of an interoceanic highway, with reference to which the Government of the United States has concluded treaties with Nicaragua, Colombia, and Great Britain. The treaty with the latter country, dated April 19, 1850, and commonly known as the Clayton-Bulwer convention, was signed, after much diplomatic discussion, two years after the seizure by England of the port of San Juan del Norte, the Atlantic terminus of the proposed Nicaragua canal. The convention declares that neither of the two governments will ever obtain or maintain for itself any exclusive control over any ship-canal by way of the river San Juan; that neither will erect fortifications or assume or exercise any control or dominion over Nicaragua, Costa Rica, the Mosquito Coast, or any part of Central America; that any privilege conceded by any of these states to either of the contracting parties cannot be accepted by it unless offered also to the other. The convention then goes on to provide for the neutrality of the canal, etc. There is hardly any question that England cannot bind us to this convention, which she has so often broken. Indeed, by the Treaty of Managua, of January 28, 1860, with Nicaragua, England actually agrees to terminate the protectorate of the Mosquito Coast within three months.* But even this treaty, in which England admits that since 1850 she has exercised dominion over a certain part of Central America, was subsequently infringed by her when, in 1864, she virtually seized the Mosquito Coast and constituted herself the legal guardian of the Mosco king, a twelve-year-old boy, elected at that time in a novel manner.

The United States treaty with New Granada, now the United States of Colombia, dated December 12, 1846, is a general treaty of peace, amity, and commerce, but it contains special provisions for the guarantee of the right of way through the Isthmus by any mode of communication. American citizens are given the same privileges extended to Granadian citizens. Art. xxxv. says:

"In order to secure to themselves the tranquil and constant enjoyment of the said advantages . . . the United States guarantee, positively and efficaciously, to New Granada by the present stipulation the perfect neutrality of the before-mentioned Isthmus, with the view that the free transit from the one to the other sea

* See Martens, 'Nouvel Recueil général,' tom. xvi. p. 375.

may not be interrupted or embarrassed in any future time while this treaty exists; and in consequence the United States also guarantee in the same manner the rights of sovereignty and property which New Granada has and possesses over the said territory."

The treaty of June 21, 1867, with Nicaragua is identical in terms. After granting to our citizens the right of transit, on the same terms as those enjoyed by her citizens, it empowers the United States, on giving notice to the local authorities, to carry troops and munitions of war in their own vessels on any canal that may be built, without hindrance, provided the said troops or munitions are not intended to be employed against Central American States friendly to Nicaragua. It also provides that the United States shall protect any such routes of communication between the two oceans, and guarantee their free use and neutrality. Then follows this provision (Art. xvi.):

"The Republic of Nicaragua agrees that, should it become necessary at any time to employ military forces for the security and protection of persons and property passing over any of the routes aforesaid, it will employ the requisite force for that purpose; but upon failure to do this from any cause whatever, the Government of the United States may, with the consent or at the request of the Government of Nicaragua, or of the minister thereof at Washington, or of the competent legally-appointed local authorities, civil or military, employ such force for this and for no other purpose; and when in the opinion of the Government of Nicaragua the necessity ceases, such force shall be immediately withdrawn. In the exceptional case, however, of unforeseen or imminent danger to the lives or property of citizens of the United States, the forces of said Republic are authorized to act for their protection without such consent having been previously obtained."

Thus the United States is in both cases the most favored nation, and has engaged to guarantee the neutrality of the Isthmus. In the case of Colombia our Government is expected to protect it as a compensation for certain advantages conceded by the local Government; it has been given the right to secure for itself the constant and tranquil enjoyment of any highway between the two oceans. And how? By guaranteeing "positively and efficaciously" to Colombia the "perfect" neutrality of the Isthmus. In the case of Nicaragua our Government may employ actual force even without the instigation of any local authority, in certain emergencies of which, of course, we are the only judges.

Since the promulgation of these treaties, which gave us so strong a position on the Isthmus, both Colombia and Nicaragua have concluded identical arrangements with France and Great Britain; and now M. de Lesseps steps in and, on the strength of existing conventions, does not ask for himself any protection from the United States, nor, it is said, from France or England, but leaves this matter entirely to international law. Colombia thinks her position secure; in case of trouble she is left free to call on the United States. France considers her interests well protected by her treaty, which places her on the same footing as the most favored nation. As to our own position, it is, under the treaties, similar to that of France and Great Britain; it is with them we are expected to guarantee to Colombia the perfect neutrality of the Isthmus.

Such a condition of affairs must be, to say the least, uncomfortable to us. It is true that the trade of both England and France with Central and South America, and with Australia and China, is much larger than ours. But the canal is of vital importance to us as a commercial link between the two coasts of our continent. M. de Lesseps insists, and in that he is right, that we are of all nations the one most interested in the canal. In the meantime the existing treaties give us no greater voice in the matter than France or England has; both of these nations are granted powers on the Isthmus the exercise of which may prove some day dangerous to this country. We must, therefore, seek in time the proper means of exerting that preponderating influence to which nationally, geographically, and commercially we are entitled.

Whatever Colombia may have agreed with France and Great Britain, nothing prevents our Government from acting directly with her and taking such security as may be necessary in order to ensure for American citizens the uninterrupted and safe enjoyment of the canal. It is now time to "seize the day," as Senator Bayard said, and act "positively and efficaciously," to the end that neither France nor any other power shall acquire a dangerous foothold at our doors. We cannot and ought not to stop the building of a canal, but we must protect ourselves against some of the possible results of the control of the canal by a French company in Colombia. To rest on existing treaties alone seems to us to be very hazardous. We see no reason to modify what we said on this subject in July last in the article already referred to:

"Wherever and whenever it [the canal] is constructed it will become the most sensitive and vital part of our interstate and international commercial system, and we must be prepared to protect it from the evil of local revolutions and foreign aggression, to seize it when necessary, and successfully defend it against the two greatest naval powers in the world. The completion of such a canal involves, therefore, the creation and maintenance of a naval force in the Atlantic and Pacific capable of contending with that of any possible European combination."

THE INVIOLABILITY OF TELEGRAMS.

THE bill to provide for the inviolability of telegraphic despatches now pending in the Senate is extremely simple in its provisions. It declares all despatches and copies made at the place of destination, or at any intermediate point, "the private papers of the senders and receivers," provides that they shall be "protected from unreasonable search and seizure, and from production as evidence in judicial and legislative proceedings, to the same extent as communications sent by United States mail." Of these the last is, of course, the novel and important one. Telegrams are probably now, from a legal point of view, the "private papers" of the sender and the receiver, and the protection against unreasonable search and seizure extended by this bill is already guaranteed by the Constitution of the United States and the various State constitutions and statutes. The protection from production as evidence to the same extent as letters is new, and may be expected to arouse formidable opposition in Congress. In what we are about to say with regard to it we do not propose to criticise the bill in detail. Some excellent suggestions as to legislation for the protection of telegrams will be found in a letter from a well-known Western lawyer, who has given the subject much attention, published in the *Tribune* of the 2d inst. We merely wish now to call attention to the general nature of the *abuse* against which any legislation must be directed.

The present state of the law with regard to telegrams is not thoroughly settled, but, so far as the courts in this country have declared it, it may be stated as follows: Telegrams are not what are technically known as privileged communications—that is, communications which the courts protect from disclosure from motives of public policy. The range of this privilege is and always has been very limited. The privilege of communications between husband and wife, and between attorney and client, has always been regarded as so sacred in Anglo-Saxon countries that even the interests of criminal justice must yield to it. Consequently they are exempted from the operation of the ordinary rules compelling the production of evidence. But, except within these narrow limits, if in any civil or criminal case it appears that a telegram has been sent which contains evidence that is relevant to the issue and competent, the original telegram may be produced; or, if that cannot be produced, a copy of it taken in the telegraph office may be used; or even if all written record of the message is lost, its contents may be testified to by the telegraph operator through whom it was sent. Further than this, when it appears that telegraphic despatches in the hands of a telegraph company *probably* contain evidence which is needed for the furtherance of justice between litigants, the production and inspection of such telegrams, where identified and described with certainty, will be compelled; in other words, there is no difference in these respects between telegrams and any other written evidence contained in books and papers. In England, it is true, since the purchase of the telegraphs by the Government, the courts have laid

down different rules, and decided private telegrams to be absolutely protected from disclosure by Government officials, on the ground that in assuming control of the service the Government had invited a confidence which it was against public policy, or a breach of trust, to violate. How far this will be carried in England remains to be seen, but the cases are obviously not entirely alike. There are many objections against allowing Government officials to testify to the contents of despatches, which do not apply to private corporations. A private corporation has no motive to disclose its secrets; on the contrary, experience has shown in this country that it has always resisted every effort to make it do so. But the officials of a government and the bureau which has such matters in charge will always be more or less swayed by political passion and a desire to do some political party a service. And it may be that on this account it is essential to have a government service absolutely secret. On such points as these there have been as yet too few decisions of the courts and too little discussion to enable us to speak with confidence; but before the English telegraph service became a branch of the postal service, the principles of law applied to the production of despatches in evidence appear to have been the same in both countries.

In any discussion of the telegraph question in this country it must be admitted at the outset that the abuses of the recognized power to compel the production of despatches have been glaring. But the important point to bear in mind is that these abuses have been legislative rather than judicial. In 1877, for instance, the Western Union Telegraph Company's manager at New Orleans was brought before the bar of the House for refusing to produce "all telegrams sent or received" by William Pitt Kellogg, S. B. Packard, and six other persons, at the office of the company in New Orleans "from and after the 15th day of August, 1876," and he was compelled by the House to obey. No court in Christendom could have issued such a subpœna as this, and the vote of the House established a precedent which practically throws open every telegraph office in the country to be ransacked by any enterprising politician who can persuade his fellow-representatives to put him on a committee for the purpose. His real object may be anything, from a desire to make political capital for himself to a determination to blacken the character of a political rival. As an engine of private malice and oppression it is difficult to imagine anything more odious than this, and it is an engine which at least one notorious politician is believed to have put to active use. The most startling thing about the telegraph controversy thus far has been the supineness with which the public at large have submitted to these wholesale legislative descents upon the telegraph offices, and have left the companies to fight their own battles with the committees and with Congress, as if the matter were one of little or no public concern. A century ago, had the telegraph existed then, the assumption of any such right would have been met with the same stern, popular resistance that was aroused by the writs of assistance and general warrants. The differences between the two cases are merely superficial. The oppression a century ago was directed by the agents of the executive, because the executive was then the usurping and tyrannical branch of the government. Now it is done by the legislature, which is the only body that has any old-fashioned absolute prerogative and irresponsibility. The pretext then was generally the furtherance of criminal justice; now it is usually the investigation of facts with a view to some contemplated or pretended legislative action; but in both cases the immediate object is the discovery of evidence, and the immediate means is an indiscriminate search, not to find evidence known or believed to exist, but to see whether somewhere or other there is not some evidence.

It is more terrifying and cruel perhaps to make unnecessary arrests than to make unnecessary seizures of papers, but except for this, what is the difference between an English king arresting several dozens of persons to find out who published a libel and an American legislative committee violating private correspondence in order to find out how an election went? The language used several years ago by Judge Cooley, of Michigan, with regard to the outrageous revenue seizures of that period, committed by ministerial officers, is by no means inappropriate to the dealings of legislative committees with telegraph companies: "Perhaps under no other laws are such liberties taken by ministerial officers, and it would be surprising to find oppressive action on their part so often submitted to without legal contest, if the facilities they possess to embarrass, annoy, and obstruct the merchant in his business were not borne in mind." This dread of the hostility of the Government on the part of those directly interested no doubt in part explains the lack of public interest displayed in legislative interference with the telegraphs. It is also probably due in a measure to the general sense of security and prosperity in the United States, and the ease with which, be the Government bad or good, oppressive or just, the comforts and conveniences of life are secured. An atmosphere of prosperity relaxes that watchfulness of the Government which is, after all, the price in the long run of free institutions, and the tendency of a particular branch of it to absorb irresponsible power and oppress the citizen attracts little or no attention until the mischief is done.

It is on this very account that the public ought to be grateful to the managers of the Western Union Telegraph Company for the effort they are now making to force Congress to take some action on the subject. As we said before, the details of the bill we do not intend to criticise here. In any case it will probably undergo many changes before its final passage. The clause assimilating telegrams to letters in the mail is in its present shape rather indefinite. If it is to be taken literally, it would seem to mean that despatches are to be, *while in process of transmission*, protected. This is the only protection extended to letters. After they have been received, the receiver, or any one who has them, or copies of them, may be called upon to produce them. But protection of despatches while in process of transmission would be nugatory, for the process protects itself. But if it means that the copies of messages, after they have been sent, are to be protected, this would seem to be in conflict with the well-settled rules of the courts. In that case the law ought to be of the most explicit character, and should not be passed without full discussion. A great deal is to be said on both sides of the question. On the one side, cases may be easily suggested in which there would be a great failure of justice if telegrams were not producible in court. The innocence or guilt of prisoners accused of capital offences may turn upon a despatch of six words, and the administration of justice would hardly stand the strain of verdicts based on the exclusion of such evidence once known to exist. So, too, in ordinary cases of contract it is difficult to see why an agreement which consists, as so large a number do nowadays, of despatches, should not be proved by the compulsory production of telegrams; on the other side, the abuses to which the production of telegrams gives rise may be sufficient ground for making them altogether privileged. But as to the outrage of the present system of legislative searches through telegraph offices there can be but one opinion. It violates every principle of justice and good government. It is somewhat startling to find in the Congressional discussions on the subject an almost total avoidance of any consideration of this side of the question. When a committee wishes to "go through" a telegraph office, it does not enquire first whether it will be wise or fair to do so, but solely whether it has the power to do so. As to this, only one conclusion can be reached, for a Congressional committee is, in its power to compel the production of books and papers, irresponsible. It can do as it pleases, and it invariably pleases to exercise its power. There is really no reason why it should stop at telegraph offices. It may, if it pleases, ransack houses, unlock drawers, pillage secretaries, and compel the disclosure of family and business secrets—and, in fact, searching through telegrams is in many cases equivalent to doing this; and no worse precedents for a future exercise of absolute prerogative in these respects could be wished than have been furnished by committees of Congress since the war. It must be remembered that Congress is not, like a State legislature, hemmed in by constitutional restrictions and the inter-

pretation of these by the courts at every turn. It has, within its sphere, an enormous amount of absolute power which it wields despotically. To paraphrase slightly the language of Chatham, it may still be true that the poorest man in his cottage may bid defiance to all the forces of the executive, and that all the land and naval forces of the President may not dare to cross the threshold of his tenement, however frail the walls or shaky the roof; but an investigating committee with a *subpœna duces tecum* will "go through" the premises in fifteen minutes without leaving him the faintest hope of redress. It is against this legislative abuse of the right to search for evidence that we think public opposition should be mainly directed.

LORD BEACONSFIELD AND THE COMING SESSION.

London, Jan. 20, 1880.

SHORTLY after this letter is in your hands—on the day possibly on which it may be published (Thursday, the 5th of February)—the present Parliament will come together for its seventh and last session. It has been rumored for some time that the Queen will open it in person, and the rumor gathers strength. If this be so, the sacrifice will be considerable and the motive will be obvious. The pageantry of the monarchy has always been distasteful to the Queen; and of late years protracted appearances in public have brought on a temporary but distressing malady, which forms a sufficient excuse for Her Majesty's withdrawals from the ceremonial of an office which is very erroneously conceived to be all ceremony. The late Lord Russell, in one of those happy sentences which light up, with something like a flash of genius, long passages of the commonplaces inseparable from Parliamentary oratory, likened our Parliamentary system to a glass hive in which the bees are seen at work. Observers do not wait for the result, but criticise the process at every step. But there was a reservation. The operations of the Queen-bee, if we may continue the metaphor, were conducted in secret. There was a veil spread before the throne. In the case of former reigns it was only withdrawn when the sovereign and his doings had become matter of history. The devotion of the Queen to the memory of her husband, and her desire to explain and vindicate the part which he took in public affairs, have led to disclosures which the etiquette of a previous age would have considered premature and undignified. Mr. Theodore Martin's authorized and inspired biography of the Prince Consort, in which the Queen's hand has directed the fingers that held the pen, and Her Majesty's own published diaries, have thrown much light on the part played by the Crown and the Court in public affairs. The memoirs of Baron Stockmar, who was the respectable German Bute of the present reign, have completed this information. The personal preferences and the political views of the Sovereign have been disclosed without reserve. The past interprets the present. If the Queen, for the first time after many years' retirement, opens Parliament in person, the reason will be transparent. Her appearance in public will be an artifice of royal electioneering. It will be an appeal from the throne to the constituencies on behalf of Lord Beaconsfield. The visit of the Prince of Wales to Hughenden Manor was a manifesto of similar purport. History repeats itself, though with a difference. Queen Victoria is in many respects the superior, both in intelligence and character, of Queen Anne. Lord Beaconsfield will scarcely be placed, even by his greatest admirers, on the same intellectual level as Lord Bolingbroke, on whose theories and political conduct he has modelled his career. Yet, with some allowances and qualifications, Lord Beaconsfield has been to Queen Victoria what Lord Bolingbroke was to Queen Anne. Both sovereigns have been alienated from the Whig principles which are the basis of the throne, and from the Whig statesmen who surrounded them during the greater portions of their reigns, by the dexterous arts of brilliant political adventurers, whose great power of managing men was yet inferior to their skill in flattering and humoring women. The appearance once more in the streets of the state-carriages, the cream-colored steeds, the outriders, and the scarlet liveries will be something more than a pageant. It will be an intimation of the Queen's preference for Lord Beaconsfield and his methods of government over the principles and statesmen of the Opposition. There is no reason to complain of veiled, or scarcely veiled, intimations of this kind. Though each party protests against the improper use of the Queen's name in political controversies, each party employs it whenever it can conveniently do so. The Whigs did in the beginning of the present reign, amid Tory denunciations, what the Tories are doing now amid the mutterings of Liberal discontent. The last Prince of Wales was more demonstrative of his friendship for the Whig Opposition than the present Prince of Wales is of his leaning to a Conservative Ministry.

It is quite possible, altogether independent of the results of the coming general election, that this is the last session in which Lord Beaconsfield will meet Parliament as Prime Minister. His elevation to the peerage was certainly not solicited, and was probably not very keenly desired by him. When he began to feel the labors of the House of Commons too much for his strength, he intimated to the Queen that at the close of the then current session of 1876 he should ask her leave to retire from official life. A seat in the House of Lords, where the labors of business and debate are very light, was urged upon him as a condition under which he could retain the Premiership. Lord Beaconsfield has always been fond of titles and splendor, and when he took his seat for a moment in robes and coronet among the English earls before proceeding to the Prime Minister's place in the House of Lords, no doubt there was a thrill of exultation in the consummated victory of the political and literary soldier of fortune over the prejudices of the plutocratic oligarchy which, descended largely from successful lawyers and enriched lord-mayors, fancies itself an ancient nobility. It is probably a mistake to suppose that Lord Beaconsfield is exultant, and eager to prolong his triumphs. He has never been buoyant, and he is now tired. Though, when he chooses, witty and entertaining, he is not by temperament very gay or cheerful. The epigrams which are supposed to drop every minute from his lips, usually in mixed society, interrupt long periods of self-possessed and deliberately maintained silence. They are the darts with which he will transfix a blunderer. *Solus cum solo*, or even more *cum solâ*, Lord Beaconsfield is said to be the best of companions, but he does not expend himself in promiscuous loquacity. He has mocked his successes, as well as those over whom they were gained, even when winning them. His summary of human life—"Youth is a blunder, manhood a struggle, and old age a regret"—was uttered when he was in the very crisis of his struggling manhood, and before youth had altogether departed. Congratulated by a friend on his combining the peerage, the garter, and the Premiership, he is said to have replied: "Twenty years ago it would have been something, but now what does it matter?" There is reason to believe that there is some truth in the stories which are floating about that, during the past year, he has more than once expressed his desire to withdraw from public life, and that he remains where he is at the urgent solicitation of the Queen and of his colleagues. In the speech in which he replied to Lord Derby's announcement of his resignation of the Foreign Office, he intimated that he had looked forward to a not distant moment when their parts would have been reversed, and his retirement would have opened the way for his friend's succession to the post he then occupied. There is little more for Lord Beaconsfield to gain. Starting in life a solitary adventurer, he has been leader of the Conservative party for a longer period than any of his predecessors; he has become absolute master of both Houses of Parliament; he has maintained an unbroken majority years after other ministers have seen the elements of dissension breaking up their ranks; he has figured at diplomatic congresses which have altered the map of Europe; he has been the hero of the populace, and he has been the most trusted adviser of the Queen, who at one time would scarcely receive him at court. His personal triumph has been complete. Lord Beaconsfield has a sense of dramatic completeness. He knows when to bring down the curtain, and he may not desire by a weak afterpiece to mar the theatrical effect of a well-contrived conclusion. Of course, all speculations based on personal character and motive have an unknown element in them which may vitiate them. But the most probable view of Lord Beaconsfield's intentions is that which has just been foreshadowed. It may be necessary that the coming elections should be conducted under the influence of his name. But it is not likely that in a new Parliament he would undertake either the toils of office or the more thankless labors of Opposition. A sated ambition and an exacting love of ease support retirement. Moreover, Lord Salisbury is ready and waiting.

The duration of the next session is matter of great uncertainty. The Irish Obstructionists may spin it out. The rival parties, stimulated by the recess speeches, will meet in an excited condition, which is likely to demand for its relief long debates on great questions of policy. The Government are pledged to several measures which would themselves easily occupy Parliament till August. They are not in the habit of redeeming their pledges; but they may naturally desire to make an electioneering flourish with domestic legislation before going to the country. An election postponed till the beginning of next year would mean

six months of political turmoil, and of election expenses from which politicians on both sides, in these times of depressed trade and backward rents, would naturally shrink. On the one side we are told that the Government will dissolve this spring in order to avoid bringing forward a budget which must open the eyes of the country to the burdens it will have to bear; on the other side confident assurances are made that they will dissolve after a budget which, by postponement and evasion, shall relieve the taxpayer now at the expense of the taxpayer of the future. The fact is that nobody knows anything of the times and the seasons, not even Lord Beaconsfield himself. The Government will wait for and seize their opportunity, whether it comes soon or late. The issue no one, of course, can foresee. In 1868, when they were decisively beaten, the Conservatives expected a considerable majority. In 1874, when they were signally victorious, they looked to be in a small minority. †††

THE VIVISECTION QUESTION IN GERMANY.

LEIPZIG, Dec. 15, 1879.

SINCE my letter to the *Nation* upon this subject last summer the agitation has steadily increased, until just here and now it is the absorbing topic in student clubs, newspapers, private parlors, etc. I have taken pains to look through a dozen of the latest brochures and articles upon the subject, the most conspicuous and perhaps absurd of which is by Richard Wagner.* The scientific spirit, he premises, is the *daimon* of our mechanical age, which is devoted to the culture of utility. Its true nature is best revealed in *vivisectoria* and artillery factories. We are slaves of our iron, materialistic civilization, and it is speculative physiologists, climbing about like apes on the tree of knowledge, who tell us that the soul is at bottom a chemical process. It is sympathy, on the other hand, which is the prime condition of the development of all organized society. It is this sentiment, above all, which we have a right to expect from practical physicians. Pity, in fact, is a religion. Our Saviour came and bore our sins out of pity for our lost estate. It is simply Christian to extend our sympathy to the animal world. A dog which sees a god in the master who tortures him for science, still lacks even the imperfect consolation of knowing that he dies for his master's benefit. Nay, more, the dog may be immortal; at least the vivisector is "infinitely farther from redemption than the animal, which is immaculate as a saint when compared with him." Still stranger, vivisection came into vogue at a time when scientific men were learning to regard animals as their progenitors. Medical students are systematically taught to be unpitying, and the reformers have lacked the courage to say that this of itself, apart from its proved uselessness, is cause sufficient for the abolition of vivisection. Physiologists should be regarded as state criminals, and the police should break into the Institute at Leipzig, free the uninjured, kill the mutilated animals, and lead off the directors to justice.

The Animal Protection Society here is a large and flourishing organization, and with Professor Ludwig, the great physiologist, as one of its officers, has done excellent work in improving the condition of working animals. It distributes prizes to owners who keep them in good condition, devises better stalls or harnesses, lays hard-bottomed roads in sandpits, distributes juvenile tracts to school-children, occasionally fines cruel coachmen, limits by law the number of passengers in street-cars, and has lately printed a remonstrance against the practice of ladies who wear wings, heads, or bodies of birds on their hats. Last week Von Weber, the chief agitator, with friends from æsthetic Dresden, attempted to organize a new protection society here which should recognize vivisection as an unwarrantable cruelty. His opening lecture was crowded by students and citizens in about equal numbers, and although his extreme and bitterly personal utterances were heard to the close, the meeting adjourned in mass to cheer Ludwig at his house, who has lately received many threatening anonymous letters, and been insulted or attacked on the street by ignorant people who believed their dogs were in danger.

When the agitation began it was so active, Von Weber's pamphlet was so zealously circulated in every school, and his pictured placards were so conspicuous on every street-corner, that before scientific men were well aware of the danger the sentiment of cultivated society, backed by English sympathy, was already directed against them. Their defence is now but just begun. Only a few pamphlets and popular articles, and a circular signed by seven thousand Germans, professors of medicine, comprising every eminent authority without exception, declaring that vivisection has regenerated the practice of medicine, and should be limited only by the individual convictions of experimenters, have been published, and already the reaction has not only begun but has extended to nearly all classes of intelligent, reading people. Thus Von Weber and his party now find their constituents, though more numerous, almost without exception among the lower classes. The character of his agitation has also degenerated. His polemics are now against the whole medical profession. He tells poor people that they are experimented on with drugs in the hospitals, and says that students are intentionally hardened. Moreover, it is now becoming known that he has never seen a vivisection, nor the instruments used, and that in some of his statements—as, *e g*, about an apparatus wherein an entire dog could be frozen stiff in an instant—he was the victim of the jocose or ignorant laboratory servant from whom he derived his information. He has also misunderstood his authorities, and in at least five cases quoted men who believe in vivisection as opposing it. It can now be said with confidence that this country is saved from the great misfortune which in England has diverted young men from the study of the science that is the basis of medical education—a science, too, we might add, which now in Germany combines an independent educational value and a direct practical utility perhaps before all others, and which in the United States, save in two or three of the best institutions, where it is now ably represented, we have hardly begun to understand.

The authorities quoted against vivisection, which have lately been pretty thoroughly canvassed, turn out—here it is said without exception, and in England and France with almost no exception—to belong to one of two classes: either they are men who wrote from three to five decades ago, when physiology even in Germany, its home in a peculiar sense, was in its infancy, when the medical sciences had not felt its regenerating influences, when only a few specialists had begun to have suspicions of its scope and object, and the public at large knew nothing of it; or else they are men eminent in other departments, like Wagner, whose sympathies are quick, and who chance to be ignorant of experimental science. These are backed here by an army of men whose wives have tended carts, or perhaps drawn them a-span for years with harnessed dogs (which are made members of the family in nearer relations than perhaps any domestic animal ever stood in before to man), and in England by the affectation and sentimentality which wealth and idleness are apt to produce, more commonly in ladies. Ferguson, it should be remembered, began his career at a time when it was the custom for young doctors to be apprenticed to older men instead of getting their education in lecture-rooms and laboratories; Charles Bell, whose testimony against it, so far as I know, is only constructive, has himself vivisected, and Darwin, who has also been quoted here against it, says: "I am fully convinced that physiology can progress only by the aid of experiments on living animals. I cannot think of one step in physiology which has been made without that aid."*

It is said that before vivisection came into vogue operations were here decided upon in medical consultations, especially in hospitals, sometimes at least as much for the good of science as for that of the patient. However this may be, such a temptation is entirely removed now that animals are found to be quite as good for every scientific purpose. Certain branches of surgery, to be thoroughly learned, many now assert, must be practised beforehand not merely upon dead bodies but upon living animal tissue. However this be, vivisection has become a surgical art, and has certain fundamental practical precepts. Among these are, that the more circumscribed the wound the easier it is to find a deep nerve or vessel; that an animal must always be operated upon as if it were intended to preserve it alive and in as normal condition as possible, and that the more sensitive tissues must be avoided and loss of blood reduced to a minimum; that one such careful experiment is more instructive than a hundred bad ones, and that the operator should be "inspired not by a sad necessity but by a certain joyous excitement," with his mind fixed upon the central object sought and not distracted by cries or blood.

Again, vivisection did not originate in man's laziness, or in a whim of his palate, like the practice of docking sheep, branding stock, or mutilating males; or in the desire of gain, like the extermination of insects or birds that prey upon the crops, or in the fur trade; or in his ambition, like the use of the horse in war; but it sprung from some of the very deepest and noblest of human feelings, such as only physicians can appreciate who have felt their science helpless in certain critical moments, and who reflectively repeated to themselves when it was too late the question they read in the eyes of anxious friends, Whether, after all, more

* 'Ein offener Brief an Ernst von Weber. Von Richard Wagner.' Berlin and Leipzig, 1880.

* 'The Vivisection Question Popularly Discussed. By Prof. Hermann, of Zürich. Translated by A. Dixson, M.D.' 1877. Pp. 59.

might not have been done? Such are the motives that prompted the earlier epoch-making discoveries by this method; and now that the purely scientific desire to understand the phenomena of life is added, we have a right to expect great results from it, and, recent as the method is, we are not disappointed. Take, for instance, the method of treating wounds, and more especially the diseases that were liable to arise from them. The latter are now almost unknown, and the former are healed in half the time required before Lister's study of artificial wounds on animals. Many diseases not before understood are now known to be due to microscopic organisms, and thus by observation of artificial diseases a rational system of disinfection has been developed. The treatment of fevers and high temperature has been almost directly reversed; the better understanding of symptoms by which diseases can be earlier detected, the medicinal properties of digitalis, salicylic acid, and many other drugs, have all been learned chiefly by the study of artificial pathological states in animals, until we may now say that medicine, which has been almost revolutionized within the professional life of many physicians now living, is no longer a speculative science, in accordance with which men were bled for inflammation of the lungs, and wherein life was studied in corpses, and Galen, and perhaps Hippocrates, were cited as authorities, but has become, as it should be, most practical and most healthful, while its influence radiates from the sick bed more and more widely over the active life of men. Thus another, perhaps the greatest of all, is likely to be added to the many debts we owe to animals below us.

There are many points where the interests of men and animals conflict—traces, some of them, perhaps, of an ancient desperate struggle for existence between them. Once priests inspected quivering entrails or shed the blood of animals as burnt-offerings, while now in veterinary schools vivisections are performed directly for the benefit of animals themselves. It is perhaps easy for some temperaments to cultivate the sentimental view and turn pale, like a certain princess on a visit to the laboratory here the other day, at the sight of a dish of diluted blood left in sight by mistake; or weep, as Von Weber assures us thousands have done, over the tale of an English lady who became insane because it was hinted that her lost poodle had been stolen by a vivisector. Some are still found who disapprove of the dissection of dead bodies, and an English clergyman is said to have preached against the artificial fertilization of flowers as unwarrantable meddling with God's handiwork. Every such sentiment, however, so fundamental is physiology becoming in the study and practice of medicine, must, we think, be now regarded as an essentially socialistic agitation against a serviceable and tolerably favored class of the community. The medical profession here suddenly found itself obliged to take the defensive to maintain its good name in the community, and all feel that the same frenzy which has been directed against it may to-morrow be aimed at lawyers, clergymen, or editors. May our country be spared such a sensational agitation as this, as well as such a "scientific scandal" as the English statute against vivisection!

Correspondence.

THE POPE AND THE ST. BARTHOLOMEW MASSACRE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a notice of Professor Baird's 'History of the Huguenots of France,' published in your issue of the 15th inst., you declare that the favorite Protestant view of the St. Bartholomew Massacre, which is that it was planned in cold blood and with long deliberation, and that the Pope was privy to the plot, is now clearly disproved, and never more clearly than by Professor Baird, who, however, is without mercy in his exposure of the dishonest attempts that have been made, in a sectarian interest, to relieve the Pope and his court from the shame of being accessories after the fact to this enormous crime. Your notice concludes with the following words:

"There is one line of defence for the Roman Church, and only one: it is to affirm (as that Church does logically and consistently affirm) the rightfulness of religious persecution, and thus to justify the fierce glee with which the 'Stragis Ugonottorum' was approved at Rome and commemorated in medal and in painting."

I submit that it is absurd to say that those who affirm the rightfulness of religious or other persecution are thereby justified in approving of massacre. Protestant churches, governments, and individuals have affirmed, and to some extent do still affirm, "the rightfulness of religious persecution"; but they are not, therefore, accused of giving countenance to butchery or assassination. There are Americans who hold that it would be right to put down Mormonism by force of law—that is, by religious persecution—but they do not imagine that this would justify them in approving of the massacre of Joseph and Hyrum Smith. The massacre of the Catholic Macdonalds of Glencoe, under William III., was cold-blooded and deliberate, and more brutal even than that of the Huguenots of Paris, but it was scarcely referred to in the press or other publications of the day; there was no outburst of indignation, and Protestant Scotland and England gave to it a tacit approval. Shall we, then, say that there is one and only one line of defence for the Protestants of Scotland and England of that day—that they affirmed "the rightfulness of religious persecution," and were thereby justified in approving of the most atrocious butchery which has been committed in modern times? No; a fair and thoughtful mind will perceive at a glance that this one and only line of defence which the *Nation* traces out for the Pope is an imaginary line, the only point to which is that it at least runs parallel with the vulgar taste for whatever may be made to tell against the Catholic religion. What is the line of defence which Macaulay sets up for this seeming approval of the massacre of Glencoe? It is simply this: that the real facts of the butchery were not made known to the public till long after its perpetration. The Whig version was that MacIan had laid an ambuscade for the soldiers, and had fallen into his own snare; and the Jacobite version was that a detachment of soldiers had been sent under cover of darkness to surprise the inhabitants of Glencoe, and had killed thirty-six men and boys and four women. Neither version gave even a hint of the real facts (*vide* Macaulay's 'History of England,' vol. iv. p. 172).

Now, we may set up precisely the same defence for the Pope's seeming approval of the St. Bartholomew massacre. When he permitted the "Te Deum" to be sung he did not know the real facts in the case. The second day after the massacre King Charles declared openly in Parliament that he had been driven to this deed of blood in order to prevent the carrying out of a Huguenot plot to assassinate the whole royal family, the King of Navarre, and the leading Catholic nobles of France. This was the version which was sent into the provinces and to Rome, and the religious services held in Rome were held in thanksgiving for the preservation of the royal family and chief nobles of France from the hands of assassins. That this was a false version has nothing to do with the question under discussion. That it was the version which the Pope received is evident from the sermon which Muret preached upon the occasion of this solemn celebration at Rome. "Veriti non sunt"—these are his words—"adversus illius regis caput ac salutem conjurare. . . . Qua conjuratione, sub id ipsum tempus quod patrando sceleri dicatum ac constitutum erat, divinitus detecta atque patefacta, conversum est in illorum sceleratorum ac fœdifragorum capita id, quod ipsi in regem et in totam prope domum ac stirpem regiam machinabantur." The version given by King Charles to his Parliament is repeated by the preacher in Rome; and it is manifest that Gregory XIII. believed, when he permitted the act of thanksgiving, that a plot to assassinate the King of France and the whole royal family had been discovered just in time to prevent a national calamity, and that the conspirators had been summarily dealt with. The "Te Deum" was in the nature of the congratulations which it is customary for European sovereigns to send in our day when an attempt is made on the life of the Emperor of Germany or Russia, or the King of Italy or Spain. Much more might be said, but I fear I may already have written more than you will like to publish. Professor Baird's book I have not seen, and can therefore say nothing of his merciless exposure of the dishonest attempts which have been made by Catholics to defend the Pope and his court.

J. L. Spalding.

Peoria, Jan. 19, 1880.

[The objection to the line of defence which Bishop Spalding ingeniously sets up in place of the line proposed by us is simply that it is not tenable. In the first place, neither the Protestants of England nor of Scotland have ever claimed the relation both to God and man claimed by the Pope. In the second place, Bishop Spalding supposes Pope Gregory XIII. to have been dependent for his information respecting the events occurring in France upon the lying assertions made by King Charles in Parliament and in his despatches to his envoys at foreign courts. As a matter of fact, he was not thus dependent. He had a skilful representative in Paris in the person of the Nuncio Salviati. It is true

that the first tidings of the massacre that reached Rome were brought by a courier sent by the Guises to the Cardinal of Lorraine, but it was not until letters from Salviati were received and read in full Consistory, on the sixth of September, that the good news was credited. It was in consequence of the information conveyed in these letters that the Pope and cardinals resolved on the spot to go in solemn procession to the church of San Marco to render thanks to Almighty God for the signal blessing conferred upon the Holy See and upon all Christendom. And it was no "false version" of the story that occasioned the three nights' illumination, the firing of cannon from Sant' Angelo, the striking of commemorative medals, and the painting of the scenes of the butchery on the walls of the Vatican. The Pope might pretend to give credence to the story of a Huguenot plot for the destruction of the lives of the king and the chief Roman Catholic nobles, as contained in the royal declarations. He relied, however, upon the secret despatches of his own Nuncio; and the Nuncio assured him that the rumor that the slaughter had been provoked by the detection of a Protestant conspiracy was not only false but absurd. In his first despatch, sent upon the very day of the massacre, Salviati had not a word to say about the existence of such a conspiracy. In a letter written nine days later, having heard the royal story, he declared that it would be a disgrace for any one possessed of any acquaintance with the affairs of this world to believe it—"ce seroit une honte pour quiconque est à même de connaître quelque chose aux affaires de ce monde de le croire" (Chateaubriand's trans.) It was with such accurate information before him that the Pope despatched Cardinal Orsini as his legate to congratulate the King upon "the glorious and truly incomparable transaction of his majesty, which, looking merely at the matter of glory, could be equalled by no act of his predecessors."

We do not see, however, that the case for the Pope would be essentially improved could it be shown that he was at first deceived respecting the true history of the massacre. Where and when did he exhibit sorrow or shame at discovering the base imposition that had been practised upon him? Instead of betraying any such generous emotion he persisted in his rejoicing, instructed his legate to remind Charles of his promise to destroy every Huguenot still remaining in France, and calmly watched Vasari as he deliberately sketched and elaborated, at the pontifical command, the paintings which were to perpetuate the memory of the most atrocious incidents in the events of St. Bartholomew's day.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

In announcing the receipt of the *Tribune* 'Index' for 1879 we are glad to acknowledge our frequent indebtedness to this annual publication as a guide to past but still recent events. The series has a great and growing value. Mr. John L. Weinheimer is the compiler.——Of Mr. A. R. Spofford's 'American Almanac' for 1880 the American News Co. publishes two editions, in paper covers and in the usual cloth, but the cheaper and popular edition omits the last hundred pages, retaining, nevertheless, the latest election statistics, which will be often consulted during the present year, and which fill nearly a hundred pages. This almanac continues to be the most valuable one we have for its lists of the personnel of the State and national governments, as well as for a great variety of commercial and financial statistics regarding both the United States and foreign countries.——From the office of the *Engineering and Mining Journal*, No. 27 Park Place, New York, will shortly be issued a 'Pocket Mining Atlas' for the United States.——The leading features of the *Magazine of American History* for January are an account of the operations of the allied armies before New York in 1781, by the editor, Mr. John Austin Stevens, accompanied by numerous charts; and the story of "an affair of honor" between Daniel Webster and John Randolph in 1824.——Bulletin No. 52 of the Boston Public Library contains Part IX. of its bibliographical "History of Mental Philosophy," and a topical index to the British Parliamentary Sessional Papers of 1877. It also acknowledges the acquisition by gift of a choice collection of Frankliniana, which will be set apart for special fostering. It embraces eighty different portraits and engravings.——The Board of Overseers of Harvard College have felt obliged, on legal grounds, to overrule the decision of their Election Committee and declare the Rev. H. W. Bellows ineligible from non-residence.——No. 14 of the Harvard Library Bulletin is noticeable for a summary account by Mr. Samuel H. Scudder of the entomological libraries of the United States, which "clearly shows the great advantage to an entomologist of a residence in this vicinity," the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy being rich in this department beyond all other institutions. Mr. Scudder appends a memorandum of some of the rarer works in the libraries of Boston and Cambridge.——Mr. Francis Galton contributes to *Nature* of January 15 one of those suggestive papers on original lines of research which give him a unique position in the scientific world. "Visualized Numerals" is the subject of it, the term having reference to the power of certain persons to call up a distinct (and individual) graphic image of the numerals, arranged systematically, by which mathematical mental processes are greatly simplified. Mr. Galton has been "astonished to find how superior women usually are to men in the vividness of their mental imagery and in their powers of introspection."——Marc Monnier's translation of 'Faust' into French verse has been very highly praised by Leopold Hamburger in the *Magazin für die Litteratur des Auslandes*. He says that he has only found one mistranslation, and is not sure of that. A recent translation of Lessing's 'Laocoon' into Latin by Herr Hasper is condemned by another critic for its Germanisms.——By invitation of a number of ladies, the lectures on "America's Place in History" which Prof. John Fiske recently gave at Chickering Hall, will be repeated as a morning course at an early day.

—We so seldom make the mistake of attributing to a man greater attainments than he possesses that we think we shall be readily forgiven for having described Dr. Ezra Abbot as an eminent Hebraist. He writes to us that his knowledge of Hebrew is, to his regret, "only elementary." We were led into the mistake by the high place he holds as a Biblical critic, overlooking the fact that it is on the New Testament side that his authority is greatest.

—The Sixth Annual Report of the President of Boston University is marked by the characteristic modesty of the literary metropolis, for the affairs of the University itself are not thrust into the foreground, and the majority of the contents relate to the doings of the world at large, and of institutions not directly connected with what would in other places be considered the subject in hand. Beginning with a view of "Liberal Education in the United States," and touching lightly upon "An Important Case of Tax-Exemption" in Illinois, the President reaches the theme upon which he is always eloquent, Coeducation. The utterance of President Barnard, of Columbia, regarding the admission of women to that institution is referred to at length, and the Harvard "Annex" is presented with the startling head-line, "The Beginning of the End at Harvard College," the influence of the humble Boston University in leading to this "beginning of the end" being modestly dwelt upon. The Harvard Medical School, Wellesley and Smith Colleges, and Abbott Academy, form the texts for the next divisions, after which the interests of Boston University are treated. We learn that there are 126 students in the College of Liberal Arts, 40 being women; the senior class containing 10 men and 11 women. The College of Music, an institution managed by Mr. Tourjée, is next shown to be in a very unpromising condition. This "College" seems to have scarcely more firm connection with the "University" than the late School of Oratory had. "The College of Agriculture" furnishes the theme for the most amusing part of the report. This "College" is no less than the Massachusetts Agricultural College, which is about as much a department of Amherst or Williams College as it is of the Boston University. It agrees to receive "matriculants in Boston University on the same terms and conditions as other persons," and by virtue of this stipulation is called a College of Boston University, its name being posted on the bulletin board on Beacon Street. The report of this department is omitted, but with sweet simplicity we are informed that it "will be presented to the legislature in a few weeks"! The schools of Theology, Law, and Medicine are next mentioned, and their work detailed, after which the School of Oratory (which died with its late dean, as it was his private enterprise) is made the subject of several pages. From the résumé at the end we learn that the total number of students last year was 631, 178 being women. In the late School of Oratory there were 67 women and 37 men; in the School of Medicine, 52 women and 94 men; in the College of Liberal Arts, 40 women and 86 men; in the School of Theology, 2 women and 67 men; in the School of Law, 150 men and 1 woman; in the "College of Agriculture," 16 men and no women; and in the School of All Sciences, 34 men and 3 women; the

total figures showing a loss of 36 from those of the last previous year. The "College of Agriculture" lost 6, the School of Theology 12, the School of Law 22, the School of Medicine 25. In looking over the report we find that twenty-three pages may be properly considered to treat the affairs of Boston University, while twenty-five pages are freely appropriated to the doings of the world at large. Until we are certain that women are admitted to the Massachusetts Agricultural College, we cannot be sure that the statement made on page 46 is exactly correct, that "this University is the only one in the world which neither makes nor ever has made any odious discriminations on the ground of sex." And we must further await action on the proposal of a legislative committee to turn the Agricultural College over to Amherst.

—By a happy circumstance not unexplainable by the initiated the most precious recent contributions to the history of the municipality of Boston have taken the form of city documents; and the latest, No. 119 of 1879, ought to attract general attention in all cities of a certain size and antiquity. It is a report to the Common Council of a committee on the naming of streets, and we read: "At the outset of their investigations your committee was somewhat surprised to find that there was no statute expressly conferring on any person or board the right to designate the names of public streets." The reduplication and confusion thence arising, which in the case of Boston has been greatly aggravated by extensive annexations, may be imagined. The committee recommend that hereafter names of streets should be given or changed only by vote of the Board of Aldermen on the recommendation of the Board of Street Commissioners, to take effect on May 1, and that no name should be given to two or more streets (or avenues, etc.); also, that a committee be appointed, to serve without pay, to consider what should be done with existing duplicates. A hint of the true method of dealing with these is given in the present report, namely, to distinguish them by a sectional addition, as, "High Street, Charlestown," "High Street, Brighton," etc.; but if there are two High Streets in Charlestown, to change the name of one. Whatever rules may be established, it is clear that they will be applicable as well to the nomenclature of towns, which it is high time was taken in hand by our State authorities in co-operation with the Post-Office Department. The appendices of this document are rich in lists which lack but little of affording a complete history of the streets of Boston proper, in connection with which a heliotype of part of the earliest known map of the city and its environs, of the date of 1693, discovered last year in Paris, possesses a curious interest. It was made by Jean Baptiste Louis Franquelin, Hydrographer to the King, and "verified by Sr. de la Motte," and is preserved in manuscript in the Dépôt des Cartes de la Marine.

—There has just been established at the Winchester Observatory of Yale College a Horological Bureau, whose object is to "encourage the higher development of the horological industries, and to pursue researches calculated to aid in the construction of refined apparatus for the measure of time." This Bureau has made arrangements with the Safe Deposit Company of New Haven for erecting in their steel vaults apparatus for testing the performance of time-pieces in a regulated temperature and in various positions, as dial-face up or down, or vertical, etc., at ordinary temperatures, in the refrigerator (40° F.) and in the oven (90° F.) The ratings will be carefully noted by trained observers, and in accordance with them certificates will be issued of several well-defined classes. The charges for these tests are so moderate that a certificate may properly be exacted of the seller where there is any doubt as to the quality of the watch, pocket or box-chronometer, or clock, and as a matter of course in the more expensive grades. The result must necessarily be to raise the standards of our manufacturers, and to give American time-pieces a scientific guarantee which will do much to promote their sale abroad. Mr. Leonard Waldo is the astronomer in charge of the Bureau, and will furnish application blanks; time-pieces may be sent by express to the safes at 89 Orange Street, New Haven.

—It is impossible for the unaided ear to determine with certainty the direction of a distant sound, especially when the atmosphere is foggy; hence the great utility to navigators of the instrument which its inventor, Prof. Alfred M. Mayer, of the Stevens Institute, has felicitously named the "topophone," or sound-placer. It consists of "a vertical rod passing through the roof of the deck-cabin," and bearing on the upper end "a horizontal bar carrying two adjustable resonators," below which a pointer is set at right angles with the bar. Rubber tubes from the resonators pass through the roof of the cabin and unite in a single pipe connected with a pair of ear-tubes. The vertical rod is turned by means of a handle in any direction. The first step is to tune the resonators accurately to the pitch of the sound under observation, and fix them "at a distance from each other somewhat less than the length of the wave of that sound"; the next, by turning the handle, to bring them simultaneously on the wave-surface, when, as "they both receive, at the same instant, the same phase of vibration on the planes of their mouths," it will result that if the connecting tubes be of the same length, the sound-pulses, acting together, will be reinforced to the ear, but, if the tubes differ in length by one-half the wave-length of the sound, the pulses will oppose and neutralize each other, and thus tend to produce silence. At this moment the horizontal bar is a chord in the spherical wave-surface of which say the fog-horn is the centre; and the pointer represents a radius, "or, in other words, coincides in alignment with a line drawn from the place where the sound is produced through the place of observation." By sailing the ship a measured distance "at an observed angle from the radius line thus found, a second radius line may in like manner be found," and "the distance between the two points of observation is the base-line of a triangle, of which the two convergent radii are the sides." From these data the distance of the fog-horn is readily computed.

—The *North American Review* for February contains an excited and somewhat extraordinary paper on "The Third Term," by Senator Howe, which is worth a word of description, perhaps, as an indication of how "the old set" reasons when it feels called upon to do so. It is an elaborate deprecation of the Springer resolution that the precedent established by Washington and other presidents in retiring at the close of a second term has become a part of our republican system. The history of the formation of the Constitution, so far as it relates to this point, is given in order to dispel the impression that the framers of that instrument had reference only to a second term, and to show how sincerely, in reality and if the truth were known, they were in favor of an indefinite re-eligibility. What has hitherto been imputed to Washington and Jefferson for patriotism is shown to have been in the former a cunning device to conceal impending senility, and in the latter the result of a wise forecast of probabilities, and the determination to prevent a successor from enjoying the third term which he saw was impossible for him to compass. The article seems to have been dictated by a fear that "true Republicans," and, by implication, overworked politicians, may be forced by "senseless clamor" to "quarry out a President while the foremost man of his age stands upon the mountain-top"; and it closes with the solemn warning that "the practical wisdom approved by the Saviour" is embodied in "Thou hast been faithful over a few things, I will make thee ruler over many," and that "the world will make a mistake if it shall turn from Jesus of Nazareth to follow Mr. Springer of Illinois." We believe no such august support of the "boom" as this has hitherto been invoked. On the other hand, the *Review* has in this number an able and interesting paper on the Emancipation Proclamation, by Mr. James C. Welling, to which it is worth while to call attention both for its historical and its argumentative merits.

—The announcement that companies are being formed to pirate the "Pirates of Penzance" has drawn the attention of the press to the law of stage-right, and very authoritative statements have been published to the effect that Messrs. Gilbert and Sullivan are amply protected by the law and have no reason to fear infringement. They have the credit of being so well advised in these matters that it would be superfluous to offer them suggestions with regard to their property, but the enterprising managers who are forming companies are probably acting under legal advice also. The fact is that the law of stage-right is not so well settled as it might be, and though the tendency of the decisions is all one way, misguided managers may easily get legal opinions throwing doubts upon the position taken by Messrs. Gilbert and Sullivan. The home of stage-right, the place in which it has received its fullest development, and where the courts are in the constant habit of deciding against piracy through unlicensed representation, is New York. The law, as it is recognized here, may be stated as follows: A dramatic author has, independently of all statutes, a common-law right of property in an unpublished play of the same absolute character that he has in his houses and lands, or in his stocks and bonds. It is perpetual and universal. He can sell the right to act the play absolutely, or for limited periods of time, or for limited districts. His right is, in short, exactly what Lord Mansfield attempted to establish for all literary property in the great case of Millar *vs.* Taylor. His attempt failed, and the consequence has been that ever since property in books, both in England and America, has only had such protection as has been accorded it by statutes local in their operation and limited in time. Stage-right is of a much later

growth, and wherever it is recognized we are confronted with what has probably struck Messrs. Gilbert and Sullivan as a "most ingenious paradox"—that the author of a play who cannot get from the copyright statutes anything more than a limited protection, which expires in a few years, may, by not taking advantage of the statutes at all, secure for the same play the most absolute property-right known to the law. Practically the effect of the judicial recognition of stage-right is that the author sells licenses to act his play for particular theatres or particular cities; and as a successful play is always very remunerative, it follows that dramatic authorship is at present, wherever stage-right is recognized, the most tempting branch of the literary profession—a fact which in part explains the recent noticeable development of it in this country.

—In Massachusetts the courts have taken a very different view of the matter. Some years ago Laura Keene, then the manager of one of the principal theatres in this city, bought from Tom Taylor both the play and the manuscript of "Our American Cousin." The play was brought out in Boston, and Miss Keene instituted a suit. The Supreme Court of Massachusetts decided, after a full argument, that the play having been previously represented for money, this amounted to a dedication of it to the public, and, therefore, no action could be maintained. It would seem from the language of the Court that the way in which the play was obtained for reproduction was by means of the *memory* of actors, and the Court thought that this use of memory could not be judicially restrained. We do not hesitate to say that a more unfortunate decision was never rendered by a respectable court. The right to use the memory is undoubted; so is the right to use the hands; but there is no greater right to use the memory for the purpose of pirating a play than there is to use the hands for the purpose of committing a theft. So, too, the question of publication is properly one of *intention*, and the idea that any one who represents a play for money thereby shows an intention to dedicate to the public is exactly the reverse of the fact. Nevertheless the Massachusetts decision is not by any means unsupported by authority. The truth is that during the last hundred years the conception of *ownership* in literary property has steadily grown, and a court which has a question of stage-right brought before it has an opportunity of taking either a liberal or a narrow view of the subject. As we have before pointed out in these columns, the history of copyright in the last two centuries is the history of a struggle between communism and the idea of ownership. We see them in conflict to-day—as, for instance, in the fact that international piracy is practised by the same nations that locally recognize a strict property right. So, in respect to dramatic authorship, the earlier decisions of the courts show that in the last century, while ownership in a manuscript was recognized, the antique legal communism which prevailed in the minds of some of the most learned judges of the day prevented them from admitting any right of property in the ideas embodied in the manuscript. It was this difficulty which really stood in the way of the recognition of copyright at common law, as anybody will see who reads the opinion of Mr. Justice Yates in dissenting from Lord Mansfield. This learned lawyer suggested that ideas were very much like wild animals, which ceased to be the property of the owner as soon as they escaped from his possession and control. So, in the case of ideas, they become public property on publication. It is this antique legal conception which really lies at the basis of the Massachusetts view of stage-right. The courts which take the opposite view only apply to dramatic property those principles of ownership which Lord Mansfield a century ago applied to all property in ideas.

—The last performances of Mr. Strakosch's opera company were in many respects superior to the first Both chorus and orchestra had become much better trained, and the leading artists appeared to greater advantage. The second performance of "Carmen" was very fair. Mlle. Belocca was charming in the title rôle, and Sig. Storti gave a spirited impersonation of the *Torreador*, though the part is much too low for him, and his fine voice did not show to the fullest advantage. The new tenor, Sig. Baldanza, has a powerful voice, but is utterly untrained. His natural gifts are above the average, and with conscientious study he may some day become a praiseworthy artist. Donizetti's "Favorita" was given for the first time this season. Mlle. Belocca as *Leonora* carried off again the honors of the evening, developing an amount of dramatic power both in her singing and acting which surprised her audience, who had hitherto only learned to admire her as a lyric singer. Sig. Storti was excellent as *King Alfonso*. This high baritone part is admirably suited to his voice, and ensured him perhaps his greatest success this season. Sig. Petrovitch, too, was better as *Fernando* than in any part he has undertaken. His performance of "Faust" on the following evening was very dull and uninteresting. M. Castelmary, a French artist, gave a rendering of *Mephistopheles* which, as regards dramatic strength and gracefulness of action, has never been equalled on the New York stage; but his part alone redeemed an otherwise tame and commonplace performance. "Sonnambula" and "Mignon" were repeated with the same cast, and the public was sorely disappointed at not having another opportunity of hearing Mlle. Singer, who is still indisposed, and upon whose appearance so much of Mr. Strakosch's success has depended.

—We were promised lately a new French bibliographical review which should be in itself coveted by the collector as a thing of beauty for his shelves. These anticipations are well fulfilled in *Le Livre*, of which the first *livraison* bears date of January, 1880, the name of A. Quantin, 7 rue Bénoît, Paris, as publisher, and that of Octave Uzanne as chief editor. This *livraison*, in shape of a large octavo, is composed of three *volumes*, evidently designed to be bound separately at the end of the year, though each shares the common title, *Le Livre;* and of these the first two have a rubricated title-page, while the first volume is printed on Holland paper, the second on a tinted, and the third on ordinary white paper, the third having also much the smallest number of pages. The three corresponding divisions are: Ancient Bibliography, Modern Bibliography, and Bibliographic Bibliography; the last being simply a classified list of French and foreign publications of the month (Nov. 15–Dec. 15, 1879), not so complete or well selected, at least on the foreign side, as we may hope to see it, and being immediately followed by a General Catalogue of Old Books, which, though paged consecutively with the former, is only a group of publishers' advertisements attractively displayed. Finally, it must be said that the Ancient Bibliography alone is adorned with engraved initial letters, head and tail-pieces and other illustrations to be specified presently, all of which give this portion of the *livraison* an air of great elegance.

—The leading articles are as follows: First, an account of Baron Taylor and his wonderful dramatic library, by Paul Lacroix, with an off-hand portrait by Bouguereau. Then "Bibliography in England," an analysis of the 'Index Librorum Prohibitorum,' by F. Drujon; a first paper, by Joannis Guignard, giving in alphabetic order illustrations of the marks of bindings belonging to eminent collectors, here generally the coats-of-arms, to which is added a full-page specimen of an illuminated cover; a sketch, by E. G. Brunet, of the life and works of the late Octave Delepierre, whose first wife was a sister of Lord Napier of Magdala, and whose untaught boyhood was the result of the father's addiction to Rousseau's doctrine of education; a pretty full and rather interesting list of books that constituted the library of the Dauphin, for whose instruction Louis XIV. provided so lavishly the classical commentaries *ad usum Delphini*—a list recovered by means of the crest on the bindings; and an appreciative memoir of the late Georges Trautz (Trautz-Bauzonnet), the consummate artist among Paris binders, accompanied by a portrait. Next in order is a summary of the Firmin-Didot sale, and with a *Chronique* of miscellaneous information Part I. concludes. Part II. opens with a description of the progress of public libraries in France, and passes to foreign literary correspondence from seven countries, including the United States; a department called "Le Livre parlé," and consisting of reports of lectures by the actor Coquelin and others at the literary matinées of the Théâtre-Français, and a schedule of the lectures at the Collège de France and the Sorbonne; a critique of Pouillet's 'Treatise on Literary and Artistic Property'; and, finally, to the reviews proper. These are of the French as distinguished from the English type, and call for no special comment, except that they relate only to French books or books translated into French; but what we suppose to be the true history of the 'Bibliographie clérico-galante' denounced by *Polybiblion* is given on p. 69. Notes and news are furnished in a *Gazette bibliographique*, among which we remark Minister Ferry's letter of instructions for the formation of a pedagogic library by translations from the best works in foreign languages, and the announcement of a new work, 'My Policy,' by the Duc de Broglie. Under Necrology respectful mention is made of Madame Louis Figuier, who was a frequent contributor to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* and a successful playwright. We take leave of *Le Livre* at the summary of periodical publications, including the principal literary or scientific articles in the Paris daily papers; the alphabetical list of "seizures, prosecutions, and convictions undergone by the press," and by equally hapless books; and the list of new journals which appeared in Paris in the month of November—thirty in all. All this quantity and variety *Le Livre* offers for the annual price of 46 francs.

—We have received three lists of words in *a* up to *adk* issued by the Philological Society, in the prosecution of its Dictionary, which contain respectively (A) dictionary words of doubtful existence elsewhere, the lexicographer's "apparent stock in trade"; (B) words mostly obsolete, with latest known date of use affixed, and later desired; (C) words actually or comparatively recent, with earliest known date affixed, and earlier desired. This last list we print entire below. Contributions should be sent to Dr. Murray, Mill Hill, London, N.W., in accordance with the Society's formal Directions:

Aback (*nautical*) 1762, abashless 1868, abatis 1809, abdomen 1601, abdominal 1746, abduct *v.* (a person) 1837, abductor 1872, abeam 1836, aberdevine 1770, abettal 1861, abey *v.* 1868, abeyant 1866, ablaze 1800, ablaom 1865, abnormal 1840, abnormality 1854, abnormally 1845 abnormity 1859, abnormous 1771, aboard *adv.* 1509, abolishable 1837, abolition (of slavery), abolitionism (Wilberforce), abolitionist 1808, aboriginal 1788, aboriginary 1868, abrase *v.* 1859, abrasion 1740, abreast 1567, absentation 1852, absentee (Irish) 1769, absentness 1858, absinth(e) 1854, absolutism 1854, absolutist 1850, absolvent 1837, absorbed (*mentally*) 1805, absorbedly 1868, absorbent 1794, absorption 1741, absquotilate—absquatulate 1837, abstainer (total) 1850, abstergent 1861, abstinence (total) 1850, abstraction 1660, absurd 1590, abusefulness 1862, abutment 1644, abutment (*arch.*) 1830, abyss 1560, academial 1852, academician 1755, academist 1691, acatallactic 1865, accelerative 1827, accelerator 1861, acceptancy 1856, acceptant *adj.* 1851, accessibility 1818, accession 1646, accessorial 1856, accidentalism 1851, accidentality 1817, acclimatation 1859, acclimate *v.* 1792, acclimation 1859, acclimatization 1859, acclimatize *v.* 1854, acclivity 1614, accommodatingly 1847, accompaniment 1789, accompan(y)ist 1863, accomplice 1600, accordion 1859, accouche *v.* 1867, accouchement 1859, accoucheur 1845, accouchense 1867, account (*lay one's with*) 1852, accountability 1825, accountancy 1879, accountantship 1858, accredit *v.* 1750, accrete *v.* 1784, accuracy 1664, accurate 1621, accusal 1823, acerbate *v.* 1862, acervative 1865, acharnement 1854, achene *n.* 1867, achromatic 1830, acidify *v* 1837, acidity 1656, acidulate *v.* 1794, acidulous 1832, acknowledg(e)ment 1599, acosmism 1860, acosmist 1852, acoustics 1824, acquaintanceship 1827, acquaintancy 1859, acquiesce *v.* 1620, acquirement 1646, acquisitive 1642, acquisitiveness (phrenol.), acreage 1850 acrid 1732, acridity 1859, acrimonious 1646, acrobat 1845, acrobatic 1861, across 1547, acrostic 1587, act *v.* 1500, actinic 1859, actinism 1862, actionize *v.* 1872, actor (= player) *Shakspere*, actress 1623, actuality 1647, actualize *v.* 1817, actuarial 1869, actuarian 1863, actuate *v.* 1609, acuation 1847, acupressure 1865, acute 1592, adagio *n.* 1845, adapt *v.* 1611, adaptiveness 1863, additional 1641, addressee 1864, addressy *adj.* 1870, adduce *v.* 1764, adductor 1828, adeep 1850, adept *a.* and *n.* 1692, adequacy 1853, adequative 1865, adhere *v.* 1597, adhesiour 1646, adhesive 1750, adhesiveness 1860, adiaphorism 1866, adipocere 1820, adiposity 1859, adjudicate *v.* 1851, adjunctive *adj.* 1859, adjuratory *a.* 1815, adjust, v. 1611.

—If Mr. Cahrles H. Allen, the Secretary of the British and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society, has any official superiors, they will do well to repress his activity a little. He sent to the London papers in November last a shocking story, which he said had been forwarded to him by a "friend" in Kansas, of two negroes who had gone back from Kansas to Mississippi to bring their families to their new homes. One was seized on their arrival and had both hands lopped off by the whites, and was then "told with fearful oaths to go to Kansas now and make a living for his family, and the poor, maimed man returned with his wife and little ones." The other had worked hard for some months, laid by $100, and went back to fetch his bride. The very night after his marriage he was dragged from his house, his arms cut off above the elbows, and he was left to bleed to death. Mr. Allen furnished this tale to the British public as absolute truth, with appropriate and harrowing comments. He was speedily assured that it was probably false from beginning to end, so he wrote to Governor St. John of Kansas for confirmation. He has now sent the Governor's answer to the London *Times* with another letter of his own. The Governor says that a colored man named Best did go back from Kansas to Mississippi last spring with $100, "since which time nothing has been heard of him or of his family—save and except reports brought here by refugees, who state that a lot of white ruffians when Best returned caught him and cut off his hands, from the effects of which it is reported that he died." "As to whether this is true or not," adds Mr. St. John, "it is impossible for me to say; I only know that Best was here, for I saw and talked with him last spring." This is all. About the other maimed man with the wife and little ones, who got back to Kansas, not a word. Most men who had circulated the original story in a solemn manner would be a little abashed by this result of a hunt for evidence. Not so Mr. Allen. He writes to the *Times* again with great calm:

"As many persons expressed doubts as to the veracity of some of these hideous stories, this society addressed a letter to the Governor of Kansas asking for some confirmation of the statements made. His reply I now enclose, trusting that you will kindly give it a place in your columns, for it is of the highest importance that the people of America should be aroused to the feeling of indignation that such conduct excites in all civilized countries. In no way can we so easily reach the heart of the great and free people of the Northern States as by addressing them through the pages of the *Times*."

He evidently thinks he has proved his case, and that he is doing good by this sort of work. There is, therefore, evidently no use in remonstrating with *him*, so we must ask his directors, or trustees, or whatever they are, to put some check on him. Sympathy for the negro refugees which shows itself in this way only disgusts people at the North, hardens their hearts, and closes their purses by spreading incredulity with regard to all stories of negro sufferings.

—Not even the society of Holland House is more familiar to the student of polite literature than are the three generations of interesting men and women whose names are associated with the manor-house at Coppet. The first generation we know through Gibbon and Rousseau; the second through Mesdames de Staël and Récamier; the third through the letters of Doudan. Numerous, however, as are the writers who have had more or less to say about this attractive Vaudois society, our knowledge of it is still scrappy and irregular. But in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for January 1 Mr. Othenin d'Haussonville begins what promises to be a long series of articles, and to give a great deal of long-desired information. To the writer in question has been opened "the iron-bound door of the old tower of the Coppet mansion, in which are kept its archives"; and it is from these documents that his articles are to be prepared. If he had found there only family papers, much that is worth reading might, we doubt not, have been drawn from them; but, in addition to these, he discovered among the twenty-seven volumes of letters addressed to M. and Mme. Necker, and the papers of Mme. de Staël, a great deal that is of interest concerning Buffon, Grimm, Marmontel, D'Alembert, Diderot, and Mesdames du Deffand, Geoffrin, and d'Houdetot. But the present long paper (52 pages) is devoted solely to the youth of Mme. Necker, born Susanne Curchod. As regards her betrothal to Gibbon, "curious documents," says M. d'Haussonville, "allow me to complete the story, and to correct in several points Gibbon's story; I shall be astonished if his conduct gains in public estimation by the new light thrown upon it." Gibbon, it will be remembered, though he "sighed as a lover," yet "obeyed as a son"; but the sighing on his part cannot have been very deep, thinks his French critic, to whom his love-letters (three of which are here printed) appear "but the work of a clever fellow who writes love-letters as he would a French exercise, employing the figures recommended by the rhetoric books." Instead of the engagement being broken shortly after his return to England, as Gibbon gives the reader to understand, it now appears that he kept it up for four years, and that, when finally broken, it caused the girl acute suffering. This last fact is not now stated for the first time, the Rev. Mr. Moultou having written Rousseau to this effect; but the trustworthiness of his view has always been disputed, notably by Mr. Morison in his volume in the series of "English Men of Letters."

THE SPIRIT OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY. *

THE present century is the child of the last, and, as is the way with children, studies but finds it hard to appreciate the character of its parent. Stephen's 'History of English Thought in the Eighteenth Century,' Lecky's 'History of England in the Eighteenth Century,' Miss Wedgwood's 'Life of Wesley,' Thackeray's 'Humorists' and still more his 'Esmond,' Carlyle's 'Essays,' Froude's 'History of the English in Ireland during the Eighteenth Century,' Morley's 'Voltaire,' 'Diderot,' and 'Burke,' and a score more of recent biographies or treatises show that in the present age we are compelled, whether with our will or against our will, to interest ourselves in the acts and thoughts of our fathers. Yet a critic who reads with intelligence the series of essays in which Messrs. Abbey and Overton investigate the condition of the English Church during the last century, can hardly fail to perceive that even writers who have collected together a large amount of miscellaneous information, and who intend to write with the greatest fairness, find an almost insuperable difficulty in really entering into the spirit of the last age. To explain, indeed, the causes of this difficulty would be to attempt a critique on the eighteenth century. All that can be done within the limits of a newspaper article is to call attention to one point of dissimilarity between the present century and the last which, though patent to every one, exerted a far greater influence than is always attributed to it.

In many respects the sentiment of the eighteenth century was, we are convinced, far more like the prevailing feeling of the present time than is often allowed. The idea, for instance, that the Georgian era was marked by a religious coldness quite foreign to the reign of Victoria, is, as any one may see who will study the facts presented by Messrs. Abbey and Overton, grounded on a twofold misconception. It rests on the assumption, which is not borne out by the facts, that readers of Richardson or hearers of Whitefield belong to a generation who did not know what was meant by religious sentiment. It rests on the still more groundless assumption that the latter part of the nineteenth century is characterized by the religious fervor which may, with a certain amount of partial truth, be ascribed to the period of the Wesleyan or Evangelical revival. In

* 'The English Church in the Eighteenth Century. By Charles J. Abbey and John H. Overton.' 2 vols. London: Longmans, Green & Co.

one point, however, the eighteenth century, if one may use that term as a very lax description of an age which does not coincide precisely with any division of a hundred years, differed essentially from the present time. The men who lived during the period which extends, speaking roughly, from the last English to the first French revolution (1688–1789) remembered, and to a certain extent knew, what was meant by religious persecution, and understood, partly from tradition, partly from personal experience, what was the meaning and what were the results of the *odium theologicum*. Few persons now realize the extent to which the demon of theological intolerance tormented Europe. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that from the death of Savonarola (1498) down to the end of the Thirty Years' War (1648) every part of Europe was in one shape or another made miserable by the spirit of religious fanaticism. England, indeed, escaped the miseries which afflicted Germany and France, but the triumph of the Puritans, which, after all, was a mere episode in the religious contests of Europe, produced an effect on the imagination of Englishmen which may be measured by the fact noted by Mr. Pattison, that the popular abuse of the word "saint," as a term suggesting hypocrisy, dates back to the Restoration and the reaction against the rule of Cromwell. It must not, further, be forgotten that if the peace of Westphalia closed the wars of the Reformation, it did not put an end to acts dictated by the grossest theological intolerance. The revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685) excited at least as much horror at the beginning of the eighteenth century as was still aroused by the recollection of the Reign of Terror at the beginning of the nineteenth; and the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes was indeed the greatest but was not the last act of theological intolerance known, either by immediate tradition or by experience, to the men of what may be termed the Georgian era. The revolt in the Cévennes and the horrors of its suppression took place in the midst of Marlborough's triumphs, and if, as the century advanced, the persecution of French Protestantism languished, mainly for want of victims to persecute, the spirit of intolerance which had been born in a time of religious zeal lived on when Paris was filled with scoffing *philosophes* and unbelieving and scarcely less scoffing prelates. Calas was tortured and murdered after George III. ascended the throne, and Guizot's mother attended Protestant conventicles which were broken up by the fire of dragoons.

Nor are we to suppose for a moment that the intolerance which was rampant abroad was unknown in Great Britain or Ireland. The penal legislation against Catholics is proof enough that theological animosity was not a vice peculiar to Roman Catholic governments, and the intolerant sentiment of the mass of the English people went beyond that of their rulers. One curious phenomenon of the age is the popularity of the Church of England at the period when she reached what, religiously speaking, might be considered the lowest point to which she ever fell. Throughout the eighteenth century the mob were, as Messrs. Abbey and Overton point out, invariably in favor of the Church. They were always ready to break into violence with undiscriminating zeal against any man or party supposed to be hostile to the Establishment. A Presbyterian, a Wesleyan, a Jew, a Papist, or a Freethinker might at any time be liable to popular violence. In 1753 the proposal to naturalize Jews seemed to the multitude to be little less than a scheme for overthrowing Christianity. In 1780 Lord George Gordon and his followers held possession of London and gutted every Catholic Chapel within their reach. Eleven years later the mob of Birmingham destroyed Priestley's house because he did not believe in the existence of the Trinity and did believe in the sovereignty of the people; while the respectable classes, with George III. at their head, pretty clearly thought that if the mob at Birmingham were a little too wild, yet that a freethinker and a revolutionist had not more than a bare right to legal protection.

The facts we have mentioned, and a hundred others of the same kind, are the mere commonplaces of history, but they deserve attention as showing that the men of the last century knew religious intolerance, so to speak, as a living force, and not, like ourselves, as something merely of the past. From this knowledge are derived several characteristics of the age which appear at first sight hardly consistent with each other. It affords, for instance, the explanation of the intellectual brutality which is traceable among men such as Johnson, Swift, or Steele. They carried into conversation the kind of violence which in times not then long past would have led to deeds of active persecution. The whole tendency of the time was to treat an opponent, especially on theological matters, as certainly a fool and probably a knave, and to express one's sentiments about freethinkers and other disreputable persons in the terms which it is natural to apply to scoundrels. Hence, though in England law or custom ensured an amount of liberty of speech which excited the envy of foreigners, the freedom of the last century would, to persons accustomed to the unrestrained discussion of modern times, appear little better than a social tyranny slightly tempered by law. Every month there appear articles in the best English reviews which would in the last century have excited the horror of all respectable persons. It is funny to imagine what Johnson, or Eldon, or Pitt, or, for that matter, Erskine (who occasionally crams his speeches with statements of his religious orthodoxy), would think of a current number say of the *Fortnightly* or *Nineteenth Century*. Freethinkers themselves were curiously influenced by the spirit of the time. Either prudence or, in some cases, real hesitation in speaking out led them to veil their meaning in hints or sneers. Neither Bentham nor James Mill was a coward; but Bentham published, or got published, his speculations on religion under the pseudonym of Philip Beauchamp, and the language even of the anonymous publication is singularly guarded; while James Mill impressed on his son the absolute necessity of keeping private the opinions as to religion in which John Mill was educated. It is probable that in the case of Bentham, the two Mills, and of Austin caution in the expression of unorthodox belief was really unnecessary; but the excessive reticence which marked the way in which these men treated theological topics is, even if it was unnecessary, all the more curious as a survival of a mental habit quite suited to the tone prevailing in the earlier part of the Georgian era.

The most important, however, of the effects produced on the men of the eighteenth century by their knowledge of the evils flowing from the spirit of fanaticism was the importance which it led thinkers of every school to attach to the power of reason. The expressions "rational piety" or the "reasonableness of religion" have now, like many other good things, gone a little out of date, but they admirably express the whole tone of the generation to which they were familiar terms. The confidence in reason, one might almost say in good sense, was not peculiar to any one school. Men who were the pillars of the Church—Tillotson, Butler, or Paley—were quite as anxious as were any of their opponents to show that their religious views were reasonable. This confidence in good sense was closely allied with, or, in fact, was only the other side of, the dislike to "enthusiasm" which was in reality one of the marks of the age. Mr. Abbey's chapter on this subject is well worth careful consideration. He shows conclusively, what indeed scarcely needed proof, that the opposition to enthusiasm was common to all the most celebrated thinkers of the age. This opposition was further obviously based on utter distrust of all those views of religious belief which substitute fervor of conviction for strength of argument. Nor can it be doubted for a moment that the ground why religious fanaticism seemed utterly intolerable to men wanting neither in zeal nor in goodness, was that they dreaded lest the kindling of enthusiasm should relight all the fires of theological animosity which had for ages devastated Europe, and had at last been got under, though they were not yet put out, by the efforts of human reason backed up by the obvious secular interests of mankind. Ten years of Puritan rule would, we suspect, make modern Englishmen feel that what our fathers called enthusiasm was a thing to be carefully held in check. "Sir, this pretending to extraordinary revelations and gifts of the Holy Spirit is a horrid thing—a very horrid thing." These were the words of Butler to Wesley. They are not exactly the language which would be used by a modern bishop to a modern Wesley, but they well present the very sentiment of Butler's age. They would have been approved by Johnson and Richardson no less than by Hume and Gibbon. Till you understand exactly what these expressions mean, and what was the cause of the feeling to which they give expression, you will always find a difficulty in entering into the spirit of the eighteenth century.

HARPER'S LATIN DICTIONARY.*

NEITHER Latin nor Greek lexicography has kept pace with the advance of philological science, but our Latin dictionaries have been behind our Greek. The labor of making or rewriting a complete lexicon is so long and tedious that we cannot expect it to be undertaken many times in a generation. So much the greater need that revisions, when they are made, be thorough-going and intelligent, if lexicons are not to become, yet more than they have been, the repositories of worn-out philological rubbish. Andrews's Lexicon—substantially an abridged translation of Freund's German work (1834–45)—has been since its appearance

* 'A New Latin Dictionary, founded on the Translation of Freund's Latin-German Lexicon edited by E. A. Andrews, LL.D. Revised, enlarged, and in great part rewritten by Charlton T. Lewis, Ph.D., and Charles Short, LL.D., Professor of Latin in Columbia College, N. Y.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1879.

in 1850 the main reliance of English-speaking students of Latin. It has already been made the basis both of larger and smaller works. White and Riddle's, the chief of these (London, 1862, 2 vols.), contained much added material, but embodied the bulk of Andrews's articles untouched. 'Harper's Dictionary' is the first attempt at anything like a real working-over of Andrews's Lexicon.

The features of the old dictionary which called most urgently for reform were the orthography and the etymologies. In a less degree the definitions needed improvement; yet these were often deficient as regards special and unusual phrases. The spelling of the new work leaves not very much to be desired, and it is a real comfort to see at last in a dictionary *caelum, paenitet, cena, erus, umerus, umidus, nuntius, contio, condicio, incoho,* and many others. This is not a minor point. It has at last dawned on the scholastic mind that there is a right way of writing (and pronouncing) every Latin word; and it becomes an important duty to free the language of Rome from the distortions brought about by a vicious mediæval pronunciation, and to accustom learners from the outset to the right forms of words. Often bad forms should have been rejected more positively: thus "*contio* (less correctly *concio*)." Why not "incorrectly"? On what principle the editors have given *abicio, conicio, proicio,* etc., at the heads of articles, and on the other hand "*adjicio* (better *adicio*)," we are at a loss to say. The quantity in *ōbicio, sūbicio, īnicio,* and others is rightly given, but no provision is made for the exactly similar *ābicio* and *ādicio:* the one is marked *ăbicio,* which is quite an exceptional scansion, and the other left without designation of quantity. Nor is there any sufficient ground for writing *Maius, aio, meio, Velleius* alongside of *Trajanus, major, pejor, Pompejus;* an inconsistency which has led to "*Sejus* or *Seius,*" "*Veii* or *Veji,*" as if these were in any sense different forms. We are glad to see *Raetia* and *Regium* freed from their adventitious *h,* and wish that *Rhea Silvia* might have shared this benefit. *Danuvius* and *Genava* are welcome, but *Suebi* should have received distinctly the preference over *Suevi. Terentina tribus* yet remains to be corrected, but it is pleasant to see *Caius* and *Cnaeus* at least thrust into the background. *Derigo* deserves a separate article. But these oversights are neither very numerous nor harmful, and many can be easily corrected in the plates.

The etymologies are the least satisfactory part of the new book, yet they are greatly in advance of what we used to read in the old dictionary. Some parallel examples, chosen quite at random, will show this:

Old.	*New.*
haruspex: "perhaps an Etruscan mutilation of the Greek ἱεροσκόπος; acc. to others from *haruga* and *spicio.*"	*haruspex:* "Sanscr. hirâ, entrails: Gr. χολάδες, χορδή: cf. *hariolus.* Curt. Gr. Etym. p. 202 sq."
hortus: "weakened from χόρτος, an enclosure for plants."	*hortus:* "cf. heres, co-hors; χόρτος, an enclosure for plants."
sus: "sibilated from ὗς."	*sus:* "Gr. ὗς, O. H. Germ. sû: Engl. sow, swine."
vinum: "digammated from οἶνος."	*vinum:* "cf. Gr. οἶνος."

But how can *amo* have to do at once with "Sanscr. kam=to love" and "ἅμα=Sanscr. sam=German sammt" etc.? *Axamenta* is wrongly derived from *axis* "because they were inscribed on tablets of wood," instead of the verb *axare. Lympha* still figures as kindred with *νύμφη.* The root of *lucrum* is said to be "laf"; that of *verbum* "er," in spite of the citation of "Germ. wort, Engl. word." *Oportet* is said to come from *opus, hornus* to be "contr. from hōrinus=ὥρινος from ὥρα." Under *hora* we read, "kindred with ὥρα, Zend yare year, ayara day: orig. for *F*osara [!] from *Fέαρ,* ver," a strange mixture of two incompatible notions, both equally false. *Solitaurilia* is given as a form of *suovetaurilia:* it is, as Corssen showed long since, an entirely distinct word. *Sodes* "contr. from si audes for si audies," *hamus* "kindred with ἅπ-, ἅπτω," *necubi* from "ne alicubi," are other oversights. The same old preposition is given rather inconsistently as "port-" in *pono* and *possideo,* "por- or port-" in *polliceor,* "pro-" in *porrigo;* under *polluo* and *pollingo* there is no mention of any preposition. For *unde* no derivation is given, though *ubi* is explained as *quobi;* under *similis,* though ἅμα and ὁμοῖος are quoted, the exact counterpart, ὁμαλός, is not. Other expressions savor strongly, to say the least, of bygone modes of thought: *hirundo* "weakened from *χελιδών*"; "*CNAIVOS* for *ΓNAIFOΣ*" (p. 78); *divus* "and (without the digamma) *dius*"; *boo,* "with the digamma *bovo*"; *defendier* an "infin. pass. parag.," *defendentum* "gen. plur. sync." The etymologies seem to have been worked in from Curtius and others without a thorough elimination of older material, and without due discrimination between the certain and the uncertain; the work betrays an insufficient knowledge of phonetics and of the kindred languages cited. Hence misspellings and inconsistent transliterations of Sanskrit words: "dicami, point out," "râgan, king," "hasas" (under *anser,* but on p. 799 "hansa"), "jug-, junagmi" (under *jungo*), but under *jugum* "yuga from yug." "Tah-ja" (under *lacrima*) is given as the Gothic for "tear," a mistake which evidently arose from letting the eye wander to the wrong paragraph on a page of Curtius.

These instances will serve to show that the etymological part of the dictionary is yet capable of much improvement. Respecting the derivation of Latin words from one another, the old dictionary was fairly satisfactory, but the new one shows no improvement; it is true that *judico* is now rightly referred to *judex,* but *vindex* is still said to come from *vindico, index* from *indico, sonus* from *sono, nex* from *neco, lux* from *luceo* (in these last two cases the old lexicon was right). All these should be reversed. The *i* in *alti-sonus, arci-tenens* is still (p. 874) regarded as a "connecting sound." It is to be desired, we may say in passing, that Freund's articles on the several letters ("*C,* the third letter of the Latin alphabet," etc.) had been either cut out or quite remodelled. That on *A* is indeed rewritten by the reviser of the first part of the book, and is brought into tolerable consonance with modern grammatical ideas; but the others remain with very little change, and we may still read very surprising things, as *pulcer* compared with *πολύχροος* (p. 257), short *u* "an obscure sound resembling the German *ü* and the French *u*" (p. 1,922). Here, of course, it is Freund who speaks; but how easy it would have been to prune away these extravagant statements. Even the changes that have been made are not always very happy, as *d* representing "an original *s*" in *medius,* and "an original *l*" in *dacrima,* where Freund spoke only of an interchange.

But we pass to the definitions and illustrations of meaning, and here we see the real value of the work done by the revisers. A careful comparison of thirteen important articles, taken at random, shows in every case but one an increase in length, in all cases the addition of new examples and improvements in the wording, in nine cases new uses or meanings of the word, in one (*bonus*) an entire reconstruction of the article, which is enlarged from two and a half columns to eleven. The student of Horace will now find at least some explanation of *carmina divides* and *quinta parte sui nectaris.* The article *mancipium* shows marked improvement in the legal definitions. Quite aside from the more striking alterations, the number of unobtrusive but excellent changes appears to be very great. We have not noticed many or serious failures to utilize recent researches in this department: *redivivus* ought probably to have been revised in accordance with Lange's recent explanation. We have looked with some interest for the better presentation of the Roman religion as distinct from the Greek, but this seems to be as before. We still read *Juppiter* "a son of Saturn," *Juno* "daughter of Saturn, sister and wife of Jupiter," *Volcanus* "son of Jupiter and Juno." *Mars, Minerva, Saturnus,* and others are, as they were by Freund, more satisfactorily treated. Other oversights we have noted are: *Corinto deleto* (p. 470) strangely referred to an "Inscr. Fratr. Arval." instead of the well-known monument of Mummius: the *Velia* described as "an elevated part of the Palatine hill"; "*anti*" given as an old form of *ante* (should be *antid*); long *ā* in the ablative singular "in consequence of the suppression of the original abl. ending *-d*" (p. 1). No serious omissions have occurred to us: the pronominal forms *sovos* and *tovos* (*suus* and *tuus*), *Covella* as surname of Juno, the (inscriptional) perfect *meissi, missi,* and the participles *essus* and *ussus,* to which some Plautine scholars are extremely partial, might have been fairly expected. The proof-reading seems well done, and misprints are not numerous; we have noticed only *lucifigus* for *lucifugus* (under *lucipetus*). And ought not *Genna* on p. 806 to be *Genua?*

Imperfections are unavoidable in a work of this kind, and in enumerating the above we have not designed to cast the signal merits of the book into the shade. The difficulty of handling so enormous a mass of material is so great that he must be little short of omniscient who should let nothing faulty pass unchallenged. There is no doubt that in the present work we have the most correct and useful Latin dictionary yet published. The book has 2,019 pages to 1,651 of Andrews's Lexicon. Messrs. Lewis and Short have shared the labor very unequally; only the first 216 pages (words beginning with A) are the work of the latter.

Hector Berlioz. Selections from his letters, and æsthetic, humorous, and satirical writings. Translated by W. F. Apthorp. (New York: Henry Holt & Co.)—As compared with the rather uneventful life of most composers, the life of Berlioz may be said to present not a few features of interest. Many of these can be traced to the Bohemian instincts which

he had in common with most artists. Who, for instance, but an artist would ever think of marrying an actress involved in great debt, himself having no more in his purse than a few hundred francs, and those borrowed of a friend? Berlioz did it, and it was not by any means the only anomalous and impetuous act he perpetrated. Mr. Apthorp has touched on most of these in the biographical sketch he has prefixed to the present volume. It was a happy thought on his part to make this sketch consist mainly of selections from Berlioz's own account of his life, connected by explanatory and critical remarks of his own. For even if, like Goethe, Berlioz has doubtless mixed up fiction with truth, he is yet, on the whole, most competent to tell his own story. The selections which follow the introductory sketch all help to give it color; for in a certain sense all the writings of Berlioz are autobiographical. Thus, in one of his letters from Germany, the gossip about himself which he puts in the mouth of the people gives us a vivid idea of Berlioz at a rehearsal:

"What happened at the rehearsal this morning? . . . Is he satisfied? . . . He is a Frenchmen, then? . . . But the French only write comic operas! . . . The chorus find him awfully wicked! . . . He said that the women sang like dancers! . . . He knew, then, that the *soprani* belong to the *corps de ballet?* . . . Is it true that he bowed to the trombones in the middle of a piece? . . . The orchestra boy vows that at yesterday's rehearsal he drank two decanters of water, a bottle of white wine, and three glasses of brandy? What does he keep saying César! César! (*c'est ça, c'est ça*) to the *Conzertmeister* for?" etc.

In explanation of the last line be it said that Berlioz was an incurable punster—a peculiarity which he even exercised in the title of one of his books, 'À travers Chants' (Champs), and which did not tend to facilitate the translator's work. Mr. Apthorp, however, has made an excellent translation. Perhaps it may be called the best translation into English of any foreign musical work we have. Musical people should make haste to buy up the whole edition, so as to induce Mr. Apthorp to publish another volume, for which there is more than enough material left. We have nothing to say against the present selection except that we should have preferred the analysis of Beethoven's symphonies to some of the "Musical Grotesques," good as most of these are. In the "Evenings in the Orchestra" the reader will find some good illustrations of Berlioz's sarcasm. Of his wit and delicate irony a specimen or two may find place here. "Well-written music" is defined as "that which does not spoil anything in an opera"; which reminds one of the celebrated definition of salt as that which spoils the soup if it isn't put in. The manager of the Grand Opera at Drury Lane, in 1848, being at a loss one day what to do next, came to the conductor of the orchestra and said: "Only one thing is to be done, that is to give 'Robert le Diable' next Wednesday. So we must get it up in six days." "All right," answered the conductor, "and we will rest on the seventh." Very amusing also is the account on page 212 of the honest German railway official who took Berlioz for an impostor, because he could not believe that the little, frozen man who condescended to have his own trunk weighed could be Berlioz the composer.

One of the greatest charms of Berlioz's literary work consists in his steady avoidance of descriptive writing. Even in poetry and romance, which usually deal with the world of sight so familiar to us all since childhood, the effect of descriptive writing is, at its best, vague and unsatisfactory. How much more, then, must it be the case in musical criticism, dealing, as it does, with the world of tone, which most people visit only at rare intervals? Berlioz only makes an exception in regard to instrumentation—his specialty. But instruments may, in a certain sense, be regarded as individuals and groups of individuals, and it is, therefore, interesting to read about them, especially from a comparative point of view. In the ten letters which give an account of Berlioz's first journey to Germany, in 184 –1842, and which constitute the most attractive portion of the volume now before us, many curious details are given in regard to the orchestras of the various German cities at that time. In the largest of them Berlioz found a difficulty in bringing together the requisite number of performers, people being moreover indignant that he should ask for more men than sufficed for the works of Mozart and Beethoven, and should even insist on having instruments hardly known in the orchestras of the day. Wagner in Dresden, Mendelssohn in Leipzig, and Meyerbeer in Berlin aided him in his efforts to the best of their ability. What gave him especial trouble was the scarcity of harps. A harpist had often to be sent for from another city at considerable expense and loss of time. It is curious that the harp, though one of the oldest instruments—according to musical legend *the* oldest—should have been one of the last to be added to the orchestra habitually. It remained for Berlioz, Wagner, Liszt, and Rubinstein to show what can be done with this instrument, as well as with brass, in producing rich orchestral tints.

The account of Berlioz's experiences with various German orchestras gives a good idea of the progress these organizations have made since then, thanks especially to the demands made on them by Wagner and his school. It shows, too, that forty years ago certain bad habits were indulged in by instrumentalists which nowadays would be severely punished. A flute-player, if a melody seemed too simple for him, would adorn it with trills and mordants, after the fashion of Italian prime donne. Berlioz seems to have suffered much from this nuisance, to which he repeatedly alludes. One oboe-player, who had a mania for this sort of thing, on being reprimanded for it, abstained at the next rehearsal. But when the concert took place he "began his little scurvy tricks again, giving me a bantering look which all but upset me with indignation and fury" (p. 147). The case of the prima donna, in London, who insisted on singing Madame Sontag's version of the trio of maskers in "Don Juan" instead of Mozart's, "because hers is better," comes under the same head. These things, fortunately, belong to the good old times.

"Alóha!" A Hawaiian Salutation. By George Leonard Chaney. (Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1880. 16mo, pp. x.–299.)—Mr. Chaney, a well-known Boston clergyman, spent the first four months of 1876 in a tour to the Hawaiian Islands, visiting Oahu, Maui, and Hawaii, and seeing as much of the group as any recent traveller has seen except that energetic English tourist, Miss Isabella Bird. He had the usual experience of visitors to these islands, a vivid enjoyment of the two things which, for the heroine in 'Lothair,' made life worth living, namely, "climate and the affections." The Hawaiian climate and scenery are unsurpassed. The joyousness of the aboriginal people, and the hospitality of both aborigines and foreign settlers, are things scarcely conceivable by the American who has not seen the islands. It is the most experienced travellers who find the amiability of the natives and the charm of the foreign society to be exceptional. Rightly or wrongly, Mr. Chaney repeats old testimony when he says: "Honolulu is socially the Paris of the Pacific, the most cosmopolitan city, perhaps, in the Western hemisphere. . . . I question if anywhere in the whole world general society is more attractive than in Honolulu. Nowhere else do so many nationalities blend in harmonious social intercourse." Mr. Chaney enjoyed this society without analyzing it. He might have pointed out that a main secret of its charm is to be found in its isolation. In Honolulu the Anglo-Saxon, the Frenchman, the Chinaman, the German are divided by thousands of miles from their natural battle-fields in politics, art, and religion. The island capital is neutral ground; for a social centre it has its little court; add that as to site and climate it is an earthly paradise, and it would be a hard case if its people could not agree, as they mostly do, to base their society upon their common sympathies, and to let the secular quarrels alone. It is a charming society, and yet there is in it a fault which Mr. Chaney has not recorded, and perhaps did not perceive—an ailment which is chronic, and which is aggravated by this very remoteness, otherwise socially lenitive, from the older worlds: it is the prevalence of personal gossip. The subtilty and energy which in other capitals, large or small, are given to public affairs are in Honolulu devoted to an active, penetrating, and tireless interest in one's neighbor's affairs. It is a simple case of the conversion of forces.

But Mr. Chaney spent great part of his time in the saddle and elsewhere than in Honolulu. The island of Oahu, with its beautiful windward ravines; Maui, with its yet wilder scenery, the "mystery and majesty" of the great gorge of Iao, its broad fields of sugar-cane and its rare *filices* (Mr. Chaney and his family, who accompanied him, fell into the latest island fashion during their stay, and became ardent fern-collectors); and, chiefly, the great mountains and solemn desert uplands of Hawaii, with its greatest of living volcanoes—these were what fully satisfied our traveller's heart after the somewhat unsubstantial nature-worship that he learned in the vicinity of Concord. He describes with enthusiasm the beauty of Hilo Bay, his point of view being the fronting islet, fringed with cocoanut-trees, which forms a part of its barrier from the waves of the Pacific. Mr. Chaney had previously seen many of the famous landscape views of Europe, but he says:

"If there is anywhere else in the world a view in which grandeur and sweetness so conspire to elevate and console the spectator as the view from this island, I have not found it: Byron's Bay in front, its face all smiles—not laughing, far removed from that immeasurable laughter of the ocean which Homer celebrates, and in which there seems something almost sardonic—then the keen edge of the beach flashing over the blossoming waves like a sickle that for ever cuts a field for ever blooming;

. . . the fields of sugar-cane, the uplands covered with rich Hilo grass ; then the belt of forest trees ; and above all, yet in and through all, for we feel its presence even when its form is shut out by clouds, stands Mauna-Kea, the perfect mountain. It has the greatness of angels, above us, yet with us."

Mr. Chaney has the gift of poetic expression, as will be clear from the above quotation, though his book is not free from faults of taste. It deserves to be widely read in this country of unrest ; it is a vivid, enthusiastic, and, from the tourist's point of view, not over-flattered picture of a contemporaneous lotos-land and one of the most charming countries in the world.

Reminiscences of Levi Coffin, the Reputed President of the Underground Railroad. Second edition, with appendix. (Cincinnati : Robert Clarke & Co. 1880. 12mo, pp. 732.)—This work merits and will find a place beside May's 'Recollections of the Anti-Slavery Conflict,' Johnson's 'Sketches of the Anti-Slavery Movement,' the lives of Arthur Tappan and Gerrit Smith ; but especially it connects itself with the earlier 'Life of Benjamin Lundy,' 'Journal of Charles Osborn,' and 'Life of Isaac T. Hopper' with reference to the part taken in the anti-slavery struggle by the co-sectaries of John Woolman during the present century. The caution, however, with which autobiographies should usually be received by the general reader cannot be dispensed with here. The late Levi Coffin began, as he says, to edit his diaries in his 78th year (August, 1876) ; to the larger part of his stories no dates are affixed ; as an Orthodox Friend he instinctively and habitually neglects mention of non-sectarian anti-slavery organizations ; and he is careful to do himself no injustice. The phrase on the title-page—"Reputed President of the Underground Railroad"—is out of place there, though properly introduced in the body of the work, because it seems to be accepted by the author as his just distinction, while at the same time no notice is taken of the Underground Railroad operations east of the Alleghanies, or any comparison attempted between them and those in the valley of the Ohio with which Mr. Coffin was strictly associated. Notoriously the most exciting and important escapes, rescues, and trials occurred in the seaboard States. For the necessary correction of the perspective, one must turn to Still's 'History of the Underground Railroad.' The author's tendency to represent himself as foremost in good works is shown again on p. 651, where he implies that the idea of enlisting English sympathy and aid on behalf of the freedmen was original with him, though on a subsequent page (661) he admits that he had been anticipated, and of course the old anti-slavery connection formed with the Abolitionists had never been interrupted.

Levi Coffin, of the Nantucket family bearing that name, was born at the close of the last century in North Carolina, and the interest of his narrative begins with his boyish experiences of slavery in his own neighborhood and assistance rendered to fugitives, his membership in a manumission society formed (after Osborn's Tennessee example) at New Garden, Guilford County, about the year 1822, and his final removal, in 1826, to Newport, Wayne County, Indiana, whither numerous relatives had preceded him, and about which were gathered many families of free colored people, mostly from North Carolina, the descendants of slaves liberated by Friends years before and sent to the free North at the expense of the N. C. Yearly Meeting—an historical fact which Mr. Voorhees should not overlook in tracing to its origin the present exchange of population between the two States. These circumstances made Newport a natural "way-station" on the Underground Railroad, and here, as after 1847 at Cincinnati, Mr. Coffin lent a generous helping hand to the fleeing victims of slavery, whose total number on this one line he computes at 3,300. A few of the more remarkable cases he describes more or less at length, and it is enough to say of them that they include the Eliza Harris of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' and Margaret Garner ; they lack, therefore, neither romantic nor tragic incidents, and have a strange fascination as well for those who have outlived their occurrence as for those born since Sumter was fired on. Nevertheless, they form but a small portion of those recorded during the anti-slavery conflict, and more value attaches to the revelations of Southern white connivance with runaways, partly for the small gain obtainable from the slaves, and partly from a real detestation of the peculiar institution. The career of John Fairfield, who ought to have been one of John Brown's men, is the most striking in this field that we have ever met with. On the other hand the account of two Northern men, Richard Dillingham and Calvin Fairbanks, who ventured South for the purpose of running slaves off, has a peculiar pathos.

The effect of the Fugitive Slave Law in unsettling families of escaped slaves prospering and even long-established on free soil, causing a fresh hegira to Canada, and exposing the free blacks to unlimited kidnapping in legal form, is also to be discerned in these 'Reminiscences.' How remote those times are will appear from the following extract, relating to a Cincinnati journalist convicted of harboring fugitives in that city :

"A number of people visited Connelly every day during his imprisonment. Ladies carried him strawberries, pastry, and other dainties ; the teachers of the public schools formed a procession and visited him, and the ministers of the different churches called to see him. The Methodist Conference was in session in this city when he was imprisoned, and the members of it visited him in a body. The next week the Unitarian Conference met here, and the members composing it formed a procession, headed by Horace Mann, and went to the prison to see Connelly. . . . Connelly's term of imprisonment expired at noon, but as the Turners and other societies wished to form a torchlight procession and escort him from jail, the jailer allowed him to remain till night."

Memoir of Henry Armitt Brown. Together with Four Historical Orations. Edited by J. M. Hoppin, Professor in Yale College. (Philadelphia : J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1880.)—This memoir of a young man who had, before his early death, made no small reputation for himself, is written with an affectionate interest which of itself witnesses the personal charm and attractiveness of its subject. Even the public, for whom it was prepared and whose attention can be asked for it mainly on impersonal grounds, of course, is rarely inappreciative of the sources of a memoir's heightened tone, we take it; and we need only mention the fact that this one is written with the slight over-intensity of a relative naturally distrustful of his power to get the just claims of his subject recognized by strangers, to enable the reader to perceive that the discounting, so to speak, which he is called upon to do is very unimportant. Mr. Brown undoubtedly did possess "elements of greatness worthy of the best days of the republic," and it is probably true that "a power went forth from his short life which will not soon cease to be felt." Whether if he had lived there would ever have been anything more than this high praise to be said of him it is impossible to determine. The spirit of Professor Hoppin's work is such as irresistibly to recall the words of a very famous biography : "His character was not supremely original ; neither was his fate in the world wonderful. What he did was inconsiderable enough; and as to what it lay in him to have done, this was but a problem, now beyond possibility of settlement." And if he does not himself suggest qualifications in what we may call his elaborate eulogiums, it is to be said that they readily suggest themselves. Mr. Brown was, at all events, a fine character, of excellent promise and far more than merely creditable performance. He was a thorough American, and, in his biographer's words, "he represented, as far as in him lay, the best modern political spirit." As a boy he was precocious enough, but in a perfectly wholesome way, and to no extraordinary degree. He went to Yale and in every respect distinguished himself, especially in the literary and oratorical arts, to which Yale College, at that time, at least, gave so much deserved attention. He was as much of a scholar, properly so-called, as a "wooden-spoon man" could have been, perhaps ; but it was in a certain happy adaptedness to occasions demanding grace, eloquence, humor, and the ease which comes of breeding plus a wholesome and confident temperament that he was at his best. After graduation he was in no haste to begin his "life's work"—probably was in no way forced to do so by circumstances. He went abroad, and a mild form of *cacoethes scribendi*, perhaps, is alone responsible for the entertaining letters he wrote thence to a Philadelphia journal. When he returned he studied law, and soon gained a real distinction at the bar. To our mind the best, or, at any rate, one of the very best things which Professor Hoppin reproduces from him, is a post-prandial speech made in response to a toast to "The Juniors of the Bar." The municipal reform movement in Philadelphia engaged his earnest and active sympathy, and he made many speeches against "the machine," whose rule was, at that time certainly, very irksome to every Philadelphian but the professed politicians. His oratory was the more effective because (which is something political orators with us seem unable to learn) it was of the sort technically called "extenuated." He was especially happy in repartee, we are told, though the only instance mentioned by Professor Hoppin, by the way, would be strenuously claimed as personal property by the late Henry Clapp, we fancy : "He said of a political and notably self-opinionated opponent, who on one occasion was accused by a speaker of his own party of being an 'infidel': 'An infidel—not so ; he is a self-made man, and he worships his creator.'" It was long before 1872, if we remember aright, that Clapp applied this remark to the late Mr.

Greeley. What is called "The Centennial Epoch" began soon after, and it seems to have determined the direction of Mr. Brown's main effort in life. His speeches at Philadelphia, Boston, and elsewhere before and during the centennial year are still familiar to most people, we may hope. And it is very likely due to the local pride which he cherished, and the prominence of his native city in the thoughts of himself and others at that time, that he devoted himself to the early history of the republic and produced the four historical orations which Mr. Hoppin appends to his Memoirs. Subsequently, he was a warm supporter of Mr. Bristow for the Presidency. He died August 21, 1878, at the age of thirty-three years, after having won and deserved a success which was not only popular, though it was certainly that also, but was aided by the applause and recognition of thinking men wherever he was known. The details of his life, as we have intimated, are told with a loving fidelity by Mr. Hoppin, and the most casual reader's feeling about them must be that they were eminently worth telling.

Conversion of the West: The Slavs. By the Rev. G. F. Maclear, D.D., Head-master of King's College School, author of the 'Missions of the Middle Ages,' etc. With map. (London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge; New York: Pott, Young & Co. 1879.)—This is a little book of very neat appearance, the last of a series of volumes on the conversion of Europe. It is rather pleasantly written, and its contents will probably be found by most readers more interesting than those of the preceding volumes, owing to the general lack of information on early Slavic history. The Englishman's and American's ignorance of the present condition of Slavic Europe is being gradually dissipated by the lurid light which the wars and convulsions of Russia and similar commotions elsewhere from time to time flash upon them, and Bulgarian, Serb, and even Bosniak and Herzegovinian have become universally familiar names; but the origins even of such Slavic countries as Russia, Poland, and Bohemia are known to few, and the popularizing of all knowledge in this field must meet with acknowledgment. The book before us narrates the conversion of Bulgaria, Moravia, Bohemia, Servia (in an undefined wider sense), Russia, Poland, Pomerania, and the Wends, and—going beyond its natural sphere—also of the non-Slavic Hungarians, Livonians (unnecessarily called "Lieflanders"), Prussians, Lithuanians, and Laplanders. The accounts, though plain, are frequently intermixed with quotations from florid and unctuous writers on early Christianity, and there is too much positiveness in the way they are presented, no critical appreciation of the original sources being attempted. Some, though not credited to old chroniclers, breathe all the naïveté and credulity of a mediæval cloister. The story, for instance, of the conversion of Vladimir of Russia is related with minute details of the utmost incredibility, without the least attempt at sifting them. And it is generally only the very conversion of each people which interests the author; the moral conditions of the people before and after that momentous change are, in almost every instance, left unexamined. In this way we obtain much more "Christian knowledge" than historical. The author's modern historical authorities, however, are both ample and good, and, as far as he is inclined to use them, he uses them with sufficient accuracy. The principal inaccuracies which we have noticed are geographical, and all copied from Krasinski's (English) 'Sketch of the Religious History of the Slavic Nations': "Wolkhow" (for Volkhov), p. 15; "Illyria and Carinthia" (the latter is a part of the former), p. 16; and "the Hungarian Drina" (for the Servian Drina), p. 66. To the diligent study of the same authority is to be ascribed also the frequent use of the words *Slavonian* and *Slavonic*, as equivalents not of the German specific *Slawonier* (inhabitant of Slavonia) and *Slawonisch*, but of the generic *Slawe* and *Slawisch* (Slav and Slavic)—a use which is surely improper in a book bearing in its title the word *Slavs*.

The Dartmouth College Causes and the Supreme Court of the United States. By John M. Shirley. (St. Louis: G. I. Jones & Co. 1879.)—Mr. Shirley says that his aim in writing this book has been "to put the reader in the place of the great actors in these controversies." He lacks, however, the gift of clear statement, and though his compilation is a monument of industry, the result is little more than a collection of facts, valuable, no doubt, to students of the history of the Dartmouth College case and of American constitutional law, but not as an original contribution to the literature of the subject. As far as we understand the drift of the book, it is a labored attempt to show that the decision of the Supreme Court was not right, or, at any rate, that it was not based on correct grounds. Unfortunately for the argument, the conclusions of the court are not likely to be disturbed or shaken at this distance of time by the most elaborate examination of the facts on which they rest. The great principle that a charter is a contract, and is therefore under the protection of the constitutional prohibition of laws impairing the obligation of contracts, is so firmly imbedded in American jurisprudence that nothing short of a social convulsion is likely to change it. Even a storm of popular hostility to corporations like that which made itself felt in the Granger laws of some of the Western States, leaves very little lasting effect behind it. Whatever objection there may be to the permanent inviolability of corporate charters is generally now obviated by a reservation of the right to alter and amend, and the Granger agitation showed that this right may itself be abused as much as corporate powers may be.

The fact is that, legal considerations apart, the principle expressed in the Constitution is simply one of general justice, like that prohibiting the taking of private property for public use without compensation. That contracts are sacred and confiscation is odious, would be admitted as axioms in any system of civilized law. The peculiarity given to these principles under our system is that they are not simply moral principles, but restrictions of positive law imposed upon a particular public body—the legislature. In some respects this is an advantageous peculiarity for us. In others it is disadvantageous. On the one hand, it leaves nothing to conjecture and caprice; on the other, it ties up the hands of judges by strict rules which often do injustice in particular cases. The history of the prohibition against "taking" private property for public use without compensation shows that the judges in this country have felt constrained generally to restrict its application to cases where property has been actually *taken*, thus leaving cases where it is subjected to injury, but nothing is actually *taken*, unprovided for, while in England compensation is always given, though there is no written constitutional requirement on the subject.

Calderon. By E. J. Hasell. Foreign Classics for English Readers, edited by Mrs. Oliphant. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879.)—Mr. Hasell has given in the interesting volume before us a better account of the great Spanish dramatic poet than is elsewhere accessible to the general reader. The admirable monograph by Archbishop Trench, republished in this country more than twenty years ago, is, we believe, out of print, and moreover contained extended analyses of but one play and an *auto*. Mr. Hasell, on the contrary, after a somewhat slight introduction and brief sketch of Calderon's little-known life, gives analyses more or less extended of nearly all the best plays. These analyses are enlivened by quotations from the metrical translations of Shelley, Trench, and MacCarthy, the remarkable versions of the last-named translator being already known to the readers of the *Nation*. Mr. Hasell also employs at times neat and close renderings of his own. His estimate of Calderon's genius is, it seems to us, very fair, and he has acquitted himself well of a difficult task, for such it is to give a reader ignorant of the language an adequate idea of a Spanish dramatist. The interest of a Spanish play is chiefly one of plot and not of character, but besides this there is another interest very hard to represent, that of the purely poetic side. No English translation can ever reproduce pleasantly even the staple metre of the Spanish drama, much less convey a correct idea of the vivid imagery and oriental luxuriance of a Calderon.

A defect in the work before us, and one common to the whole series, is the total lack of all bibliographical details. Although the series is intended for the general reader, some reference to the standard works on the subject, or, at least, the full name and date of the books cited, are very desirable, and in some instances might convert a general reader into a student.

**** Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices*	
Brassey (Mrs. T.), Sunshine and Storm in the East	(Henry Holt & Co.)	$3 50
Champlin (J. D., jr.), Child's Catechism of Common Things	" "	60
Cox (G. W.) and Jones (Eustace H.), Popular Romances of the Middle Ages	(Henry Holt & Co.)	2 25
Daudet (A.), Kings in Exile	(Lee & Shepard)	1 00
Family Expense Book	(Robert Clarke & Co.)	50
Hill (Miss L. A.), Rhine Roamings	(Lee & Shepard)	1 50
James (Henry, jr.), A Bundle of Letters, swd	(Loring)	
Marshall (G. W.), Genealogist's Guide to Printed Pedigrees	(Geo. Bell & Sons)	
O'Neill (T. W.), Refutation of Darwinism	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Pressensé (Rev. E. de), Contemporary Portraits	(A. D. F. Randolph & Co.)	2 00

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 12, 1880.

The Week.

THE Pennsylvania Republican Convention ended, after tremendous "work" on both sides, in a vote instructing the delegation to the Chicago Convention to vote as a unit, and for Grant, by a majority of 133 to 113. There appears to have been bitter opposition on the part of the minority, who were all, or nearly all, set down as friends of Blaine; but it was nevertheless put through unshrinkingly. The general interpretation put on the result by a large part of the Republican press is that the smallness of the majority deprives the victory of all value for General Grant, if it does not convert it into a defeat, as the peculiar nature of his "boom" makes it necessary that his nomination should be made without opposition, and that in order to save his dignity he must now withdraw at once. There is another view, however, which has a good deal of plausibility, which is, that General Grant is not so sensitive and dignified after all, or his friends either; that the victory at Harrisburg *was* a victory and will be accepted as such by the very large body of Stalwarts who wish to be on the winning side, and that its effect will be strengthened by a similar result in the New York Convention which is to meet shortly; and that Blaine and Sherman will before long be so well satisfied that the game has gone against them that they will be found competing not for the nomination but for good terms with General Grant. On either view, however, there is no denying the power and audacity of the Pennsylvania Machine, as worked by Mr. Cameron.

Evidence continues to be published in various quarters that Mr. Sherman is busily working the official Machine, especially at the South, to increase his strength in the Convention. The New York *Times*, with which he seems to have taken the place once held by Tilden as a ubiquitous intriguer and evil-doer, is especially active in producing proofs of his wickedness in this field. A curious trace of it is mentioned in our Washington letter to-day. His denials, it ought to be said, are somewhat faint, and will hardly produce much impression owing to the feeble support they receive from his antecedents. He has never shown any dislike of intrigue, and his performance with Silas B. Dutcher during the late canvass in this State proved that he has little scruple in using the civil service for any end he thinks desirable. His activity in his own behalf is very curious, considering the horror excited in the Republican party in 1876 by Tilden's "seeking the Presidency." The worst incident in Mr. Sherman's career is his officiating as a Visiting Statesman and whitewashing the Louisiana Returning Board; but it is to be said for him, on the other hand, that he is the only candidate now in the field who is identified with any measure of legislation or leading line of public policy. He has one very solid result, in part at least of his labors, to show in the present condition of the finances.

Apropos of this, it is a remarkable fact, and we believe an unprecedented fact, both in American history and in that of other constitutional countries, that the two most powerful men in our politics at this moment, Messrs. Cameron and Conkling, are men whose opinions on all the leading questions of the day are absolutely unknown to the public, and, worse than this, that the public does not care to know them. We are aware that they both dislike and distrust the leaders in the late rebellion, but what they think about finance or taxation or railroads or our foreign relations, or any other matter on which a legislative policy is desirable, nobody has any distinct idea; and there is no evidence that they occupy themselves with these things in any degree whatever.

The mania for "fixing things" seems not unnaturally to have taken hold the other day of Smyth, Mr. Conkling's lieutenant at Albany. In order to make a sure thing of sending up Grant delegates to the State Convention, he issued his calls in the evening for primary meetings the next day at twelve, so that none but the forewarned faithful could get there in time—an old New York trick over which that disillusioned reformer, Mr. George Bliss, lately wept in General Arthur's bosom. The tickets furnished them at the meeting were of pretty pink color, and had "Grant" at the top. The Independents, as well as honest men generally, were naturally a good deal disgusted by this mode of putting "a strong man at the helm," and called an indignation meeting at which the faithful Smyth and his ways were to be denounced, and arrangements made to hold other primary meetings and send a contesting delegation to Syracuse. The third-term delegates elected at the Smyth primaries—one of them the editor of the Stalwart Albany *Evening Journal*—having waited a week in silence, probably to see how the trick would work, on Monday were frightened into resigning in a published card, and fresh primaries are to be held. Smyth, it is thought, will not now be renominated for the Insurance Department; but it will be not for having attempted a fraud, but for having failed to carry it out. The incident is curious as showing how rapidly the Boss system is spreading over the country. For long years it was confined to New York, and Boss rule and management were spoken of as peculiarities of the poor Irish, but now every State is getting to have its head Boss who distributes the offices, and "fixes" the conventions, with sub-bosses in the districts and counties to carry out his orders and "fix" the primaries.

Commissioner Hayt's removal has been approved by the Board of Indian Commissioners, on the principal ground which we mentioned last week, namely, of having pigeon-holed charges against a corrupt Indian agent, and of having connived at the sale by this agent of a mine to or through Edward Knapp Hayt, his son, passing as his nephew under the name of Knapp. The Board stated that they found no trace of any other official in the Indian Bureau being concerned in the transaction except the inspector Hammond, who filed the first affidavits of malfeasance against Agent Hart, and afterwards became his accomplice. Strange to say, Hayt's appearance at the examination "with counsel" seemed to make an unfavorable impression on the Board. The Commissioner's fall, we are told by the Washington correspondents, has greatly elated "the old crowd," consisting of Belknap, Babcock, Shepherd, and the rest, who say that the reformers now know how it is themselves. Naturally, too, we find papers like the Boston *Journal*, which could not for the life of them see any parallel between Maine and Louisiana, unable to see how Belknap abused Grant's confidence otherwise than Hayt abused Mr. Schurz's. We must remind the *Journal* that the contrast should be sought not in the unfaithful officers but in the victims of misplaced confidence in the two cases. Mr. Schurz did not, when disabused, permit the culprit to resign, but turned him out incontinently, nor did he present him with an autograph letter of regret at parting with him. Moreover, he dismissed him "when under fire"—that is, while the Board's enquiry was still in progress—an act which every boomster must regard with loathing.

Boston sympathy for the Poncas has, or had a month ago, sufficed to raise six or seven thousand dollars towards the sum deemed necessary to test in the Supreme Court the right of the tribe to be reinstated in their old Dakota home. At this juncture a benevolent lady offered to raise instantly, or herself give, the remainder if Secretary Schurz could be induced to lend his support to the movement. Mrs. Helen Jackson, the poetess, undertook this mission; and the four letters which make up the correspondence have just been published with the Secretary's permission. Mr. Schurz states

that the appeal from the habeas-corpus decision of Judge Dundy, entered by the United States District Attorney, at Omaha, was dropped on his (the Secretary's) representing to the Attorney-General that he did not approve the principles on which the argument was based, so that no money is needed to resist this appeal. Nor can any be usefully employed in testing the right to the original reservation, since "the Supreme Court has repeatedly decided that an Indian tribe cannot sue the United States or a State in the Federal courts." To this Mrs. Jackson rather naïvely objects, that "lawyers of skill and standing" are "found ready to undertake the case"; and the Secretary can only reply, "Of course there are such. You can find lawyers of skill and standing to undertake, for a good fee, any case, however hopeless; that is their business." He strongly recommends that the money be applied "to the support and enlargement of our Indian schools, such as those at Hampton and Carlisle." Mrs. Jackson expresses her surprise at the suggestion, seeing that the money was given for a different and specific object. Mr. Schurz, therefore, has to explain that he did not mean that the subscribers to the fund should not first be consulted. He assures her that the greatest hope of the Indians lies in the success of his policy of getting them established in severalty on land in fee-simple, and that he has good grounds for expecting the passage of a bill to this effect at the present session, several having been introduced. Being very desirous that the present revival of interest in the Indian question should be maintained and directed to attainable objects, he cannot favor a course which is certain, by ending in failure, to dishearten the philanthropic.

Mr. Voorhees's committee has had two colored men on the stand testifying to the North Carolina emigration, one being the agent Perry, who has probably done more than all other causes combined to disturb the blacks. Among the reasons enumerated by him for a desire to leave the State was the fact that Northern men who had settled there had been driven out by bad treatment; but he had better ones, in which prejudice against the negro and unjust laws played the chief part and political violence the least. He explained the selection of Indiana as accidental; indeed, his first advice was to the effect that "if he owned a lot in Indiana and one in h—l, he would sell the Indiana lot and reside in h—l." He did not state how he came to change his mind. He was "now on the retired list of politics." The other witness blamed Perry for his mercenary speech-making and distribution of circulars, and took a rosy view of things generally in North Carolina. In Morgan Co., Georgia, two emigration agents have just been arrested and fined $150 each for "enticing" negroes to migrate—to Mississippi, under an obviously unconstitutional law passed last summer, and which Mississippi is now preparing to imitate. What does the Planters' Association say to this folly? From Kansas the reports of hardships among the refugees continue to be very distressing.

The House has passed a joint resolution appropriating $20,000 for a proper representation of the United States at the Berlin Fishery Exhibition in April next; and has done little else worth mentioning. Mr. Conger trifled with its time by objecting with Stalwart frothiness to some circumlocution about the rebellion in a petition for the removal of political disabilities, but failed to produce a row. In the Senate, personal jealousies have prevented an agreement as to the proposed committee on the Panama Canal. On Tuesday, Senator Davis spoke at considerable length and well on the Thurman Geneva Award Bill, the keynote of his position being the truism that "the money should be appropriated to the purposes for which it was awarded, or, if wrongfully recovered, should be returned." This seems a plain proposition in morals, but large numbers of moralists, and at least one theologian, have failed to grasp it.

During the week the public credit, as expressed in U. S. 4 per cents, advanced to the highest point yet attained, these bonds having sold at 106 to 106½. Several large railroad capitalists have been taking them by the million, and the market responded in an unusual manner to their purchases because concurrently news came from Washington that the Committee of Ways and Means will authorize the issue of no new bonds for refunding which bear a higher rate of interest than 3½ or 3.65 per cent. per annum. The bonds which mature this year and next advanced because the Treasury advertises for $11,000,000 of them to be placed in the Sinking Fund; the money which the Treasury has to pay for these bonds represents the surplus revenues of the Treasury this calendar year. If the imports of foreign goods and articles continue as large as is now expected, it will cause no surprise if the Treasury has a surplus during the present fiscal year of at least $40,000,000 to invest in this way. The week at the Stock Exchange was a quiet and, comparatively speaking, uneventful one, but prices have been well sustained. The market for foreign exchange was strong, and the rates for sterling bills advanced 1½ to 2 cents. The price of silver bullion in London was steady at 52½*d.* to 52⅝*d.* per ounce. At the close of the week the bullion value here of the "buzzard dollar" was $0.8778.

The South Carolina Legislature assembles this week in extra session to consider the Supply Bill, but will probably have brought before it the important matter of the registration of voters. The Charleston *News and Courier* is advocating with great insistence and no small ingenuity a measure which will certainly disfranchise a large portion of the negroes, and indeed the *News and Courier* avows that this will not only be the result, but that it is the intention, of the proposed legislation. The act provides, in brief, for the disqualification of all voters who cannot register their own names, unless they have been voters for twenty-five years. Of course it would be idle to deny that this is aimed at the blacks, and it is not denied. The reasons assigned are that since the war and up to 1874 South Carolina suffered cruelly from the rule of an ignorant and rapacious black majority; that by "a gigantic effort" this rule was replaced by that of the intelligent white minority to the undisputed advantage of the State (at least of the taxpayers); that nevertheless it is not only disagreeable to undergo the "nervous strain" of repeating "gigantic efforts" at every election, but "the moral sense of the Southern people revolts against" them; and that an educational qualification enforced under the sanctions of law would answer just as well practically and would hurt the party at the North very much less. The only difficulty seems to be a doubt as to the constitutionality of such an act; it could, of course, be made as an amendment to the constitution, but in that case it would have to be popularly approved, and that would take time. The chances are that it will be passed by itself, and also tacked on to the constitution to be submitted to the people as an amendment at the same time that it is in operation as a statute, in which case it is difficult to see how it is to be defeated.

The Democrats of Georgia are having a heated controversy over the appointment of one Simmons as a census supervisor, which, if it does not display marked progress in personal amenities, serves to show in how much more flourishing condition the Georgia "independent movement" is than that of Mississippi, say—or, if you please, how much less "solid" the South is in the former than in the latter State. The appointment of Simmons is now before the Senate Census Committee, and is warmly supported by Senator Hill and Representatives Stephens and Felton, and opposed with equal warmth by Senator Gordon and Representative Hammond, backed by many prominent Georgia Democrats of the regular wing. Simmons is said to have based his application on the ground that his appointment would be a victory over "the corrupt secession traitors," and this remark and his acknowledged illiteracy Senator Gordon and his friends look upon as unfitting him for the position. Senator Hill and Mr. Stephens, on the other hand, argue that, though illiterate, he knows enough for the duties he will be called on to discharge, and are greatly alarmed about the effect on "the party" at the North if Simmons should be rejected for stigmatizing

Southerners. This strikes us as an admirable instance of Saul among the prophets, considering the caution for the welfare of the party at the North that Mr. Hill has all along exhibited. But it is alleged that Messrs. Hill, Stephens, and Felton are only endeavoring to "conciliate" the Republicans in order to get their help in beating the regular faction at the next State election; and at any rate all the Georgia politicians are quite as much excited over the quarrel as its merits seem to deserve. Both Mr. Hill and Mr. Stephens are such irrepressible Independents by nature, however, that it seems a pity that they cannot be transplanted to some other Southern State, of which there are several now suffering badly from too much "harmony."

Mr. Parnell's enemies and critics continue to follow him up with remorseless pertinacity, and every week get the better of him in "conflicts of veracity." In a late speech at Newark, N. J., he declared that in the Irish famine of 1847 the money raised for the relief of distress "was used for proselytizing purposes, and Catholics who would not turn Protestants were allowed to die." Now comes Mr. Jonathan Pim, a member of the Society of Friends, and one of the oldest, most respected citizens of Dublin, who writes to the *Herald*, giving the assertion "the most unqualified contradiction," as the surviving member of the relief committee of the Society of Friends, through whose hands $750,000 of the money which came from America passed. He contradicts Mr. Parnell with equal confidence as regards the Central Relief Committee of Dublin, by whom $400,000 were dispensed, and also as regards the British Association, who dispensed $2,350,000. Mr. Parnell also denied that his Balla Relief Committee had refused relief to tenants who had paid their rent, but the *Herald* correspondent enquired into the matter on the spot and discovered that the order of the President of the Association that no such persons should receive relief *was* confirmed by a majority vote of the committee, and the relief refused. Even if these savage philanthropists were trustworthy on other grounds, this performance alone should prevent their receiving contributions from Christian people. Messrs. Drexel & Morgan, the bankers, who had agreed to receive and transmit the contributions for the Parnell fund, have peremptorily withdrawn from the duty, and on Mr. Parnell's publicly ascribing it to pressure exerted on them by their financial friends in England, they promptly floored him again in a published letter, in which they declare that their sole reason was Mr. Parnell's mixing ferocious politics with the charity. In his present plight the advice which reaches him from every quarter, that he should go home, can hardly fail to make some impression on him.

Mr. Elbridge Gerry and the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, which has been instrumental in bringing Cowley, the Manager of the "Children's Fold," to justice for cruelty to the children in his charge, ought to be reminded that the Chinese Government has announced that it will not permit the mutilation of Yakub Beg's children, and also that their father was not killed in battle, and when he died was not engaged in an insurrection, but in lawful war, and that nothing is known with certainty as to the manner of his death. Also that Cowley, however bad a man, was, in the eye of the law, innocent until tried and convicted, and that in requiring enormous and undoubtedly unnecessary bail of him, a severe penalty was inflicted on him before trial, and that the permission given to his fellow-prisoners in the Tombs to mock and jeer at him out of their cells was a great outrage. The Society might, we think, very well have interfered to protect Cowley against the undoubted wrong of punishment and insult before conviction. Public feeling was sufficiently excited against him, and the presumption of law that a man is innocent until he is found guilty by a jury, is intended for the benefit of the wicked as well as of the good. The condition of the children was undoubtedly bad, but the evidence of children, like that of grown people, needs sifting, and there was from the beginning a possibility that Cowley had been led into his offence, partly at least, by undertaking to support more children than he had money for, and not wholly by cruelty and greed. Charitable associations do a great work, but they need discretion as well as zeal, and the treatment of Cowley before trial has been a somewhat painful spectacle to the lovers of fair play.

It was very gross "journalism" on the part of the *Tribune* to give people to understand in a denunciatory article last week that Mr. Bowker, the Chairman of the Independent Republican Committee, had at one time had the receipt of ten dollars a week from that paper for "collecting publisher's announcements" as his sole earthly dependence. Mr. Bowker, we believe, at one time contributed a weekly column of "Literary Notes" for that sum, although, like every other column in the *Tribune*, it was worth $100 on a moderate valuation, and Mr. Bowker was, like scores of excellent men, a contributor simply, and relied on the honor of the editor not to make his private affairs a weapon of political attack. It was also "journalism" for the *Tribune* to give out that there were two sets of Independents or "Scratchers"—one a respectable and even glorious body of men led by Mr. George William Curtis, and the other a wretched little clique of nobodies led by Mr. Bowker. The fact is, there is only one body of Scratchers, but there are two divisions—a general committee and a local association. Mr. Bowker is chairman of the former, and Mr. Horace White president of the latter. Both are filled with lusty young fellows, well paid in their several callings, who will give our Venerable Contemporary much trouble during the coming canvass, and furnish him with plenty of literary notes gratis.

The Liverpool election, which was expected to throw some light on the respective prospects of the Tories and Liberals in England at the general election, has come off, but without furnishing either encouragement or discouragement to either side. The Tories have elected a Tory to succeed a Tory by about the old majority, in spite of the Liberal candidate's having made a certain amount of concession to the Home-Rulers, who muster 10,000 votes in a constituency of 50,000, by promising to support enquiry into their subject. If he had carried the day it would probably have led to the resignation of the Ministry without waiting for a dissolution, as Liverpool is and always has been a Tory stronghold. The London *Times* treats his failure as a sign that the Liberal diatribes against the Ministry have made no impression on the country, because Liverpool has now and then returned Liberal members. But this theory will hardly hold water, for we believe it to be true that Liverpool has never yet failed the Tories in exciting times, and has never returned a Liberal except in what is called here "an off-year." Although a great commercial constituency, it has always been for what Lord Derby calls "gunpowder and glory," and during our war was fanatically Confederate in its sympathies. Sir William Harcourt, who once a month or so mauls the Ministers unmercifully, has staked his reputation as a prophet on the assertion that the first day of the new Parliament will be the last of the Beaconsfield rule. But this is dangerous.

It looks a little as if the Ministers were much embarrassed as to the best mode of getting out of Afghanistan, and still refrain from saying what they are going to do, which keeps the country in a very unsettled condition. As long as the future is uncertain the safest thing for every Afghan chief is to fight the British, and Mohammed Jan seems to be preparing steadily to try his luck again. The Ministry, on their side, appear to be thinking of another bold stroke by releasing Persia from the obligation imposed on her in 1857, at the point of the bayonet, not to seize Herat. It was then feared she was acting under the influence of Russia; it is now believed that she can be held by British influence and made to seize Herat as a British catspaw. But, as the English Liberal papers are pointing out, if permission to seize includes a guarantee for its possession afterwards, the scheme may contain the seeds of endless trouble.

THE GRANT MOVEMENT THOUGHT OUT.

THE action of the Republican Convention in Pennsylvania, by which the delegates to the Chicago Convention were instructed by a majority of twenty to vote as a unit for General Grant's nomination, is generally acknowledged to be rather a victory for Mr. Cameron than for the ex-President. It has always been somewhat ostentatiously given out by General Grant's friends that he would only allow himself to be renominated in case the party desired it with unanimity, or all but unanimity; and that he would under no circumstances go into the ruck of Favorite Sons and First Choices and struggle for a nomination. If this were true, the refusal of almost half the Convention of the State in which he was supposed to be the strongest, to put him in the field, even under the most powerful pressure, would make it almost a necessity for him to withdraw his name absolutely from the competition. But it is possible, and some say probable, that he may not look at the matter in that light; that his friends, who are not generally thin-skinned men, may persuade him that the opposition in the Republican ranks shows that the danger to the country is even greater than it was supposed to be, that the contingency which was to force him to disregard personal feelings and tastes has clearly occurred, and that he must now go into the arena at any sacrifice of dignity or comfort. Indeed, considering the nature of the rôle which his chief supporters have marked out for him, there would be something mawkish in allowing his "boom" to be checked by the fact that a large minority of any State convention were unwilling to pledge themselves to him in advance. This rôle was described by Colonel Quay, one of Mr. Cameron's henchmen, before the Convention met, in terms with which we have been made very familiar during the last year: "If he knew he was elected by the people he would take the office in spite of Democratic counting-out schemes."

We doubt, however, whether many persons, even among General Grant's warmest supporters, have taken the trouble to picture to themselves in detail what this rôle is to be. They keep saying that they wish to elect him in order to maintain order at the South, but they refrain from describing the mode in which he is to do so without violating the law. They do not tell us how he is to punish crime in any State without the intervention of the courts or the aid of acts of Congress, without exposing himself to impeachment. When he was in office, however, he did so many arbitrary things at the South, and the relations of the South to the rest of the Union have long been so abnormal and disturbed, that it is easy to see how a good many well-meaning men, in whose minds the memories of the war are still fresh and whose notions about the conditions of constitutional government are vague, should not form to themselves any clear idea of what they mean when they propose to make him President again in order to protect life and property in that region. But this explanation will not cover the use to which it is proposed to put him when it is said that he must be nominated and voted for by the Republican party because he is the only candidate who has the nerve and ability to see that he is not counted out by the Democrats. We think it safe to assert that of the thousands who use this language probably not one dozen have thought out the idea it contains—that is, pictured to themselves in detail the way in which it would work in practice and the results it would have. The counting of the electoral vote after the Presidential election is now lodged by law and precedent in the two Houses of Congress, through a procedure framed by themselves. Next year Congress will perform this duty as usual. There is under the Constitution no appeal from its decision in any particular case. It may exclude votes which some may think ought not to have been excluded, and count votes which many think ought to have been excluded, but no mode is provided for altering the result thus reached. If Congress grossly and plainly abuses its power it exposes itself to punishment at the polls at the next election, but to no other punishment. The theory on which the American Government rests is that this punishment will be, on the whole, found sufficient, even where members of Congress are *en masse* grossly wanting in conscientious patriotism, but that at all events it must in all cases be tried thoroughly before any other measures are resorted to.

Now, what General Grant's supporters propose is, in fact, that in case he—one of the candidates—should not be satisfied with the decision of Congress, he should count the votes himself, admitting such as he thought entitled to admission, and rejecting all others, and that if the result thus reached satisfied him he was elected, he should take possession of the White House with an armed force, and should set the majority in both Houses of Congress at defiance, and begin the discharge of executive functions. There are probably not many of them who like to see the plan set down in this way in black and white beforehand, but there is no denying the correctness of this description of it. This is what is meant, and the only thing that can be meant, by choosing a military man for the Presidency because if elected (in his own opinion) "he will see that he gets the place." In plain English, it means *revolution* It means the introduction into the government of the practice of having each candidate pass on his own claims to the Presidency, and then fight in order to assert them. It means that we have reached a stage in our politics in which strategical skill and military courage are the best qualifications for our chief officer, as they were for the kings of the Huns, Visigoths, and Lombards.

Let us now carry the process one step further. Suppose General Grant were to declare that he was not satisfied with the Congressional count, that he had been elected, and then, with the aid of his armed followers, to install himself in the White House, and the majority in Congress were either sufficiently overawed by the force at his disposal or sufficiently appalled by the prospect of civil war, to submit and accept him as the President. The moral pressure on them to do so, especially from the moneyed interest of the country, would probably be very powerful. They would remain, however, in a very exasperated state of mind. Their constituents, comprising a numerical majority, or at least half, of the American people, would feel that they had been the victims of a monstrous outrage. They would resolve that the same trick should not be played on them again, and that their candidate at the next election should not be a timid, elderly civilian like Mr. Tilden, or Mr. Seymour, or Mr. Hendricks, but a military man also, who likewise would do his own counting, and that they would see that he had force enough at his disposal to make it good against all comers. The ensuing Presidential canvass would then become literally what it is now only metaphorically, a "campaign." It would consist, in the main, of the collection of arms and ammunition, and the organization and discipline of troops, and of State legislation in preparation for an armed encounter. These preparations, too, would be carried on amidst the crumbling of the public credit and the suspension or rapid decline of every branch of business, and the rapid transfer of timid capital to more settled regions. It is hardly necessary to say that in a game of this sort the man in possession would have many and great advantages. He would have on the army and the civil service the hold which actual authority always gives, and would have the open or secret support of that large class which always likes to be on what seems the winning side. To these and to the timid generally, it would become apparent long before his term had expired that it would be madness to nominate anybody else to succeed him, that the public peace and safety required that he should stay in power as the only defence against anarchy, and that, in fact, he should use all the means at his disposal to secure his re-election under the forms of law if possible, but if not under the forms of law, somehow. All "the best people" would insist on this—the ministers of the Methodist Church, * the most widely circulated newspapers, the great bankers and railroad men, and so on. Although it was deplorable, they would say, that the regular working of the Constitution should be interrupted and our country brought to shame before the world, the responsibility lay with the Democrats, who had for fifty years been an element of treason and disorder. In short, in one way or an-

* A Methodist bishop, recently deceased, compared Grant's Administration to the Transfiguration on the Mount in a prepared oration delivered last summer. Utterances almost as extravagant have emanated from other ministers of the same denomination.

other, without any mention of "empire" or "Cæsarism," it would come about that the election of 1880 was probably the last of the old régime, and that the Republic had provided itself with a Protector, who would see that the good men stayed in power.

The force of the foregoing description of the Grant programme would be much diminished if it were true that he was presented to the party as a successful soldier of whose qualities as a civil administrator nothing was as yet known, but of whom as a civil administrator much might fairly be expected; or if, having been tried as a civil administrator and found not altogether satisfactory, he had shown himself nevertheless a capable party manager, whose Administration, whatever its defects, enabled the party to retain its hold on the voters; or, lastly, if the country had, since he went out of office, been passing through a period of disorder and malaise, from which it was fair to suppose the presence of "a strong man" in the chief executive office would relieve it. But it will puzzle the future historian of the country greatly, to find that the Grant movement had none of these things behind it. General Grant has been tried as a civil administrator, and it is not disputed that his two terms were marked by great corruption at the seat of Government, by great violence and disorder at the South, and by the loss of fourteen States by the Republican party. Since he left office outrages at the South have diminished in number, and industry of every kind has improved in that region. Scandals in the civil service, such as were revealed almost weekly in his day, have ceased; specie payments have been restored; the credit of the Government has been raised and used in lowering the interest on the public debt; the tide of emigration towards the country has again set in, and so has the flow of foreign capital towards American investments; and industry in all its branches has revived. In fact, peace and order reign in every direction; consequently General Grant can only be produced as a candidate in his capacity as a fighting military man. Nothing else can be claimed for him. He can, in short, only be produced with a view to some sort of violence or illegality. It may be, as we have said, that he will not allow himself to be turned to account in this way; but if he does, those who have not reached the conclusion that our political system is a failure will see that his candidacy imposes on them a duty such as Americans have never before been called on to discharge towards any man.

THE PROPOSED COMMERCIAL TREATY WITH FRANCE.

WHILE a possible disturbance in our foreign relations in consequence of M. de Lesseps's operations on the Isthmus is obvious to every one, the objections to the proposed commercial treaty with France have not, in Congress or out of it, so far as we have observed, been based on any but domestic considerations. Its international bearing will, however, appear on a little reflection. Hitherto the American public has heard scarcely more than one side of the question. The movement, it will be remembered, originated in France, where the great decline in the exports to the United States during the last ten years, correctly ascribed to the introduction of our highly protective tariff, contrasted strongly with the great increase of the exports to England that had resulted from the commercial convention made between those countries in 1860. It was not unnatural for the French to suppose that the ground they had lost on this side might be recovered if a similar treaty could be made with the United States; nor was it to be expected that the French, having that hope before their eyes, would consider closely whether and how far concessions on their part could make such a treaty acceptable to this country. Early in 1878 a number of prominent manufacturers and merchants, aided by sundry senators, deputies, journalists, and others, organized a committee, having its headquarters in Paris, for the purpose of agitating the question, and sent a delegate to this country in the person of M. Léon Chotteau, whose name has since become familiar to us as that of a gentleman enthusiastically active in his mission. Being charged to present an appeal issued by the committee to the Americans, and to invite us to form a similar national committee on this side and to send delegates to a conference to be held in Paris during the Exhibition of 1878, he addressed himself to the chambers of commerce and other commercial organizations in this country. The novelty of his appeal, and the sentiments of national friendship with which he urged it, secured him a polite reception wherever he appeared, and, by carefully refraining from any specific demands or propositions, he avoided calling out any opposition. Resolutions more or less favorable to his project were passed by nearly all those bodies, and by many of them delegates to the Paris Conference were appointed.

When this meeting was held in August, 1878, the number of American delegates that appeared was suspiciously small, but there was no difficulty in filling it up from the crowd of American visitors to the Exhibition, and in passing by acclamation a memorial to the French and the American governments which had been prepared by a committee. A banquet held on December 1 gave the necessary *éclat*, and M. Chotteau returned to this country full of anticipated success. He was received by the President, and members of Congress listened to his statement. In April, 1879, a resolution requesting the President to consider the expediency of negotiating a treaty of commerce was offered in the House by the chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, Mr. Wood, and was passed without debate. In the Senate, a joint resolution of a similar tenor was offered and referred, but not passed. In his renewed appeals to the commercial bodies M. Chotteau entered slightly into details, from which it appeared that a reduction of our duties on French manufactures and products by about fifty per cent. was expected, while we were promised participation in the French so-called conventional tariff, as established by the Cobden treaty and by several later conventions with European nations. Beyond this we were promised such other reductions of duties as our negotiators might be able to secure. Statistics not wholly relevant to the question were freely used to prove the immense advantages of such an arrangement, and the trebling or quadrupling of our exports to France was to be the assured effect of the treaty, while all free-trade tendencies were disclaimed when the reduction of our duties was mentioned.

The result of M. Chotteau's second campaign was a pretty general repetition of approving resolutions passed by our commercial associations—not, however, without some significant exceptions. The New York Chamber of Commerce declined to commit itself to the support of the plan. The Silk Association of America, having its central organization in New York, resolved to oppose any such treaty, vigorously and at every point. The San Francisco Chamber of Commerce, alarmed for the safety of its wine interest, took the same ground, and issued an elaborate report, from which M. Chotteau may gather the kind of opposition his project is likely to meet with from American protectionists, whenever Congress or the Executive attempts serious action. M. Chotteau, however, was not discouraged, and returned to France convinced, as he expressed it, that the opposition to his plans would vanish like a mist before the rays of the sun. The presence in Paris of Mr. Fernando Wood soon furnished the opportunity for another flourish of trumpets. At a banquet given in his honor on October 5 he was made the hero of the day. It was there reported and resolved that the American Congress had by the above-mentioned resolutions taken the initiative, which the French Government was bound to follow by the immediate appointment of negotiators. The American mind was depicted as being in the most promising condition, and the assertion was amply proved by the material brought home by M. Chotteau. Mr. Wood extricated himself rather skilfully from his embarrassing position; without committing himself in favor of any treaty he vigorously denounced the French and the American tariff, and inspired his hosts with the conviction that he was with them heart and soul, and that their cause was in good hands.

While awaiting his further action we may now be allowed to examine the project from our standpoint, which, our readers are aware, does not coincide with that of our protectionists, even though in this case we may be found on their side. Placing a very different value from what M. Chotteau does on resolutions passed

on the spur of the moment by commercial associations, or even on resolutions passed but not considered by Congress, we need hardly explain the curious contrast between the enthusiasm exhibited in France and the indifference manifested here. Evidently, very few people on this side have given the matter any serious consideration or believe in the practicability of the project. For this there are very good reasons quite independent of any opposition on the part of our protectionists. First of all, such a treaty is impracticable, because it would throw nearly all our commercial relations with other European countries into confusion. It does not seem to have been known to our French allies that since Benjamin Franklin offered to make a commercial treaty with them on behalf of the United States, we have long abandoned that sort of policy, and have entered into treaties of friendship with numerous European and other countries, agreeing to the so-called "most-favored-nation clause," which forbids any commercial favor to be granted by either party to other states that shall not immediately become common to the other party. If we remember aright, our Government some twenty-five or thirty years ago negotiated a commercial treaty with Mexico, which had to be abandoned when, on being laid before the Senate for confirmation, it proved to be in conflict with other treaties containing that clause. The Hawaiian treaty of March 18, 1875, granting the free entry of the Sandwich Island sugars into the United States, was possible only because our treaties with other sugar-producing countries, like Spain and Great Britain, do not contain the clause. Very different would be the case if any special favor were to be shown to French silks and woollens, wines and other goods, of which a considerable portion of our imports comes from Germany, Austria, Italy, Russia, the Netherlands, and other countries, all of which, in some form or other, are protected against discrimination by their treaties with us. The result, therefore, would be a general reduction of those duties, or we should be compelled to cancel all those treaties and expose ourselves to all sorts of retaliation. The latter course might suit the French best, but it would involve us in inextricable difficulties, and by simply destroying a large trade we are now doing with other countries, and forcing it into French hands, we should be inflicting the greatest damage on ourselves.

In either case our compensation will have to come from France, and from France alone, since other countries, if allowed to participate in the reduction of our duties, will have that participation thrust upon them unless we make special treaties with France and all the other countries simultaneously. As the compensation held out by France we are promised participation in the conventional tariff of that country, which, as it now stands, offers a considerable reduction from the ultra-protectionist duties of the general tariff now applicable to importations from this country. But, unlike the case of England, we export to France, and we shall for many years continue to export, chiefly raw materials and common food articles; and when we examine that conventional tariff, and look for its advantages, we find that France has taken good care, in her general tariff, not to impose duties on those necessaries which could be used as objects of compensation in any conventional tariff. Such articles as cotton, breadstuffs, meats, lard, and other produce which we now export largely to France are, under their general tariff, either free or subject to the same duties as under their conventional tariff; tobacco, being a Government monopoly, would not be affected at all; petroleum would pay a lower duty; but the conventional tariff maintains the much higher duty on refined petroleum and naphtha, as compared with crude oil, which now limits our exports of petroleum to France to crude oil, and keeps the consumption there of this product far below that of any other European country. Our exports of this article, which, by abandoning the protection to the French refiners, could probably be made the most important subject of compensation, would by the conventional tariff not be increased to any great extent.

What increase we might expect from participation in the conventional tariff would, according to M. Chotteau's own statements, consist of butter and cheese, some sole-leather, agricultural machines and tools, perhaps some coarse cotton goods and small manufactured articles. But, without making common cause with the protectionists, we may well ask, Would that be reciprocity for admitting their silks and woollens, their wines and spirits, their canned food and fruits, their glass-ware and fancy goods at so great an advantage over other countries? The fact is, two highly protective countries cannot possibly enter into any such treaty without one or the other abandoning that policy. When our people have learned enough they will surely take this step, and we believe that that time is approaching; but when it does come, we hope that our tariff will be reduced in the accustomed way, not by indirection and under the guise of a misguided sentiment, but for our own benefit and with justice to all friendly countries. Whether M. Chotteau acknowledge it or not, his project for us is a movement in the direction of free-trade, and the best advice we can give him is to change front, try and break down the French general tariff, and rely on such a good example being followed on this side.

RULES OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

THE principle on which the Committee proceeded in making the revision of the rules which has been recently under debate was one which ensured useful work in the main, though it excluded action in cases where there was danger of party division. They tell us that they determined in beginning their work "that their reported revision should be the unanimous action and agreement of the Committee, leaving intact only such rules as the Committee could not agree unanimously to adopt or amend." We have therefore the simplification and codification of the rules, and only such changes as the most experienced members of both parties could agree upon. They have very considerably reduced the bulk of the manual, and made the system much more intelligible and easy of reference, eliminating what had become practically obsolete, and embodying formally some things which had become by tacit consent the practice of the House.

One little change, however, has provoked a lively discussion, and has threatened to defeat the adoption of the report. It is the recurrence to what was at one time the rule of the House in regard to the River and Harbor Appropriation Bill, by requiring the report and recommendations of the Committee of Commerce after they are perfected to be passed upon by the Committee on Appropriations, who shall report it like the other general appropriation bills.

The argument by which this is supported is that the general appropriations must be in some definite proportion to the revenue collected, and if retrenchment be made necessary by decrease of revenue or a wish to have a surplus to apply to reducing the public debt, the diminutions of various expenditures must have reference to each other and be planned by some one controlling purpose and authority. If the Committee on Commerce may report a bill appropriating eight millions when the public revenue will only admit the expenditure of four, and when the Appropriation Committee may have spent weeks in scaling the distribution of money to the several departments of the Government so as to avoid a deficit, how, it is asked, can there be anything like statesmanship in the financial legislation of the House? The argument looks very like a "knock-down," for everybody who has watched the House proceedings knows that even if the bill in question were before the House for debate it could never be modified in any symmetric manner, and would be subjected both to capricious slashing and to equally capricious increase.

But this is by no means the whole of the difficulty, and one may look in vain into the debates in the House for any clear recognition of the real trouble in the case. The simple truth is that the River and Harbor Bill has become a great log-rolling job, and is deliberately planned with the purpose of having two-thirds of all the Congressional districts interested in the expenditure, so that it may be passed on a Monday morning under suspension of the rules, without being read, with amendments inserted by the Committee after it has been printed, so as to gain or keep the vote of this or that

member and so secure the two-thirds vote which is necessary to take these millions out of the Treasury in this summary fashion. Here is a bill which contains items of expenditure so numerous as to make a printed book of considerable size, and amounting to from three to six or eight millions of dollars, passed in the lump, and not a soul on the floor of the House outside the Committee, and perhaps not one of them but the chairman, knowing what the bill actually contains; and yet two-thirds of all the people's representatives vote *aye* on the roll-call, because each one of the two-thirds has the assurance that the long list contains an appropriation of money to be spent in his district, it may be on a great harbor or it may be on an insignificant trout-stream in the mountains. The same influences which from year to year secure the passage of the bill under suspension of the rules were strong enough to override the Committee on Revision and the Committee on Appropriations, and defeat the change which was proposed.

Yet thoughtful people must see that the revised rule is right. The only method of getting anything worthy of the name of a budget, under our system of government, is to have the Congressional Committees of Ways and Means and of Appropriations assume the duties devolving upon the ministry in other legislative bodies, and bring order out of chaos by reporting bills for revenue and expenditure which may be based upon a careful study of the public resources as compared with the public necessities. The standing committees of the House have the right to introduce measures which, if adopted, will become the law for the Appropriation Committees in their schedules of expenditure and for the Committee of Ways and Means in their bills to provide revenue. If, however, these various committees have direct control of the appropriation they will generally take pride in building up their own departments, and will certainly be most liberal to them when the Administration is in political agreement with the Congressional majority. No one who has any familiarity with the *esprit de corps* that grows up in these committees, and between them and the departments, can doubt that in the divided responsibility which would allow each to allege that its appropriations were reasonable and only the rest were extravagant, we should see a prodigality of expenditure that would be reckless beyond any precedent. The fact that the Appropriation Committee stands before the country bearing the official responsibility for the general public expenditures as a whole, is the strongest guaranty we have that any approach to reasonable economy will be practised. To emphasize this responsibility and make it more deeply felt is the plain dictate of common sense. To remove it by scattering the appropriation bills among the numerous committees is to open the door to shameless raids on the Treasury. It would court the repetition of the practice in the River and Harbor Bill and make every partial appropriation the vehicle of jobbery beyond anything yet dreamed of. That the Appropriation Committee has the leadership of most important business of the House is naturally the cause of a good deal of jealousy, which is constantly shown in the flings at it, as if it were trying to absorb the whole business of legislation. When these attacks come from members of the political majority they may safely be attributed to envy and jealousy. The minority has usually a mixture at least of better motives, and their criticisms would have more real weight than they have were it not for the sad truth of history that minorities have been majorities and zealously did the things they now condemn.

The theory of the action of the Appropriation Committee is that it takes existing laws and frames its appropriations to meet the statutory provisions wherever they are definite and specific, and uses sound judgment to effect the purpose of the law when this cannot in terms direct the exact sum to be expended. But the rules of the House provide (and this is one of the things the Revision Committee could not agree to change) that whilst no original legislation may be tacked upon an appropriation bill *in general*, it may be done by the Committee in such cases as may be germane to the subject of the bill, and directly tend to economy and retrenchment. Here is the Trojan horse alluded to in the debates, out of whose bowels come, if not armed men, the reduction of the Army, the suspension of salaries of marshals, a like omission in regard to diplomatic officers abroad, the docking of the pay of the railway auditor, and the whole troop of measures which, in obedience to the dictates of party, and, as we think, contrary to their own judgment, the Committee has tacked to appropriation bills, as if for the very purpose of giving its enemies weapons to slay it.

Let us speak the truth plainly. The desire of economy has had nothing to do with the class of measures referred to, and therefore to introduce them under the cover of the proviso we have mentioned is one of the legislative abuses which are sure to return to plague the inventor. Because party leaders could not pass measures against the tactics of a strong minority they have thought to force the Appropriation Committee to do their political work for them, and, under pretext of an apparent reduction of expense, overturn the established system of an army, of a diplomatic or of a judicial service, though the statutes which declared these to be the only lawful ones were entirely unrepealed.

It is said that Republican majorities as well as Democratic ones have done this, and it is true. But it does not make it the less a gross abuse of power, and, what is more to the purpose of our present discussion, it does not make it less certain that it endangers the most necessary and salutary powers of the Appropriation Committee, which is thus made the scapegoat of party sins, by assuming the odium of usurpation of legislative prerogative, when it has only obeyed the dictates of the party caucus. One would think the stupidest partisan might by this time have learned the lesson so often taught, that there is no way to party defeat so absolutely sure as the greedy abuse of power when it is held. And yet session after session the clearer heads of a party see the extremists press and carry measures which, with the regularity of clockwork, are followed by party defeats in the recess. All who long for real progress in the art of self-government will hope that moderation, the quintessence of political wisdom, may so far assert itself in the House that the abuses which have brought odium upon the Appropriation Committees may be corrected without resort to a practice which, as we have tried to show, will bring in a period of wild extravagance in expenditure, with the legislative demoralization almost inseparably connected with it.

THE HARRISBURG CONVENTION AND ITS CONSEQUENCES.

WASHINGTON, Feb. 9, 1880.

SENATOR DON CAMERON'S exploit at Harrisburg last week is still the principal topic of conversation here. Opinions differ as to its effect upon the Republican conventions of other States, but some facts are settled and agreed upon as regards the event itself. One is that the Pennsylvania Convention did not want to renominate Grant, but that Cameron compelled them to do so. Another is that Blaine could have beaten Cameron—that is, could have prevented the adoption of the Grant instructions—if he had had the spirit or the wit to fight for his rights. A third is that the leaders of the third-term movement are going to nominate Grant at Chicago, even by a majority of one, if it is possible to do so, and that they would do this even if they apprehended he would be beaten at the polls. Consequently, evidence offered to them that Grant is a weak candidate—and there could be no better evidence than the Harrisburg Convention itself—weighs not a feather in their calculations. They do not want another Republican Administration that they cannot control, and in preference to it they will take a Democratic one cheerfully, and trust to the chances of the next four years. Conkling would have preferred Tilden to Hayes before the latter was installed in office, and he went so far toward bringing the former in that the Democrats conceive that they were betrayed by him when, at the critical moment, his nerves gave way. Party rage, which has so often served his turn, appalled him in that instance, but it did not prevent him from disclosing that he wants no more Republican victories of that kind. As for Cameron, he has introduced himself to the public as a sort of Barbary corsair or Roman proconsul entertaining a well-grounded contempt for the people whom he slashes—that is, for his own party in his own State. It is spoken of as a remarkable thing that 113 delegates out of 246, although stoutly backed by public sentiment at home, dared to call their souls their own in presence of this

terrible fellow. For there is not a more fearful wild-fowl than your Cameron living! Blaine really represented the vestiges and remains of popular sovereignty in party government at the Harrisburg Convention. I doubt if there will ever be so strong a show of opposition to personal government in Pennsylvania again, until the party has been soundly thrashed at the polls. It is a ludicrous waste of energy to send sixty or seventy able-bodied men to Chicago to make a unit and to cast one vote. That this is done is but another instance of the survival of forms after the substance has vanished. Perhaps the most startling sign of the times is the ease with which such things are done—the facility and *abandon* with which the State of Pennsylvania is lowered from the attitude and character of a commonwealth to that of a province under the government of a prætor. Doubtless Mr. Blaine was an unfit man to bear the standard of the commonwealth in the recent engagement; nevertheless he did bear it, and when the wheels of the "machine" rolled over him it was the commonwealth's blood that gushed out.

The Blaine men here in Washington, however, prefer to be considered cunning fellows rather than victims. They say now that the course of the Harrisburg convention ran parallel with their intentions; that it was not their purpose to kill the Grant movement suddenly, because that would have drawn all the anti-machine fire upon them; that they prefer to have the batteries of the Independents directed against the third term during the next four months rather than against their man; that the moral effect of the Harrisburg massacre must tell in their favor throughout the country; that Cameron's victory was virtually a defeat because his majority was so small, etc., etc. The third-term people, on the other hand, say that all they wanted at Harrisburg was all the votes; that they were not so grasping as to claim any more than the whole number, and consequently they are satisfied. What they expect is that the impetus gained in Pennsylvania will produce an exactly similar result in New York, and that the momentum of these two States will carry Illinois *and Massachusetts*—perhaps also Indiana—and that anything more which they need they can easily obtain from the South. If the Blaine men have any programme as well defined as this, I have not heard of it. They talk vaguely about Illinois as the bulwark and breakwater that is to roll back the third-term flood. Gen. Logan, however, is quoted for the third term, and Gen. Grant, as it happens, has a nominal residence in Illinois; the supporters of Washburne do not oppose the third-term movement, but do serve to divide the opposition to it. Gen. Logan's machine in Illinois is not the same thing as Cameron's in Pennsylvania, or Conkling's in New York. It is less subject to the one-man power. It was wholly in the hands of the Blaine men four years ago, and it dragged Logan along with it. It would probably do the same now but for the adventitious circumstance that Gen. Grant has a house in Galena, where he occasionally spends a week's time. Something will really depend, as regards Illinois, upon public opinion. Any such demonstration of hostility to the third term as took place at Harrisburg would be fatal to it, because it would point to the loss of the State in the election, and the managers there have not reached the state of mental equipoise which can look calmly upon such a contingency. Illinois is not a sure State by any means, and an adverse result in Ohio in October would be likely to deluge it. Meanwhile it is among the possibilities that Blaine may surrender to the third-term movement and become as good a Grant man as anybody. But the third-term men will never surrender to him. They have the great advantage of knowing exactly what they want, and it is a mistake to suppose that they have any second choice.

On the 12th of December last, as appears from a letter signed "C. W. Moulton," which has mysteriously got into print, Mr. Conkling did have a second choice, and that second choice, as among candidates having any strength, was Secretary Sherman. Of course Conkling would prefer Sherman to Blaine. This letter is curious enough to pass into history, and as the columns of the *Nation* are well adapted to preserve it for that destination I append it:

"A.M., Friday, Dec. 12.

"My Dear Mr. Sherman: The result of my conference is that Mr. Conkling will look upon his personal relations as not broken; that he prefers Grant, and cannot change that relation; that after Grant is out of the way he prefers you to any one now spoken of; that he will not make or allow to be made any effort to control New York against you if you are nominated, and that he will not allow his name to come before the Convention, but that he *cannot* allow your friends in New York to muster him as in your favor. This comes from the source which you are aware of. I am to request that no steps be taken by you for a day or two.
—Yours, C. W. Moulton.

"P.S.—I rely upon this, but of course I cannot *know* that it is true; it is probably one of those beginnings that should be looked after. The situation of the parties makes the negotiation slow as well as very delicate. I shall say to my informant that I have stated this to you, so as to prevent mistakes. I will call on you before I leave the city."

Many minds in Washington are racked at this moment to discover how this letter got into print, and who, besides Moulton, acted as a means of communication between Sherman and Conkling. To answer the first interrogatory it is necessary to enquire what person having control of the letter had any interest in publishing it. The person having control of it was Mr. Sherman. Had he any interest in publishing it? I do not undertake to answer this question, but bearing in mind that one of the most effective arguments used against Mr. Sherman at the present time is that he could not carry New York, because Conkling would throw the State over to the Democrats, I conclude that any evidence calculated to combat and counteract that argument would be very advantageous to Mr. Sherman. As for the other question, I am informed that Mr. Moulton's family is on exceedingly intimate terms with a lady who is known to be Mr. Conkling's client, and who has an inherited and decided genius for politics. A third conundrum—Why does this letter appear now instead of a month ago or a month hence?—must also be susceptible of an answer, but I pause.

Returning to the Harrisburg Convention, I remarked that the third-term leaders know what they want. They have no set purpose to undermine the Republic by paving the way for Grant or a future President to go in for a fourth term or any other number of terms. But a third term happens to fall in with their system of prætorship. General Grant gave that system full swing, and he was the only man who could do so with tolerable safety, having a military reputation to fall back upon to serve as a screen for civil disorder. They know perfectly well what they can do with him because they have tried him. His methods are their methods. Given four years more of this species of license and they calculate that they will not be troubled again with the presence of 113 dissenters at a Harrisburg convention. As regards the election, they set much store upon the pride and self-reliance of the American people, which leads men to say, "Who's afraid? If we don't like a President can't we change him every four years?" The answer is: "No, unless you can get more than 113 delegates into your nominating convention." Horace White.

MEMOIRS OF MME. DE RÉMUSAT.—VOL. II.

Paris, January 23, 1880.

After the battle of Austerlitz the Emperor Francis asked for an interview with Napoleon. He was received under Napoleon's tent. "This is," said the latter, "the only palace which I have occupied for two months." The Russian Emperor consented to return to Russia with his army, and Napoleon seemed anxious not to push his victory too far. Talleyrand, who had been sent for, pressed him in this sense, and insisted upon the necessity of preserving Austria for the equilibrium of Europe. Napoleon had been much flattered by the visit of the Austrian Emperor; at times, however, he seemed uneasy; he was afraid of Talleyrand. He established himself in the palace of Schönbrunn, and seemed astonished to find that his presence produced little effect on the Viennese; on the other hand he was struck by the affection shown by the Austrian people for their sovereign. "What a people!" he exclaimed. "If I returned to Paris I should not be received in this manner." While the Emperor was in Vienna an *émigré* named M. d'André sent his wife to General Mathieu Dumas, and asked to be struck off the list of the *émigrés* and allowed to return to France. M. de Rémusat saw Madame d'André, and consented to ask Napoleon if he would receive her.

"At the name of D'André the face of the Emperor darkened: 'Do you know,' said he, 'that you are speaking to me of a mortal enemy?' 'No, sire,' said M. de Rémusat; 'I am unaware that your majesty has reason to complain of him; but in that case I ask for his pardon. M. d'André is poor and proscribed; he wishes to go and die quietly in our country.' 'Have you any relations with him?' 'None, sire.' 'Why do you interest yourself in him?' 'Sire, he is Provençal, he was at school with me, he followed the same career, and he is my friend.' 'You are very lucky,' said the Emperor, with a terrible look, 'to have such motives as an excuse. Never speak of him again, and know well, that if he was in Vienna and in my possession, he would be hanged in twenty-four hours.' Having said this he turned his back on M. de Rémusat."

After this interview General Savary, who was at the head of the police, came to M. de Rémusat and complimented him. "Come, come," said he to him, "I must congratulate you on the fortunate opportunity which

is offered you, and I advise you not to let it escape. You ran a great risk a moment ago when you spoke to the Emperor of M. d'André, but all can be repaired. Where is he?' 'He is, I believe, in Hungary; that, at least, is what his wife says.' 'Bah! don't dissimulate. The Emperor believes him to be in Vienna; he is persuaded that you know where he is, and he wishes you to declare it.'" M. de Rémusat felt indignant at this proposition; he sent word to Madame d'André that his mission had failed. Madame de Rémusat says that from that time she and her husband fell into a sort of disgrace; that the Emperor became cold, even icy, towards his chamberlain. This Savary, who played such a singular part in the story we have told, "was not," says Madame de Rémusat, "absolutely a wicked man." The Emperor used to say: "If I ordered Savary to get rid of his wife and children I am sure that he would not hesitate." He was fond of money and he trembled before Napoleon. Duroc, who also lived with the Emperor, was silent, cold, and impenetrable; he was the ideal of the slave: the Emperor was his *master*, and that was enough; his probity has never been attacked. Such men as Napoleon need such men as Savary and Duroc (who was made Duke of Friuli; Savary was Duke of Rovigo).

The treaty of peace was signed on the 27th of December, 1805; it gave Italy to Napoleon; it recognized the Electors of Bavaria and Würtemberg as kings, and abandoned Tyrol to the King of Bavaria. The 'Memoirs of Metternich,' which have just appeared, show conclusively that from that very moment the struggle began between Europe and Napoleon; they said peace and there was no peace. In the interest of their peoples the sovereigns were obliged to make temporary sacrifices to the crowned head of the Revolution, to the new Cæsar. A Bavarian princess was given to Prince Eugène Beauharnais. Napoleon announced it in these words to him: "My cousin, I have arrived at Munich. I have arranged your marriage with the Princess Augusta. It has been published. This morning the princess has made me a visit, and I have talked much with her. She is very pretty. You will find with this her portrait on a cup, but she is much better-looking." Napoleon liked his step-son Eugène, who was modest, obedient, devoted to him.

"While the Emperor was at Munich it entered his head to refresh himself from the great fatigues which he had gone through during several months by a certain *fantaisie*, half *galante*, half political, towards the Queen of Bavaria. This princess, second wife of the king, without being very pretty, had an elegant waist, and agreeable yet withal dignified manners. The Emperor feigned, I believe, to be in love with her. Those who witnessed this spectacle say that it was rather curious to see him struggling with his sharp temper and rather common manners, in the desire to succeed near a princess accustomed to the sort of etiquette which is never departed from in Germany under any circumstances. The Queen of Bavaria knew how to hold at a distance this singular lover, but seemed, however, amused with his homage. The Empress found her more coquettish than she would have liked."

After the campaign of Austerlitz something heavier was felt in the rule of Napoleon; he became more unapproachable; he adopted the German etiquette; the German princes trembled before him; the young hereditary Prince of Baden had been obliged to ask of him humbly the honor of marrying a person of his family. In France the old parties seemed quite dead; the court of the new Cæsar became the most sumptuous in the world. Despréaux, who had been dancing-master of the unfortunate Queen Marie-Antoinette, had to give lessons to the ladies of the new court, and taught them how to make courtesies with long trains. It was while the Emperor was at a gala representation at the Théâtre-Français that he received the news that his troops had forced the Queen of Naples to fly to Palermo; the play was stopped, and Talma announced to the audience the fate of "the modern Athaliah." Napoleon ceased to keep on intimate terms with anybody; the more numerous his court became, the more isolated he was himself. The Empress herself became a stranger to him; she knew absolutely nothing of the great schemes which kept his mind occupied. She became so estranged from him that she even ceased to be jealous, and her complacency to all his caprices became complete.

"The Emperor, absolutely convinced that the empire of woman had often weakened the kings of France, had irrevocably decided in his mind that they should never be at his court anything more than an ornament, and he kept his word. He was persuaded, I don't know why, that in France they have more *esprit* than the men (at least he often said so), and that the education which they receive gives them a certain cunning against which it is well to be on one's guard. He feared them a little, and for this reason he kept them at a distance."

He exiled Madame de Staël and Madame de Balbi for some innocent pleasantries; his fear of Madame de Staël was real, and his police had a constant eye on her. Madame de Rémusat seems, however, to have continued to receive from time to time confidential communications from the imperial woman-hater. "One day," she says, "I spoke to him of the conquest of the kingdom of Naples, and I dared to say that I felt moved by this policy of dethronements which we seemed to adopt. He answered with the tone which he assumes when he wishes to receive no answer: 'Madame, all this will only end when there is not a single Bourbon on a throne of Europe.' These words pained me. I thought but little of our royal family, I must confess; but still, when I heard that name, it seemed as if the memories of my youth revived."

The court of Napoleon was now full of the great names, the Montmorencys, the Mortemarts, the Chevreuses. Madame de Rémusat gives some curious details about the household. The "civil list" amounted to twenty-five millions, independently of the crown forests, which yielded three millions, and of the Italian civil list, which amounted to eight millions. The net revenue of the Emperor was nearly thirty-six million francs. He disposed besides of the secret-service money of the Foreign Office, and of the theatre fund, which was equal to one million eight hundred thousand francs. The war contributions formed an extraordinary domain, in which the Emperor was absolutely sovereign; he sometimes used them for war. The greatest order existed in the household; the great officers of the crown received forty thousand francs a year; the *dame d'honneur* of the Empress received as much; the *dame d'atours* thirty thousand. Eighteen chamberlains received from three to twelve thousand francs; the equerries had twelve thousand francs; the *préfêts du palais* or *maîtres d'hôtel*, fifteen thousand francs; the masters of ceremonies, fifteen thousand francs. Each aide-de-camp had twenty-four thousand francs. The expenses of the grand equerry amounted to three or four millions; there were always twelve hundred horses in the stables. Napoleon's expense for his toilette was forty thousand francs a year. He wore an enormous amount of clothes and of linen; he constantly burned his shoes or boots playing with the fire; he threw away a coat or any article of clothing when he found it in the least inconvenient. In his campaigns he wanted to find fresh linen and clothes everywhere. He generally rose at seven, shaved himself, received a few visits, and breakfasted at eleven; he ate only of two or three dishes, very rapidly, and took a large cup of black coffee. The Councils of Ministers took place in the afternoon. He dined generally alone with his wife. He went to bed early. There often was a small ball, but the Emperor always looked fatigued and took no interest in it. Nobody slept in his room; his famous Mameluke slept in the anteroom.

He gave Josephine six hundred thousand francs for her personal expenses; this sum was insufficient and Josephine was always in debt. She had also twenty thousand francs for her charities. Josephine did not like the German etiquette; she was very affable and liked to converse with shopmen; she was always being painted, and presented her portrait to everybody. Her life was a perpetual dressing and undressing. She had as many as four hundred Cashmere shawls, which were then a great rarity. She never opened a book, never took up a pen, and she was never bored. She kept till the end her passion for dress, and this passion absolutely filled her life. Napoleon was no hero to her; he simply was the man who had opened to her innumerable accounts with innumerable hairdressers, jewellers, dressmakers. She kept the same habits after her divorce; at Malmaison she died in a gown of pink satin, all covered with ribbons. She was good, she had been handsome; she was not frivolous, she was frivolity itself. She had at bottom a preference for the persons of the *ancien régime*, and she cared little for the new marshals and their wives. The Napoleons were hostile to her, as she was a Beauharnais; but she suffered more from Bonaparte's sisters than they suffered from her.

SPIRITUALISM IN GERMANY.

LEIPZIG, Jan. 2, 1880.

NEAR the end of the last century Professor Gauss, of Göttingen, one of the most distinguished of modern mathematicians, attempted to show that the familiar axiom of Euclid, that parallel lines might be infinitely prolonged without meeting, could not be proved, was unnecessary, and impaired the certainty of geometrical reasoning. Under the new and more generic mathematical method of treating surfaces which he originated, cases might occur of a so-called negative measure of curvature in which this axiom was false. In a paper published in 1868 Pro-

fessor Riemann generalized the common formula by which the position of any point in ordinary space may be determined by measuring three co-ordinates, by supposing the number of these co-ordinates to be represented by *n*, or to be indefinite. If this were possible, the magnitude—in this case space—would have *n* dimensions, to each of which all Gauss's laws respecting surfaces are applicable. This gives a new mathematical conception of space. Helmholtz in 1870, not intimidated by the failure of the famous Italian mathematician, Beltrami, to do so, attempted to make the matter intelligible to the ordinary understanding. We may conceive, he says, creatures of only two dimensions living on a surface. If this surface were spherical they would know nothing of straight, and if it were saddle-shaped, or pseudo-spheric, they would know nothing of parallel lines. If they developed a geometry it would be planimetry. They would really have no conception of solid bodies. Now, as these organisms or intelligences are related to ours, which live in ordinary tridimensional space, so he infers we may conceive our relation to beings living in extension of four dimensions. Thus it is proved that our knowledge—of space, as he then said ; of the axioms, as he now says—is purely empirical.

With but two respectable exceptions the whole subject is ridiculed by French mathematicians. In England only Clifford seems to have fairly comprehended it, but in Germany further mathematical deductions have been made and text-books of "absolute geometry" written. The largest astronomic parallaxes have been remeasured with the greatest precautions to see if space was really "curved," and whether triangles might not be obtained the sum of whose angles was more or less than two right angles ; and many have declared that they found by these methods a radically new way of conceiving the infinitely small and large which revolutionizes the Newtonian conception of the universe. On the other hand, Lotze regards the whole matter as a "logical jugglery," or a "grimace of science to intimidate the ordinary mind by useless paradoxes." Many others no less outspoken in their condemnations might be quoted.

The chief result thus far, however, is that under the lead of the Leipzig astronomer, Professor Zöllner, the spiritualists have appropriated the notion of the fourth dimension of space, in which they argue all conceivable impossible things may be done. For a generation or two about the only circle of believers in magnetism and spiritism in Germany has centred in Leipzig, but since the conversion of Zöllner and the partial conversion of two of his associates by the "manifestations" produced during the visit of the American medium Slade, who was here just after his London imprisonment, the infection has spread considerably among students and the half-cultured, well-to-do business classes. The 'Harmonic Philosophy' of A. J. Davis has been translated, and one reads sketches of the author's life, sometimes published with some sort of apology, in periodicals and daily papers, one of which adds a regret that Germany is becoming "Americanized in yet another respect."

The battle has been very bitter. Some, who condemn Zöllner, accuse Helmholtz of unintentionally occasioning the movement by an indiscreet attempt to make "meta-mathematics" intelligible to scientific laymen. He has, therefore, published an open letter, addressed, I think, to Zöllner, protesting most vigorously against the utterly unwarrantable use made of his illustrations. A distinguished Berlin alienist emphasizes certain reported tendencies to insanity in Zöllner's family, and does not hesitate to diagnosticate Zöllner himself as insane. A young *Docent* who bought, at a shop where magicians' arts and wares are sold, Slade's famous slate-trick and others by which Zöllner declares he was converted, performs them with much skill at evening parties, where he has become in great request. Although his classes have diminished to half-a-dozen, Zöllner keeps up the fight, attacking, in four immense volumes within twenty months, a score of eminent professors, including some of his own faculty, in the most bitter and personal way, and seeking at present, as he says, not so much to prove or inculcate his doctrine as to conquer for spiritualism a free and open field among great "scientific" themes. Although extravagant condemnation of Helmholtz for causing a "scientific scandal," encouraging "mathematical mysticism," "making an indiscreet appeal to the scientific imagination," was one of the many violations of collegiate decorum for which poor, blind Professor Dühring was, justly enough, no doubt, dismissed from his chair in Berlin, yet none of his best-abused colleagues want Zöllner dismissed, but wish him to retain his chair as a conspicuous monument of the principle, almost universal in Germany, that a professorship is for life.

Zöllner's reputation rests largely on his book 'On the Nature of Comets.' Here he argues, from the conditions of the stability of the aggregate state of bodies composed of fluid drops, that space must be at least infinitesimally curved, and therefore finite. All matter, even the most solid, he says, must slowly suffer volatilization if its temperature is above the absolute null point. This he illustrates by the vaporization of ice and the smell of metals and minerals. Infinite time having already elapsed, he continues, since the beginning of the world, all bodies would have vanished if space were infinite. To the argument that if the number of light and heat-diffusing bodies or fixed stars were actually infinite the whole arch of heaven would shine, he objects that this the laws of absorption would prevent. He quite forgets that it is by no means proved that all parts of the universe are above the temperature of an absolute zero, and that there are forces which act against volatilization. But this by the way.

Every one knows that spiritualism is a word of very manifold connotations. Not only are its disciples of all degrees of respectability, from the Woodhull-Claflin type up to the so-called Christian spiritualists, who, believing in the Bible and in church institutions, simply hold that Christ was the best of all mediums, and even to the large class of Nicodemuses who are almost persuaded although they do not break their orthodox church relations ; but its doctrines and motives are no less varied. All sorts of primeval and half-outgrown yet clinging superstitions have clustered together and warmed each other into new life under this name. Conjurers, skilful and otherwise, with a shrewd eye to business; women with shattered hysterical nerves and spoiled romantic minds; social revolutionists and even free-lusters have made common cause with those who, with noble impulses toward a freer moral, intellectual, and religious life, boldly abandoned the narrow orthodoxies in which they were reared, yet, all untaught as they were to live without a creed, were led to a faith more mystic, a cultus more gross, than before. There is, however, at last some hope that the central mystery of spiritualism will be thoroughly investigated by competent scientific men. An eminent professor here, who attended the Slade séances, explained to me with much plausibility how he believed the slate-writing was done. Sleight-of-hand performances are cultivated by amateurs to an extent which threatens to dispel all the mystery of prestidigitation. Nearly all tricks which are not performed exclusively by their inventors can now be bought by those who are willing to pay beforehand, and solemnly pledge themselves never to perform the trick until they have learned it so thoroughly as to defy detection, or even unless they can satisfy the salesman to that effect. Other elements of spiritualism are now known to belong to a distinct and typical chapter of neuro-psychal disease, and may be studied in every large hospital.

My main object in this letter, however, is to call attention to a series of very promising experimental observations lately made by an unimpeachable authority.* These were begun with the cordial co-operation of the Danish magician Hansen. Physiologists have long known, even before the experiments of Preyer, that by holding frogs, hens, etc., gently but firmly in a certain position for two or three minutes they could be put to sleep for a quarter or half an hour. Weinhold has investigated these phenomena in man, and finds that, by causing a subject to look fixedly at a bright point for ten minutes, by making passes with warm hands over a sensitive skin, sometimes not touching and sometimes rubbing with great strength according to circumstances, by compelling him to give up his own will entirely, by walking him up, down, and around, at all paces and angles, till he is perfectly passive to a gentle but irresistible force, by appealing strongly to the imagination, by means of solemn music and an array of mysterious apparatus—by one or all of these means, in short, abnormal inhibition of the will is caused. This begins generally in the gradual loss of taste, touch, and the sense of temperature. Next colors are not distinguished, then forms grow indistinct, and then the eye is immovable and nothing is seen. The ear never sleeps in these experiments, and the subject believes, and at last does, all that is told him. The transfer of taste, calling or influencing from a distance by the will alone, etc., are ascribed purely to the imagination of subject or magnetizer. Not all persons can thus influence or be influenced, although either power is not specifically different from powers which all possess. The identification of this phenomenon with hypnotism is a very important step toward explaining mediumship, and visible spirits are likely to be physiologically accounted for, as is the halo of "odic" light, which often seems to the subject to surround the hypnotizer, and which is a real and a natural creation of his fancy out of the "subjective light" (*Eigendünkel*) of his own eye.

*'Hypnotische Versuche. Von Prof. Adolph F. Weinhold.' Chemnitz. 1879. Pp. 28.

Correspondence.

INTERNATIONAL GUARANTY OF THE PANAMA CANAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article in the last number of the *Nation* entitled "The United States Government and the Panama Canal" suggests these enquiries: In view of the fact that the Governments of Colombia and Nicaragua have by treaty conferred the same powers, respecting a canal across the Isthmus, upon each of the governments, the United States, Great Britain, and France, would not the interests of our own country be subserved, as well as those of all civilized nations, if our Government, instead of making haste "to seize the day," and obtain a monopoly of the proposed canal, should invite concurrent action on the part of the European Powers whose rights are identical with ours, and thus secure not only the construction, but the perpetual internationality of this great highway? Are the civilized Powers not sufficiently advanced in the principles and methods of peace that they can safely trust to the honor of each other in a joint effort to open and maintain this canal as a highway for all nations? or must the old methods still prevail whereby national greatness shall be promoted by strategy or fraud, and when thus secured be protected by human butchery? J. T. Brooks.

Pittsburgh, February 9, 1880.

THE HARVARD DIVINITY SCHOOL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Harvard Divinity School, I notice, is again a subject of discussion. It is true that with the resignation of Prof. Young, President Eliot's plan of making the school unsectarian is more possible than formerly. Some injustice is done the Harvard Divinity School in calling it Unitarian. Its aim is to be unsectarian, and in a partial degree it is succeeding in this. It is doing this in opposition to the wishes, on the one hand, of the conservative element in the Unitarian societies, which would have it Unitarian, and on the other to the radical element, which would have it pronouncedly radical. But the way in which President Eliot is trying to make it unsectarian is one which will hardly lead to success. The school aims to be both conservative and radical at the same time. It would take hold upon both horns, and thus be in favor with neither tendencies of thought—the conservative or radical. The teachings of the professors by no means harmonize, nor is it desirable that they should. But it is necessary that we know for what the school stands. We may be told that it stands for free enquiry in the field of theology. To this we give a most emphatic denial. Neither in the school nor out of it is this felt to be the fact. This freedom is not felt by the students, either in the choice of studies or in the pursuit of those selected for them. No one can have the degree (B.D.) unless he pursues the course laid out for him. No equivalent will be taken for any single study. It is, take the course exactly as laid down or go without the degree. And let it be said that to leave without the degree is anything but a good recommendation. The writer knows men who are very far advanced in the study of theology, who by the course in the Divinity School are compelled to go over studies for which they have no aptitude or liking, and which, under the circumstances, are a positive waste of time. If the course of study is intended for young men of eighteen or twenty, then is it a partial success. If, however, it is intended in any way to meet the wants of men who desire to study theology as a science, it is an absolute failure.

If the Harvard Divinity School wishes to become a complete success in the first of these—namely, to become a school for the training of young men for the ministry—then let it show itself sectarian and for what church it intends to train its young men; for to train young men for any church is to train them for none. It can hardly be said that it is now training young men who will fill the Unitarian church pulpits. If we are to judge from the past, the coming Unitarian ministers are being trained in some orthodox church.

If the Harvard Divinity School aims at the study of theology as a science the first thing to be done is to allow the young men choice in their studies, and to offer the degree for honest work in these studies. With all its talk about liberty and freedom it is to-day as much bound by some of the old and outgrown notions as any school in the land. Despite anything to the contrary up to date, the Bible of the Jews has not been studied as literature, but in the "good old way our fathers trod." And the outlook is that in one department this "good old way" is to be continued. Instead of a fair and candid study of the book, as illustrated in the works of the "Dutch school," a system of repression was and may now be in vogue. And as to who or what Jesus was or is, nobody in the school seems to have any idea. The philosophy of some of the professors would lead them to take advanced humanitarian grounds on the question, but for some reason they fail to speak out.

Again, there must be a modification (or something else) in the present scholarship system. Without doubt it is hurtful to the school as a school and to the students as men. If the men who go there are studying for the ministry and need aid, let the scholarship be given for preaching. At present the school uses the scholarships as a means of repressing the free thought and expression of the students. (The writer does not modify this sentence.) Students who go to Harvard with the idea that there are scholarships and freedom soon find out their mistake, and, to the detriment of their manhood, keep quiet. We trust that the *Nation* will continue the work it has begun until we have *one* free theological school in our country. Harvard, with all its faults, is the best theological school now in the country, and is the one for those interested in the matter to force into its proper place—"a school for the study of theology as a science."

X.

Feb. 5, 1880.

STEEL RAILS AND THE TARIFF.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of January 22 you have an article on the "The Railroads and the Tariff," in which you go into some statements purporting to be the facts in the case, and arrive at the conclusion that "The steel-rail makers will probably exhibit a new lot of public advantages to result from maintaining the present rate of duty, but the failure of their former predictions, *both as to their ability to supply the home demand* and to supply it at as low a rate as the foreign article, ought to disqualify them as witnesses."

I do not propose to go into any argument upon the questions of public policy involved in Protection *vs.* Free-Trade, but I have reason to believe that it is your intention to present a statement of facts as they exist and have existed, and not an imaginary condition of things merely to sustain the ground taken in your argument. The petition of the railroad companies to which you refer alleges a state of things in regard to the price of steel rails, both in this country and abroad, that does not now exist. At the time when steel rails sold in England at $22 per ton they were sold here at as low as $38 per ton at the mills; but while the price in this country may now be quoted as $80 per ton, it has advanced in England to $50 per ton, and the $28 per ton duty which in the railroad companies' petition is alleged to be 120 per cent. on the foreign cost of the rails, is now only 56 per cent. of that foreign cost. A comparison of the prices at various dates since the advance began will show that the price abroad has steadily followed the advance of price here, and there is no reason to believe that if the duty were reduced to $10 per ton, the price abroad would not be immediately advanced $18 per ton, the amount of the reduced duty. On the contrary, there are reasons for believing that it would be so advanced.

When the duty on blooms was fixed by decision of the Treasury Department at 45 per cent. ad valorem the price of foreign blooms immediately advanced in the foreign market, so that it was but a short time when the cost of importation of blooms with the reduced rate of duty made them cost as much as the domestic article. Some three weeks ago English rails advanced in one day from £8 10s. to £10 10s. per ton, and it is alleged that the date of the advance coincided with the date of the information reaching England that a bill had been introduced in Congress to decrease the duty on steel rails. If the introduction of a bill suffices to advance £2 per ton, it is not unreasonable to believe that the passage of the bill would result in a much greater advance.

You say also: "The Western and Southern roads require large quantities of steel now and are actually importing it from abroad, but the price of the domestic rail remains (as was intended) $28 per ton above the foreign." Now, although you do not distinctly say so, it is a fair inference from your statement that the price of the domestic rail has remained all along (as you say was "intended") $28 per ton above the foreign; but this is not the fact, and because it is not the fact your statement is not a fair one. When the foreign rails were selling at $22 per ton, the domestic rail should have sold, on the basis you name, at $50 per ton plus the freight, insurance, brokerage, etc., or about $53 per ton, whereas it is notorious that steel rails were then sold at from $38 to $42 per ton all over the United States, and I believe it is also true that at no time during the

years 1877, 1878, or the first half of 1879, was the price of domestic rails $28 above that of the foreign rail. This being the fact, shows that the price here was regulated by home competition and not by the foreign price.

Again, you say: "On the other hand, the public must recognize the fact that the actual cost of railway transportation has to be paid for, at all events, by the goods and passengers transported, whether railway shareholders get much or little, *and that the chief item of cost is in the rails that support the traffic.*" This statement is very far from being true. In the report of the Pittsburgh, Fort Wayne & Chicago Railway Company to the State of Pennsylvania for the year 1878 the total operating expenses amounted to $4,138,137 01, while the expense for iron and steel rails amounted to $124,653 53, or a little over three per cent. of the total operating expenses. On the Philadelphia & Reading R. R. the total operating expenses were $7,786,282 79, and the expense for rails was $173,429 85, or about $2\frac{3}{10}$ per cent. Many other cases could be cited to prove that your statement in this regard is highly inaccurate.

In your final paragraph, first above quoted, you intimate that the steel-rail makers have entirely failed "as to their ability to supply the home demand," and yet at no time from the beginning of 1873 to the fall of 1879 has there been a sufficient demand to keep all the American mills in operation. Another important factor in the case now being urged by the railroad companies is that of the large amount of rails sold by the American mills for delivery in 1880 a very large proportion, probably more than half, are sold at the prices prevailing in the early part of 1879, while the railroad companies are holding their old iron rails at prices in some cases higher than those at which they have contracted for their steel. The actual cost of steel rails to an operating railroad is the difference between what it pays for its steel rails and the amount received for the old iron rails taken out of the track. It is within my personal knowledge that railroad companies who paid $44 per ton for their steel one year ago were glad to sell their old iron rails at $18 per ton, the actual cost to them of steel rails being about $26 per ton. Those companies are now able to get $45 per ton for old rails, and a sale of 1,000 tons old rails has been reported at $50 per ton, spot cash. Should the railroad company which made the sale last referred to buy steel at the present quotation of $80 per ton, such steel would cost it but $30 per ton, or an advance of but $4 per ton over the price paid by the same company one year ago.

These are facts which should not be ignored in any discussion of this question. Why, then, is an exception proposed to be made of steel rails on the ground that the duty upon them is excessive? The steel-rail makers are not getting the benefit of that duty. The real reason is that certain railroad companies, notably the New York Central, Lake Shore and Michigan Southern, Chicago and New Orleans, with a number of other subordinate lines, have bought large quantities of rails abroad, not because they could not get them in this country, for many of these purchases were made before the mills of this country began to fill up, but because they saw an opportunity to buy them at low prices abroad and intended to trust to luck to get through with a "whoop" a reduction of the duty on steel rails, which will inure in the beginning solely to their benefit, but in the end to the benefit of the foreign manufacturer of rails, who will thereby be enabled still further to advance his price so long as the "boom" lasts.

The effect during 1880 of a reduction of duty on steel rails to $10 per ton will be merely to rob the public revenue of $18 per ton on from 100,000 to 200,000 tons of rails *now* bought from foreign mills for delivery in this country, while it is not probable that it will reduce the cost of steel rails for delivery in 1880 to any railroad company that has to purchase them hereafter. It is safe to say that the estimate of the writer in the *Herald* "that the demand in this country for work already laid out exceeds by 1,000,000 tons the capacity of the American mills to supply," is at least double and possibly treble the actual excess in the demand over the domestic supply. Two of the largest Bessemer-steel works in this country are already hard at work doubling or more than doubling their ability to make output, while a third is awaiting the issue of this proposed reduction of the tariff, as, if the tariff is to be reduced, they do not wish to invest any more money in what will be in a future time of depression a losing business. A fourth contemplates spending a half a million of dollars this year in increasing its capacity fifty per cent., which will likewise be abandoned if the tariff is reduced.

The free-traders, or those who argue a reduction of the tariff to a revenue basis, claim to be the friends of American labor, and yet they never explain how labor is to be compensated for the reduction in wages necessarily involved in bringing down the price of the domestic to that of the foreign article. They insinuate or intimate that the duty goes into the pocket of the capitalist. If that be so, the American manufacturers should grow in wealth many times faster than their English competitors, yet where in this country will you find an estate left by a deceased iron manufacturer rivalling that of the late Mr. Bolckow, M.P., who came to England some forty-five years ago a poor clerk and died last year at the head of a larger iron and steel manufacturing establishment than any two of America's combined? Numerous other instances might be cited where foreign manufacturers have been immensely more successful in accumulating wealth than those of this country, the fact being that American labor, from the mining of the ore, through its transportation to its manufacture into pig-iron, and thence into steel, receives by far the larger proportion of the difference in price which is due to protection.

These you may say are trite remarks, but they are true, and your article ignores them. The readers of the *Nation*, who are not restricted to any one set of political opinions, are entitled at your hand to a true statement of the facts, which, I doubt not, you intend they shall have, and with this in view I beg to ask room in your paper for this communication.

W. P. S.

St Louis, Mo., January 27, 1880.

[Several of the objections advanced by "W. P. S." to our article were anticipated in the article itself. We said, for instance, that "the demand [for steel rails] may possibly be equal to, or in excess of, the world's present power of supply, in which case the total abolition of the duty would not immediately lower the price, and hence would not lessen the profits of the American manufacturer." It is superfluous, therefore, for "W. P. S." to tell us, by way of criticism, that if the duty were now lowered to $10 per ton the price abroad would be advanced $18 per ton. It is not unlikely that that would be the immediate effect. The public interests, however, are not to be measured by the immediate effect, but by the future permanent effect. If "W. P. S." had believed that the permanent effect would be to maintain the price in the foreign market at $18 per ton advance he would undoubtedly have said so, and have added that the American manufacturer would therefore be in no worse position by reason of the reduction of duty.

It is not a fair inference from anything we said that the price of the domestic rail has at all times been $28 per ton above the foreign. We stated that the price in England in 1879 was as low as $22 per ton, and in the United States as low as $42 50. If the American price was at any time as low as $38, it was not much noised about; but whether it was so or not, we never insinuated that $22 added to $28 produce only $42 50.

In saying that "the chief item of cost [of railway transportation] is in the rails that support the traffic" we had in mind the maintenance of railway property, and not the salaries of officers and the wages of train hands. In some years the cost of renewal of track on particular railways may be nothing; in other years may be greater than all other expenses added together. But the force of our argument would not be impaired by substituting the words "one of the items of cost" in place of the words used—the drift and purport of the argument being that whatever be the actual cost of transportation, whether from duties on steel or any other cause, the public must pay it, that neither Granger laws nor State commissions can release them from that necessity, and hence that it behooves the public to take a lively interest in this question. It should be added that the railway companies undoubtedly confuse the public mind as much as possible as to the proportion which the cost of rails bears to the total cost of transportation, just as the rail-makers confuse members of Congress with statistics of puddlers' wages and the prices of bacon and flour and house-rent. These are technical questions affording ample room for deception, and so complicated in their nature that the last word is never uttered and nobody is ever convinced. The judgment of the public and of Congress, if good for anything, must be based upon broad and patent facts, one of which is that the goods and passengers transported must pay the whole cost of transportation, and that one of the items of cost is the duty on steel rails.

The statement of "W. P. S." that the New York Central and certain other railroad companies named bought rails abroad, expecting "to get through with a 'whoop' a reduction of the duty on steel rails which will inure in the beginning solely to their benefit," is manifestly absurd, since it implies that these companies, after their orders are filled, put their rails into warehouses abroad to await the uncertain action of Congress on the subject of the duty. The New York Central's large contract for English rails was made nearly a year ago, and it is not to be supposed that the rails have been stored in England pending a debate on the American tariff.

It happens just now that the Government is deriving an income from the duty on steel rails, and that fact makes it worth while to consider the duty of $28 per ton in the light of a revenue tariff. The Secretary of the Treasury has estimated a surplus for the coming year of ten millions, after applying thirty-eight millions to the sinking fund; and in this estimate he did not make much account of receipts from steel rails, which for some years back had been a mere trifle. The surplus of ten millions presumably consists of receipts over and above any sums derivable from this particular source, and the question to be considered from a Treasury standpoint is whether a tax ranging from 56 to 120 per cent. upon the means of transportation is a wise tax for a government to maintain which has more money than it needs.

We should be glad to be informed how much the steel-rail manufacturers have advanced the wages of their laborers since the date at which American rails were selling at $38 per ton. As they are now selling at something over $80, it might be inferred from the remarks of "W. P. S." that wages had been raised in a corresponding ratio, and also that there has been no advance in wages abroad. But for reasons indicated above we decline to enter upon such an investigation.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

PETER G. THOMSON, Cincinnati, has issued the prospectus of a 'Bibliography of Ohio,' to be published only by subscription. It will have some unusual features, such as, in addition to the descriptive notes, a list of prices at which the several works have been sold at auction or privately since 1860, and a valuable index of subjects. Mr. Thomson is his own bibliographer, and has left no principal library unvisited. The result is some 1,400 numbers, State documents not included.——A. C. Armstrong & Son have repaired the defect of the index to Mr. R. H. Stoddard's edition of Doran's 'Annals of the Stage,' so that it now embraces the added as well as the original matter. The same house have brought out a compact edition, at a very low price, of their Hallam's Complete Works, in six volumes.——Charles Scribner's Sons publish immediately 'The Theatres of Paris,' by J. Brander Matthews; 'The Antagonisms of Scientific and Theological Thought,' two lectures by Dr. Asa Gray; and 'The Science of English Verse,' by Sidney Lanier.——D. Appleton & Co. have published the second volume of the Hoey-Lillie translation of the 'Memoirs of Mme. de Rémusat.'——Daudet's 'Kings in Exile,' translated by Virginia Champlin, is published by Lee & Shepard.——George Routledge & Sons have just ready a new impression of the 'Life and Letters of Frances, Baroness Bunsen.'——Macmillan & Co. send us 'Dickens's Dictionary of the Thames,' a companion work in all respects to his original and successful 'Dictionary of London,' and therefore strictly confined to what appertains to the stream itself. For oarsmen and yachtsmen, as well as for the needs of commerce, the river is thoroughly mapped in sections. Under Henley and other regatta headings the records of the races for 1879 are given; under Oxford City and University, a full summary of the sights and institutions of the place; under Great Western Railway, rates and other information, etc.——Judd & Detweiler, Washington, have issued a 'Visitor's Guide to the Smithsonian Institution and the National Museum,' edited by W. J. Rhees, chief clerk of the Institution. It opens with a life of Smithson. The execution of this pamphlet can hardly be praised, but it will serve a temporary purpose while the new Museum is building.——Parts 10 and 11 of the new edition of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' (B. Westermann & Co.) contain maps of the south polar hemisphere, the moon's visible surface, Spain and Portugal west of 5° W. from Paris, the southeastern corner of France, nearly all of Mexico, and the usual profusion of side-maps.——G. P. Putnam's Sons announce an historical treatise on 'The Interoceanic Canal and the Monroe Doctrine.'——Wm. Wood & Co. have in press a practical treatise on 'Nervous Exhaustion,' by George M. Beard, M.D.——From Jameson & Morse, Chicago, we have a prospectus of the *Oriental and Biblical Journal*, to be published quarterly under the editorship of the Rev. Stephen D. Peet, editor of the *American Antiquary*, also published by them. Its object is "to give results of latest researches in all Oriental lands," including Italy and Greece.——The *Independent* of January 29 contains a noticeable editorial reply to Canon George Rawlinson's defence of his brother's translation of the Standard (Assyrian) Inscription with reference to the madness of Nebuchadnezzar. Dr. Ward shows that Sir Henry Rawlinson himself at one time explained the passage differently, and that no French or German scholar ever confirmed his original version.——In the *Penn Monthly* for February Prof. Robert Ellis Thompson has an article on "Spiritualism in Germany," which may be profitably read in connection with our (delayed) Berlin letter on the subject on another page.——A special edition of the 'History of the Menhaden,' that much-named fish (known as "the American sardine" or "shadine" when used as an article of food), as prepared for the fifth annual report of the Commissioner of Fisheries, has been published by the Orange Judd Company. An introduction serves approximately to bring the observations down to the present time. The volume is freely illustrated, and possesses a more than economic interest and readableness.——Houghton, Osgood & Co. have published the fourth volume of 'Reports and Papers of the American Public Health Association,' for the years 1877 and 1878. The papers relating to yellow fever are most numerous, but perhaps do not outweigh in value the rest of the contents of this handsome volume.——Mr. John Fiske's morning lectures on "America's Place in History" are appointed for February 16, 17, 23, and 24, at Chickering Hall. The same course will be delivered in Washington in the intervening days, by invitation of the President and other high officials at the capital.——According to the *Athenæum* Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps has been reminded and convinced that "the character following the letter *k*" in Shakspere's autograph is "the then well-known and accepted contraction for *es*."

—Dr. James Phelan writes us from Memphis, under date of last month:

"As your columns are always open to those who would correct any inaccuracy of statement on your part, I beg leave to call your attention to a slight error in No. 759 of the *Nation*. In speaking of the contributors to the *Anglia* you say 'one is an American (Dr. Phelan, of Memphis, *lately deceased*).' This is certainly a mistake, and one which I take great pleasure in correcting."

—The U. S. Geological Survey has just issued one of the most important contributions ever made to science in this country. We refer to Professor Leidy's monograph of the 'Fresh-water Rhizopods of North America,' being the twelfth volume of the quarto reports, and consisting of upwards of 300 pages, beautifully illustrated with 48 colored plates. This is the mature fruit of several years' original investigation of these extraordinary animals, the lowest of all in the scale of organisms—representing "the very beginnings of life"—yet of marvellous beauty, and of an interest beyond that which attaches to many creatures of more complex structure. The Rhizopods are mere specks of protoplasm, mere particles of animated matter, without definite form or structure, which nevertheless exhibit all the essential functions of life—namely, motion, alimentation, reproduction, sensibility, and volition; and have the power in many cases of constructing calcareous or siliceous shells of great complexity and symmetry. The study of these animals, of which the common *Amœba* may be taken as the type, tends to an insight into the broadest possible biological questions, and sheds light upon many a dark corner of our ignorance of the conditions of life and of the possibilities of organized matter. The bearing of Prof. Leidy's work, therefore, upon the "question of the day" can scarcely be overestimated. Both the nature of the subject and the manner in which it is handled carry this treatise far above ordinary descriptive or technical writing. It is the work of a master, written with no less wisdom than erudition, and in a style so perfectly plain that no one can fail to understand it. To most readers the revelations of Professor Leidy's microscope will seem not less fascinating and marvellous than an Arabian Nights' entertainment.

—In speaking of the second number of the *American Art Review* recently we expressed the hope that its editorial "Chronicles" at the end would be accurate and that there might be found in them the art-news of the day, so sifted and chosen that it could be relied on. It is with great

regret that we find in the third number, in the "Bibliography" and under the signature of the chief editor himself, what seems an awkward piece of "journalism." It happened a year ago (Dec. 12, 1878) that our columns contained a review of the Boston edition of Falke's 'Art in the House,' which book has upon its title-page the words "Illustrated by Chromolithographs, Albertotypes, and Typographic Etchings," and that in the course of that review these words occurred :

"The illustrations to this part of the book are seventeen pictures in the text, looking like not very delicate woodcuts, but probably typographic etchings, which certainly are not etchings at all."

Out of these innocent words—words which are not inaccurate, as we mean to show, and certainly not offensive—the editor of the *Art Review* makes up the statement that we "gave the lie to the publishers of a well-known book," and that we asserted that these prints were "not etchings at all, but simply coarse woodcuts." Now, in the general language of art an etching is a design engraved on a plate (usually of metal) by means of acid. By an extension of the term, plates that have received work with the dry point, and even with the burin, are still considered as etched. The work is all engraving in the literal sense—that is, incised or cut or eaten out of the plate : the design is depressed and not in relief, and the printing from the plate is done with the copper-plate press, the paper being forced into the grooves or sunken lines, and the ink drawn thence to the surface of the paper. But the prints of which we were speaking are interspersed in the text, and, therefore, apparently the originals were *in relief*, and the printing done as if from wood-blocks or electrotypes of wood-blocks. We objected and still object to the fashion of coining names for new processes which tend to confuse people as to those processes. One of the monthly magazines had once a page or two of comic matter at the end, a few verses and anecdotes with a picture or two, the whole entitled "Etchings." It is not unusual to hear pen and-ink drawings called "etchings." Our objection to these fashions of speech and to the name "typographic etchings" given to relief-blocks for printing (even if made by means of the corroding power of acid acting on metal) is the same : they are misleading. Those prints are not from etchings in the proper sense, if they are, as we assume, from relief-blocks. But at the same time we did not intend to bear on so heavily as all this. It was the gratuitous attribution to us of ignorant haste and rudeness, all based on a misquotation, that has caused the discussion to occupy more than the two lines of the original statement.

—The *International Review* has, in its February number, been made the victim of "lifting," in the Highland sense of the term, of an unusually audacious character, by the writer of an article on "Universal Suffrage in New York." After clearing the ground about him with much solemnity, he comes to the gist of his argument—the distinction between State and municipal suffrage, concerning which he says "there is apt to be a complete confusion of ideas," and he announces that "there is a wide and impassable gulf between them, as we shall speedily see." He then proceeds to reproduce, with much padding, the description of this distinction and the reasons of it contained in the report of the Municipal Commission of 1877. This done, he describes the functions of municipal governments, following in this also, on all fours, the report of the Commission, and finally reaches his remedy for the evils of universal suffrage in municipal affairs, which is the restriction of the suffrage to taxpayers, which he introduces by much trite exposition about the incidence of taxation ; in other words, after having adopted the arguments of the Commission he adopts their plan. All this, however, convicts him of nothing disreputable. A reader of the article, who had also read the report, would conclude that the author was simply trying to support and spread the ideas of the Commission with a little added illustration of his own, if he had not appended the following amusing foot-note :

"A word on the constitutional amendments proposed by Governor Tilden's Municipal Charters Commission is in place here. Those amendments were defeated even before they could be directly voted upon ; and it was well for this city that they failed of adoption. The scheme they proposed was crude, and in practice must inevitably and disastrously fail of the purpose intended. The machinery they set up was of such a character as to make its control a prize of great value to any political party ; and, once obtained, the task of taking it from their hands would have been one of much time and difficulty, so elaborately was it guarded by constitutional restrictions. The gentlemen who framed the scheme thought they had guarded against such a capture by restricting the constituency to tax and rent-payers ; but any practical politician could have told them that this restriction would not stand the strain of two consecutive elections. Its evasion could be accomplished so easily, that this guarded constituency would have scarcely been recognizable from the constituency of universal suffrage."

This note puts the article in the category of unnatural crimes. Most plagiarists, if not all, conceal carefully the source of their ideas. To mention it boldly, with depreciatory remarks, is something new in the history of this species of immorality. "A word on the constitutional amendments" was not bad, coming from a writer who had made a twelve-page article out of the Commission's report and was going to draw pay for it. We trust the editors will look sharply after this monster of ingratitude in future.

—The fourth soirée of chamber-music by the Philharmonic Club was chiefly remarkable for a very satisfactory performance of Saint-Saëns's pianoforte Quintet in A major, Op. 14. This interesting composition has not been heard here since Von Bülow introduced it about four years ago. The pianoforte part is exceptionally brilliant, and was admirably performed by Mr. S. B. Mills, whom we do not remember to have heard to greater advantage. The second part, a lovely andante sostenuto, followed by a jubilant presto, is the gem of the composition. In this movement the stringed instruments have the greater importance, and here Mr. Müller, who had undertaken the violoncello part in Mr. Werner's absence, produced some charming effects. The last part, an allegro assai, is of a broad and majestic character, and was given in excellent style. Beethoven's great Quartet in E flat, Op. 74, received a rather cold and conventional interpretation, but it was played correctly as regards the mechanical part, and that is saying a great deal, for it abounds in difficulties for every instrument. The three remaining numbers, though not strictly belonging to the domain of chamber-music—they are only arrangements for string quintet with flute obligato—were little gems in their way, and received more favor from the general public than any of the other numbers. Two, a Romanza by Krug, and Beethoven's "Turkish March," had to be repeated in answer to the enthusiastic demonstrations of the audience.

—No more striking proof is needed of the steady popularity of Haydn's oratorios than the distinguished audience which crowded every available corner of Steinway Hall on Saturday last to listen to a performance of the "Creation" by the New York Oratorio Society. And, indeed, many of the airs and choruses that are familiar to us as household words appeared as fresh, young, and graceful on Saturday last as if they were heard for the first time. At this last performance the work of the chorus deserves to be mentioned with unqualified praise. Dr. Damrosch has gained a complete control over his singers—more so, we feel inclined to think, than over his instrumental forces. The finest shadings of pianissimo, crescendo, and decrescendo were produced with admirable effects by this chorus, consisting of more than two hundred voices. Such results can only be attributed to long and conscientious training by an intelligent and accomplished master, and for this Dr. Damrosch deserves the highest credit. That he feels rewarded by the success he has gained is evident from his having undertaken to produce this season two such great works as Berlioz's "Faust" and Bach's "Passion Music," neither of which has ever been performed in this country. Mr. Whitney sang his bass part on Saturday night in excellent style, but Miss Fritsch, the soprano, and Mr. Graff, the tenor, were totally unqualified for their task. The same judgment may be passed on both : their voices are insufficient for a large hall, their manner inartistic, their interpretation lacking in taste and spirit.

—It is nearly a year since we reviewed (*Nation*, No. 709) Mr. Charles E. Pascoe's useful and well-made book of theatrical biographies called "The Dramatic List," and now the second edition, revised and enlarged, comes to us bearing as a sort of secondary or optional title the new name of 'Our Actors and Actresses' (London : David Bogue). The new edition has been wholly remade ; it contains 432 single-columned pages, as against 358 double-columned pages in the earlier issue; the size of type and of the pages is about the same in each case. Mr. Pascoe—as is the wont of cataloguers—learns his business by hard experience, and his second edition is a great improvement on his first, though that was not at all a faulty book. Over a hundred additional actors and actresses now find their careers set forth in these pages, and the volume contains more than three hundred dramatic biographies, all of which have been submitted to the subjects for correction. The first edition was not more free from minor errors than first editions of books of reference generally are ; but in the second edition they are singularly few. A careful examination has only shown two : on p. 267 "La Marquise des Roues" should read "La Marquise des Rues" ; and on p. 128 Mr. Tom Taylor is said to have written "Plot and Passion," "in conjunction with Mr. John Lang."

Mr. Taylor has always strenuously denied this, declaring that Mr. Lang's sole share in the play was the gratuitous suggesting of the historic fact which was taken as the starting point of the play. These are trivial blemishes. Not only in the giving of fuller information, and about many more performers, and in the correction of trifling errors has Mr. Pascoe improved his book, but also in literary compactness: the long quotations from newspaper criticisms of new plays, giving at length their plots, have been omitted for the most part, and only important criticisms upon actors and actresses of some standing are retained. In short, Mr. Pascoe has done very well a thankless and difficult task of distinct utility; and it is to be hoped that his success may call forth a similar work about the chief dramatic artists of America.

—Simultaneously with the new edition of the 'Dramatic List' comes the first of what, it is hoped, will be an annual series of 'Dramatic Notes,' also edited by Mr. Pascoe. It is an application of Mr. Henry Blackburn's idea of unpretentiously illustrating the catalogue of the annual picture shows. 'Academy Notes' has seen its example copied not only in this country, always quick to take up new suggestions, but also in France. 'Dramatic Notes' does for the theatrical year much what 'Academy Notes' does for the art exhibition. In a little less than a hundred pages Mr. Pascoe goes the round of the London theatres, giving the history of each for the year, with fifty-one drawings by Mr. Walter Wilson (reproduced mechanically but very effectively) showing us the leading situations and scenes and characters of the important plays. Some of the slight sketches are very good portraits; in the scenes from "Hamlet" and the "Merchant of Venice," tiny as the faces are, the features of Mr. Irving and Miss Terry are distinct and life-like. Just before the index at the end are eleven pages of the "casts" of the chief plays of the past year—a record of much utility.

—The proverbial ignorance of the French in matters geographical is about to become a thing of the past. Not that the character of the race was changed during the German war, or that the lessons then received were particularly heeded in this respect. It cannot, however, be denied that of late the study of geography has been taken up in France with great activity—witness, among other works, Vivien de St. Martin's great geographical dictionary, noticed in the *Nation* of January 29. Now the Government, through the Minister of the Interior, has authoritatively—and everybody knows what that means in France—taken the matter in hand, and under his direction a fresh survey of the French territory has been begun, the results of which are to be made known in a new map of France and Corsica, on the scale of 1:100,000 in nearly 600 sheets of 17x11 inches, each covering 38x28 kilometres of ground. Five thousand agents are constantly engaged, all over France, in sending in corrections, especially with regard to public highways and roads, the map being made by the "*service vicinal*." It is apparently got up after the pattern of the Prussian *Generalstabskarte*, and, to judge from the specimens received by B. Westermann & Co., is a neat piece of work in four colors, the population of each town, village, and borough being given, and the different stages of construction of roads and highways. Forests, water-courses, canals, post and telegraph-stations, churches, wind and water-mills, factories, etc., are clearly indicated. Twenty sheets were issued as a first instalment at 75 centimes each. Nearly all of the remaining ones are in preparation and over a hundred of them in the engravers' hands, so that ere long French generals will have maps of their own country, should another invasion take place, and will be spared their curious experiences at the beginning of the last war, when the commander of the Second Corps had to telegraph from St. Avold to the Secretary of War: "We receive large quantities of maps which for the moment [they were maps of Germany] are entirely superfluous. We have, on the contrary, not a single map of the border departments of France." We may add here, as a fact not generally known, that, probably in consequence of some such appeal, and there being no available French maps, the Secretary sent an order for several thousand of the little route-maps from Baedeker's guide-books to a German book-importer in Paris, who, however, patriotically declined to fill the order. The French fleet labored under the same difficulties, to judge from a despatch from Brest to the Navy Department: "There are no maps of the German and Baltic Seas here, and we shall need eleven sets," etc. The twenty maps thus far ready are devoted to the Departments of Vendée and Marne.

—There are indications that the Zola school of scientific realism has found disciples even in Norway. We refer especially to a young author, Alexander L. Kielland, whose first book, a collection of novelettes, has been received with great favor by the Scandinavian public. What especially impresses one in this book is its exquisite workmanship, which reminds one of the best things that Daudet has written in the same vein, such as 'Lettres de mon Moulin,' and 'Contes Choisis.' Mr. Kielland's little stories all have a certain Parisian finish and epigrammatic sparkle. The old school in Norwegian literature was bombastic, declamatory, and ready to shout on the smallest provocation for "Old Norway." The reaction against this hollow vainglory was begun by Ibsen, who in his 'Peer Gynt' mercilessly lashed the narrow but loud-voiced patriotism of his countrymen. Mr. Kielland shows this same tendency to explode patriotic and sentimental shams. He is intellectually a descendant of Ibsen and Welhaven rather than of Björnson and Wergeland. He satirizes with admirable *esprit* the innocent provincialism which makes the Norseman so contented within his narrow social horizon, and fills him with gratitude to Providence whenever (as he frequently does) he draws the contrast between the moral purity of his own surroundings and the altogether deplorable condition of the great and corrupt society abroad. Nevertheless, the very inevitableness of the sad *dénouement* in Mr. Kielland's stories would make them positively disheartening, if the author's piquant style and dainty humor did not absorb the reader's interest almost to the exclusion of the incidents of the plot, which are of a quiet, every-day character, and neither startling nor sensational.

—After long silence Professor Müllenhoff has resumed his publications on the subject of German mythology and *Heldensage* in the *Zeitschrift für deutsches Alterthum*. The article (xxiii. 1–22) entitled "Irmin und seine Brüder" discusses exhaustively the etymology of the names Irmin, Istvaeones, Ingvaeones. A shorter article treats of the goddess Tanfana (Tabana), whose name Grimm could not explain: Müllenhoff connects it with *δαπανος*, Latin *daps*, A.-S. *tiber*. A third article of nearly twenty pages deals with the alleged historical connection between the Sugambri (of Cæsar, Tacitus, etc.) and the Salic Franks. After collating all the passages from Latin and Greek authors Müllenhoff, in opposition to Waitz, rejects the generally assumed connection. Article number four—very short—disposes of an obscure passage in an old Latin commentary on Luke, which Krafft ventured to attribute to the Gothic bishop Vulfila. The passage ends with the word *hore*, which Krafft and Grimm were disposed to regard as the mutilated form of a Gothic word, horeanda (haurjanda). Stüdemund and Krüger, having re-examined the manuscript, declare that *hore* is *not* mutilated in the manuscript, but the rest of the line merely left blank. Consequently we have no right to assume a Gothic form, much less to attribute the text to Vulfila. The creation of a Gothic divinity is without foundation. More interesting is a fifth article, of sixty pages, on "Sigfrid's Ahnen." It is the first of a projected series on the *Nibelungen-sage*, and aims at defending the integrity and *Ursprünglichkeit* of the sage against the recent destructive criticism of Symons, in Paul u. Braune's 'Beiträge' (iii. 200–303). Any résumé, however brief, of such an article would far exceed our limits. The author's reputation as an investigator is so high that no utterance of his will fail to receive careful attention. So far as we are competent to pronounce an opinion, we must think that Symons and Müllenhoff are both correct in principle; the former in maintaining that the component parts of the Eddas are of very unequal value, and that the present office of the Edda-scholar is to ascertain with reasonable precision the several degrees of *Ursprünglichkeit*; the latter in claiming for the Sigfrid-sage in particular the highest antiquity and a distinctively German (*i.e.*, Continental) origin. Müllenhoff's article discusses with singular acuteness a number of the knottiest points in the *Heldensage*, and is unquestionably the most valuable essay that has appeared for many years.

—Even since the above was written we have received additional evidence of the danger of trusting too much to the Eddas. In a recent number of the *Academy* (Nov. 29) Mr. Sweet gives an extract of Bugge's recent paper on the composition of the Eddas. Prof. Bugge holds that the greater part of them is not of common German origin at all, but borrowed through the English-Celts from Greco-Roman or Jewish-Christian sources. Thus, the Baldermyth, usually regarded as the bright peculiar flower of Scandinavian mythology, is, according to Bugge, a curiously modified version of the Greek Paris-legend. A. Bang, also, maintains that the Völuspa, instead of being the most archaic embodiment of German belief, is only an adaptation of the Latin pseudo-Sibylline prophecies. It is evident that we shall probably have to reconstruct our entire system of Germanic mythology.

—Arturo Graf, Professor of the Romance languages in the University of Turin, published in 1878 an interesting lecture on one of the best-known mediæval legends. It is entitled 'La Leggenda del Paradiso Terrestre,'

and contains a careful examination of the various versions of the legend which was such an important factor in geographical discovery until a comparatively late date. The notes, which fill sixty pages, are a mine of legendary lore, and their value is increased by an extract from an Old-French poem of the thirteenth century, on the journey of Seth to Paradise, published for the first time. This poem, of which three hundred and sixty-seven lines are given from the MS. in the National Library of Turin, forms part of one of those poetical paraphrases of the Bible so popular during the Middle Ages, and is in decasyllabic *tirades monorimes*. The version of the story which it presents belongs to the second class established by Mussafia in his article on the wood of the Cross ('Sulla Leggenda del Legno della Croce,' Vienna, 1869), in which Seth brings back from Paradise three seeds of the apple eaten by his parents. These seeds are placed in Adam's mouth when he is buried, and from them springs the tree which afterwards furnishes the wood of the Cross. The poem offers many interesting peculiarities, such as a description of Purgatory, "qui garde paradis," and the statement that God gave the tree of the forbidden fruit to "the enemies" for a service done in draining the land at the Creation. Prof. Graf's work shows careful research.

—Nothing is more remarkable in German political and social history than the inconspicuous part played by lawyers as supporters or opponents of the crown, or, aside from active politics, as centres of public attention and influential members of society. A glance at German legal history, however, such as is given by Mr. J. Baron in a recent number of *Nord und Süd*, provides us with a key to the puzzle. Till the period of the Renaissance, the development of German law was essentially the same as that of English; but at this time a sudden and complete revolution took place, far surpassing in importance any legal change before or since. "In art and philosophy," remarks Mr. Baron, "the ancient world stepped forth as a teacher; but in jurisprudence as lord and master." Not only were the old laws and the old administration of law swept away, but the change was so entire as completely to destroy among the people that most effective sanction of law—its traditional and customary character. Hitherto the only duties of a judge were to call the court together and preside at the meeting; the verdict was given by representatives of the people (called *Schöffen*), whose opinion he was obliged to ask. This procedure not only secured confidence in the administration of justice, but made a general knowledge and understanding of law well nigh universal. With the introduction of Roman and canon law, however, all elements of the court, except the judge, were abolished; while this officer, instead of being a popular functionary, as before, was now a mere book-lawyer, administering principles often at variance not merely with the habits, but also with the ideas, of the parties interested.

—By the legislation of 1876–77, which has just come into operation, popular courts are in large measure restored. The law, as advocated by the Prussian Government, divided criminal cases into three classes, all to be tried by so-called Schöffen-courts, but the clamor of the press against these and in favor of jury trials led to a compromise. A Schöffen-court consists of a judge assisted by two Schöffen—*i.e.*, men chosen by the Crown in the same manner as jurymen. Their functions are not divided, and their votes are of equal value. By the code as adopted, cases of the first (least important) description are decided by tribunals thus organized; those of the second class by courts of the old (*ante* 1848) pattern; those of the third by bench and jury together. The latter body consists of twelve men, and their powers are limited to the decision of guilty or not guilty, the bench (of three judges) using its own discretion in the matter of punishment. The same system is followed in civil cases, the court of first instance being formed of a judge and two shop-keepers or artisans. Another important change is the abolition of the monopoly of the Government attorneys. Hitherto these officers have united to their other functions that of our grand juries, and there was no redress for a complainant whose case the crown attorney refused to take in hand. Now, however, a plaintiff to whom the latter has granted leave to withdraw can apply to the court for a mandamus compelling him to undertake the case. But, as regards the professional character and social position of lawyers, the most important improvements are the provisions which abolish the bar as a privileged class, admittance to which was as much dependent upon official favor as upon personal qualifications, and which made lawyers almost as much Government servants as were its paid officials. Complementary to this increased liberty is a new rule requiring every litigant to employ counsel. While these regulations will tend to promote greater ability and independence among the bar, another change is likely to encourage forensic display and individual reputation. Though the Prussian code allowed oral arguments, in practice only written pleas were in use. The counsellor heard his client's story (unless he was a busy man; in which case his managing-clerk did this part of the business), whereupon he (or his clerk) wrote out a plea, which was presented to the court. The presiding judge then handed over the two pleas to one of his assistants (called the *Referent* in the case), who condensed them into a paper called the *Referat*, which, at the hearing of the case, he read aloud, the other proceedings being purely formal. This procedure, derived from that of the canon law, lasted in Prussia in criminal cases down to 1849, and in civil cases, in the greater part of Germany, till the 1st of October last.

METTERNICH.*

THE Ahitophel of the Emperor Francis and Mentor of the Emperor Ferdinand, who guided the destinies of Austria from the days that followed the disaster at Wagram in July, 1809, to the day of his own downfall, March 13, 1848; the man who coped with Haugwitz, Stein, and Canning, and more than once led Hardenberg, Nesselrode, and Talleyrand; who dazzled and irritated Alexander I. by his sagacity, subdued Frederic William III. by his consistency, and won the admiration of Napoleon by the astute use of his tongue; who, after surrendering his master's daughter to his French conqueror, sealed the latter's doom by joining his foes on the eve of the battle of Leipzig; who was the leading genius, the great wire-puller, of the Congress of Vienna, and the dictator of reaction at Carlsbad, Troppau, Laybach, and Verona; who guarded the equilibrium and peace of Europe against Russia under Nicholas and against France under Louis-Philippe; who supported the bloody absolutism of Ferdinand of Naples, of Ferdinand of Spain, of Dom Miguel, and of Sultan Mahmoud; who, always eager to stifle every popular movement within his reach, kept Silvio Pellico, Ypsilanti, and Kossuth prisoners in his fortresses; whose systematic conservatism and cunningly procrastinating policy preserved the prestige of Austria abroad, but made her glide toward dissolution from within—Prince Metternich has revealed himself in autobiographical sketches, reports, and notes, selected and published by his son: who should not hasten to read them? Two volumes from the pen of a man who made so much history, who held all the threads of European diplomacy in his hands through half a century, ought to be a mine of historical information, of political wisdom of some sort or other, of piquant revelations.

For our part we feel greatly disappointed. We have read and digested Metternich's posthumous history of his time down to 1815, with his contemporary communications, and our gain for the general knowledge of that extraordinary period is—compared to what we were entitled to expect—exceedingly slight. The two volumes before us hardly contain a fact that was not known a great many years ago, hardly a reflection that is seriously worth pondering, hardly a personal sketch that has not been better and more faithfully executed by many a writer of less exalted standing. These papers—the reports especially—are certainly worth reading, but, to those familiar with the history of the period, merely for the sake of refreshing impressions obtained from other and more copious sources. Hundreds of striking events are touched upon, and scores of historical characters lightly drawn, by Metternich, and yet hardly an event or a character is modified in its aspect from what we long ago learned it to be. The writer himself, though he labors hard to paint himself for posterity, and, besides, betrays himself by many an unguarded stroke of the pen, remains the Metternich whom Europe knew when he guided Francis and covered Ferdinand. The principal satisfaction which these memoirs give us is the knowledge that so great an authority has so little to teach us. To make things clear, let us follow him a while in his autobiographical narratives:

Born at Coblentz in 1773 (he died in 1859) his youth coincided with the period which immediately preceded the "social revolution" in France—that is, the revolution of 1789. He grew up under the influences of the position in which he was born: his father's public station in the German

* 'Aus Metternich's nachgelassenen Papieren. Herausgegeben von dem Sohne des Staatskanzlers, Fürsten Richard Metternich-Winneburg. Geordnet und zusammengestellt von Alfons von Klinkowström. Autorisirte deutsche Originalausgabe.' Vols. i. and ii. Vienna: W. Braumüller; New York: G. Stechert. 1880.

'Mémoires, documents et écrits divers laissés par le Prince de Metternich, Chancelier de Cour et d'Etat. Publiés par son fils, le Prince Richard de Metternich. Classés et reunis par M. A. de Klinkowstrœm. Première partie: Depuis la naissance de Metternich jusqu'au Congrès de Vienne (1773–1815).' Two volumes. Paris: E. Plon et Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern. 1880.

'Memoirs of Prince Metternich, 1773–1815. Edited by Prince Richard Metternich; the papers classified and arranged by M. A. de Klinkowström. Translated by Mrs. Alexander Napier.' Two volumes. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1880.

Imperial service, French social life, and "the moral laxity which characterized the smaller German States, before the storm burst forth which was soon to annihilate them." This candid admission—which, however, is to cover many sins of this and other periods of his life—is followed by little-interesting remarks concerning his teachers and student years at Strasbourg and Mainz, his early-acquired abhorrence of Jacobinism, his presence at the successive coronations of the Emperors Leopold and Francis at Frankfort, and his experience among the *émigrés* who flocked to Coblentz. "In the latter part of the summer" of 1792 he went to Brussels. "The war was at its height." He "passed to and fro between Brussels and the army. . . . On one of these occasions," as he was returning to that city, an adjutant of the Austrian army informed him that Dumouriez had just seized the commissaries of the Convention, and sent them to the Austrian outposts, whither that French commander himself soon followed them. This event, however, took place neither in the summer nor in the fall or winter of 1792, but in the spring of 1793, and this chronological inaccuracy is only a specimen of the old Chancellor's loose way of narrating his remembrances. In the following winter Metternich accompanied a high official on a mission to England, where he was cordially received by George III., and "came to know William Pitt, Charles Fox, Burke, Sheridan, Charles Grey," and also "the Prince of Wales, afterwards regent of the kingdom, and at last king under the name of George IV." This is a sample of close identification, and the following is one of, perhaps, less exact portraiture: "The Prince of Wales was one of the handsomest men I ever saw, and to an agreeable exterior he added the most charming manners. He possessed a sound intelligence, which alone preserved him from being corrupted by the bad society in which he moved with ease himself, without permitting the slightest want of respect in others."

Metternich was appointed in 1794 imperial minister to the Hague, but the French conquered Holland. The greater part of the estates of his family, lying on the left bank of the Rhine, "had been confiscated by *the great nation*." So he went to Vienna, where, in 1795, he married a granddaughter of Kaunitz. Home duties and study continued for a time to be his occupation. He attended lectures on geology, chemistry, and physics, and followed with attention the progress of medical science. "Man and his life," he wisely remarks, "seemed to me objects worthy of study." And so they have seemed to others. He "loved the fine arts, too." Happy in the society of men of science and art, he "allowed the Revolution to rage and rave without feeling any call to contend with it." Yet he tells us elsewhere that he studied law at Mainz for the very purpose of contending with the Revolution. He yielded to the ruling of Providence, he says here. The Congress of Rastadt drew him out of his retirement. He attended it in an official capacity, and remained at Rastadt till the middle of March, 1799. A short time after his return to Vienna he "learned the catastrophe which signalized the end of the Congress"—that is, the massacre of the departing French envoys by Austrian hussars for the sake of getting at secret papers. The gentle allusion is apologetic, and there is much of the same kind in these memoirs. The writer knows that, in his long career, he has often been accused and suspected of originating acts disgraceful to the annals of Austria—even the later *Jacquerie* in Austrian Poland (1846) was charged to his anti-revolutionary preventive machinations—and he is, therefore, very anxious to clear his skirts.

When he was young, "inaccessible to prejudice, and seeking only the truth in everything," his "modesty did not allow" him to find fault with persons in power. The diplomatic career might certainly have flattered his ambition; "but during all my life," he says, "I have never been accessible to this feeling." "I had far more prospect of succumbing materially than of succeeding; I say materially, for I have never been afraid of failing morally." Yet he accepted the embassies to Dresden (1801), Berlin (1804), and Paris (1806): "I did not, indeed, fear to go wrong, as so many had done, from a heated imagination or self-love, for I felt myself free from these failings." He was face to face with the then ruler of the world: "I had the courage never to offer to mere circumstance a sacrifice which I could not defend to my conscience, both as a statesman and as a private individual. This voice of conscience I followed." After the peace of 1809 he was made curator of the Academy of Fine Arts in Vienna; it was "a most congenial sphere of activity, in which there was full scope for my strong consciousness of duty." He had baffled Napoleon in 1813: "Napoleon thinks of me continually; of this I am certain; I must appear to him like a sort of conscience personified." And wisdom personified he was to Francis, a congenial monarch, "in everything loving and seeking only the truth, firm in his principles and just in his opinions." Many "extraordinary results" were due only to Francis's "energy, his determination, and his virtues." "The Emperor Francis united in himself the most valuable positive qualities"—"calmness, impartiality, soundness of judgment," etc. Let us add that the Emperor Alexander, too, had for Francis "a feeling of devotion which almost resembled the veneration of a child." That Russian monarch is depicted in a "portrait" (of 1829), which agrees much better than the preceding pictures with the verdict of history. Here is a part of it:

"Alexander's character showed a peculiar mixture of masculine virtues and feminine weaknesses. . . . Alexander certainly possessed mind, but his mind, refined and keen as it was, had no depth; he was as easily led astray by an excess of distrust as by an inclination to erroneous theories. His judgment was always influenced by fanciful ideas; he seized upon them as if by sudden inspiration, and with the greatest eagerness. . . . Such ideas soon came to be regarded by him as systems; quick as his mind was, even to an extraordinary versatility, these systems did not assimilate, they followed one another in rapid succession. . . . Alexander's life was worn out between devotion to certain systems and disappointment in their results; the feelings prompted by both moods were spontaneous and vigorous, and, strange as it may sound, their course showed a certain periodicity. . . . In 1805 I found him liberal in the widest sense of the word, and a bitter enemy of Bonaparte; he loaded him—in the double quality of despot and conqueror—with execrations. In the year 1807 a great change came over his mode of thinking. In 1808 his personal feelings even inclined toward the Emperor of the French. The year 1812 brought a new change in his mood; even if Napoleon had not made war on Russia, Alexander's feelings for him would have died away. The old ideas of philanthropy and free-thinking had not only regained their power over his mind, but they even took fire from the spirit of the time. In 1814 they had reached their highest point. In 1815 they had already given way to religious mysticism. In the year 1817 this new turn of mind underwent a great change; and in 1818 I found the Emperor a zealous champion of monarchic and conservative principles, a declared enemy of every revolutionary tendency, and already on his way to return to religious mysticism. He followed this direction till 1823. . . . The monarch who in his own empire worked so much into the hands of the revolutionists, succumbed mentally and bodily in the fight. The Emperor Alexander died of weariness of life. . . . Before his time the germ of a false civilization had been sown on the soil of his vast empire. Well-known revolutionists, after having guided his education, exercised an evil influence on the mind of the young monarch. Alexander, without experience and full of vain theories, caused evil where he only intended good. He deceived himself, and the discovery of his errors brought him to the grave."

This extract may serve as a specimen of Metternich's best and subjectively truest delineations of character. His "portrait" of Napoleon, drawn in 1820, and complemented by "contributions to the portrait" of various dates, is, perhaps, equally correct; but while his sketch of Alexander may still have some value as confirming sound views on a character less generally known, the picture of Bonaparte contains no features which would now be new to anybody, though it may have had some merit at the time when it was drawn. Napoleon the Austrian Chancellor always and justly considered his enemy, even when Austria's daughter had displaced Josephine on the throne of France; hence the Corsican's character and policy are always, though perhaps not fully, exposed in their villany. That the Corsican's genius also appears in its true light is not surprising, if we consider that that genius in 1813–14 succumbed to the cool and intrepid cunning of the Austrian diplomatist. Spain's fanaticism and Muscovy's winter exhausted Napoleon's thunderbolts, and Wellington and Blücher finally broke his sword; but it was in reality Metternich's dogged fidelity to the interests of his master and empire which triumphed over him. Napoleon is never lost sight of in these Memoirs, but the great historical page in them, in the writer's estimation, is that which describes Metternich's meeting with Napoleon at Dresden, in June, 1813, when the decision between Europe and the French Empire was to be rendered by the oracle of Austria. This page of history, were it new, would suffice to make the book valuable; but Metternich made it known in 1820, Thiers reproduced it *mutatis mutandis* in his 'History of the Consulate and the Empire,' and Helfert gave it entire in his 'Marie Louise.'

After the destruction of "the grand army" on the frozen plains of Russia, Metternich had strenuously prepared Austria for the rôle of armed mediator between Napoleon and northern Europe. Napoleon had as strenuously armed anew for maintaining his hold on Germany and recovering his military prestige. But his resources were crippled and his armies were raw levies, while the forces of Austria had strongly recuperated since Wagram, and were now gathering in Bohemia on the flank of the French. The respective positions were well known to both Napoleon and Metternich, when they met and conversed for nine hours at the Marcolini palace; but the conqueror, elated by advantages gained over the Russians

and Prussians at Lützen and Bautzen, was again inclined to deceive himself, and tried by turns to cow and coax the representative of his father-in-law, while Metternich was fully prepared both for his Jovelike menaces and almost cringing appeals, and cruelly bent on wounding and humbling him. He certainly achieved the one and the other, but it is hard to say *cui bono*. If a rupture was the foregone conclusion, what use was there for him in the prolongation of the armistice between the French and the allies, which was the small result of the great scene? If the real aim was the forcing of Napoleon into accepting the armed mediation, which would have at once raised Austria to the position of arbiter of Europe, a less vindictively arrogant, less venomously provoking way of treating was certainly demanded. The whole affair seems to have been the great pride of Metternich, but it strikes us that it is in reality the great blot on his well-merited reputation for cold shrewdness; that Thiers is right when he ascribes the advantage gained to the opposite side; that Napoleon, with all his passion, feigned and real, succeeded in overmatching his adversary, who this time was satisfied with a sentimental gain. Fortune, it is true, had already abandoned Napoleon, and his gain was illusory. The die was soon cast, and Kulm and Leipzig followed.

Great, indeed, must have been Metternich's proud excitement when he came out of the Marcolini palace, leaving Napoleon impotently raging behind him. But this feeling is not described or alluded to. Nor can we discover any other personal feeling of his own expressed in Metternich's autobiographical narratives. He writes of Austria's defeats and successes, of her deepest disgrace or sudden recovery, with the coolness of a diplomatic machine. He writes so of himself—in 1829, in 1844, in 1853. His own fortunes were closely bound up with those of Austria, and he zealously, assiduously, cleverly labored for the promotion of her interests, as he understood them; and in so doing he seems to have sincerely believed he was also working for the general good of Europe. His reports reflect both his sincere zeal and great ability. The restoration of the preponderance of Austria in the centre of the continent; the establishment of a universal equilibrium of power through the curbing of France and Prussia as disturbing elements; the subsequent preservation of peace at any cost; the guarding of all states against democratic movements; the prevention of all shocks from within or without—these were his public aims, and no sentimentalism—we were almost inclined to say, no sentiment—of any kind obstructed his way towards his goal. What were to him the national aspirations of Germany, Italy, Hungary, or Poland? He knew no nations, no peoples; only states, or rather empires.

We may have done some injustice to the book as a literary production by quoting, for the sake of convenience, from the English translation before us. This translation, which is identical with that published in London (by Bentley & Son) as the authorized English version, cannot exactly be said to be bad, but the inaccuracies which disfigure it here and there are really shocking. They are, of course, mainly the result of the publishers' hot haste in pressing toward the market, but they are in every way unpardonable. Let us see a few of them: the autobiographical parts and the notes of the original being in German, and the documents, which fill the whole second volume and a part of the first, in French, we have mistranslations from both languages and curious discrepancies. The same Russian who is always called Alopäus in the first volume is always Alopéus in the second; Ratisbon is always Regensburg in the first, in the second it is Ratisbonne (*sic*, ii. 20). Piacenza appears as Plaisance, Lorraine as Lothringen, Murat as grand-duke "de Bergh," Maria Ludovica as grandduchess "von Este," Bremen as Brême ("Brême and Hamburg," ii. 158), the canton of Valais as La Vallée (i. 216), and ancient Lacedæmon and Phalerum as Lacedemonia and Phalera (ii. 595). We read of the "province of Wieselburg" (i. 107), of the Hungarian "Palatin" (i. 97), of the Austrian "internonce" (ii. 330, 332), of "the ribbon of St. Etienne" (i. 299), of "the question of the Pay Bas" (ii. 186), of "bandits known as 'The Marseillaise'" (*sic* for *die Marseiller*, i. 6), and of troops comprising "the Saxons and the Polonese" (*les Saxons et les Polonais*, ii. 218)! Scores of times the German words for empire—*Reich* and *Kaiserreich*—are rendered by *kingdom* (i. 77, 89, 90, 163, 262, 263, 332, 343, etc., etc.), and thus we read again and again of the Austrian kingdom, of the kingdom of Alexander, of the kingdom of Napoleon. We also hear that "the Reign of Terror destroyed its own commanders just as cartridges [*die Kartätsche*] destroyed the soldiers." For *Jahrhunderte alte Republiken*—referring to Holland and Venice, the latter more than a thousand years old—we have "the republic of a hundred years" (i. 164). Of the many bad misprints one is worth mentioning: that which changes the Austrian *Hof- und Staats-Vice-Kanzler* Cobenzl into a "Vice-Chancellor of Courland State" (i. 64).

GENERAL POPE'S VIRGINIA CAMPAIGN.*

IN No. 554 of the *Nation*, upon the occasion of the appearance of the third part of General Gordon's 'History of the Second Massachusetts Regiment of Infantry,' we told our readers who he was, what he had written, and what manner of man and what manner of writer he was. His last publication is a large volume of nearly five hundred pages. The man is the same man that he was when we last spoke of him; he is as earnest as ever to find out the truth, and as ready to tell it, not only without fear or favor, but with a positive pleasure in hitting certain heads whenever he sees them. The writer has changed a good deal. He writes better than before; he has been very successful in suppressing the egotism which disfigured his last book, and he is less confused and obscure in his descriptions of fighting. Having been a participant in the campaign which he describes, being a graduate of West Point, a man of industry and intelligence, a vehement hater of certain men and yet a lover of truth and justice, he possesses many qualifications for the performance of the work which he has undertaken, and it must be conceded that this last book of his is one of very considerable interest and of considerable value.

The great trouble with General Gordon is that he writes too easily. It is plain that it is much more congenial to him to use his hand than to use his brain. He does not stop to think over his facts, to digest them, and to marshal them, but collects material from every quarter with active industry, and sends it off, superficially arranged, to the printer. The idea of adopting the *nonum prematur in annum* principle must seem inadmissible to him. This way of doing things leads to some careless writing, but it leads to some worse things. In the first place, there is not only nothing like compression, but there is intolerable expansion. We stagger under the weight of nearly five hundred large pages devoted to the account of three weeks' operations conducted by John Pope. There is no mystery about these operations now, and there has been none for a long time. A prodigious quantity of dust was thrown in our eyes at the time of the Porter court-martial by Pope and those who were his accomplices or dupes, and our sight was impaired by it for a good while, but the truth began to appear and our vision to clear at least as early as 1866, and ever since that time the facts have been getting to be more and more fully known and understood, great numbers of reports and letters of Confederate officers have been appearing in print, and at last we have had the voluminous "Proceedings and Report of the Board of Army Officers . . . in the Case of Fitz-John Porter," and there is probably no period of equal length in the war of secession of which so much is now known or knowable as this period of three weeks from the day of Cedar Mountain to the beginning of September, 1862.

If General Gordon had been contented or willing to take all this new material, and examine it, and collate it, and digest it, and to give to the public a work which was the result of this process and of the use of his own recollections, expressed in his straightforward and outspoken way, he would, in our judgment, have done much better than he has done. He seems too ready to think that what he meets with in print must be true. Thus, we find him making frequent citations, and with approval, from at least one book which we should have thought he would have distrusted from internal evidence. This experience causes a certain feeling of hesitation to attach to our reception of all the matter which he offers as new, and it is not easy to know what to accept or reject without following him to his authorities. Fortunately there is nothing in this case to call for the performance of so laborious a task. We have no doubt that General Gordon has apprehended accurately the main features of General Pope's campaign. He has told the story with perhaps unnecessary fulness and at least sufficient accuracy, while his book is almost always agreeable and some passages in it deserve higher praise, notably his eloquent tribute to General Meade, and his spirited account of Grover's charge on the 29th of August.

It is hardly worth while to print specimens of the carelessness of style to which we have referred. They are numerous, but not usually very serious. So of the author's sarcasm; there is a good deal of it, and it is generally superfluous and tedious, but we can pardon a good deal for the sake of the delightful statement that on a certain occasion Sigel's infantry "were

* 'History of the Campaign of the Army of Virginia under John Pope, Brigadier-General U. S A., late Major-General U. S. Volunteers, from Cedar Mountain to Alexandria, 1862. By George H. Gordon, . . . First Colonel Second Regiment Mass. Infantry; Brevet Major-General U. S. Volunteers.' Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1880.

evidently enjoying the purest delirium of New York militia achievement." Another evil effect of Gen. Gordon's letting his pen run away with him is that it leads to his filling page on page with denunciation of Halleck and Pope and ridicule of Sigel and Milroy. We are inclined to agree with him in his estimate of all these officers, but no one of them occupies such a pedestal in the temple of history that such *ingens molimen* is needed to dethrone him. Grant that Milroy was a lunatic, that Sigel and his troops were alike undisciplined and inefficient ("there should always be deducted from the divisions of this corps, except at meal times, a brigade at least of stragglers"), that Halleck was incompetent and arrogant and malignant, and that Pope was only less incompetent and equally wanting in other qualities of the higher manhood, it is not necessary to say these things over and over again, still less to indulge in long tirades as often as the name of any one of these unfortunates presents itself. Indeed there is little need to speak of Milroy and Sigel at all. As for Pope, the report of the Board of Army Officers has left him and the members of the court-martial which tried his charges against Porter in a position which makes it a charity to leave them unmolested, while Halleck stands condemned by the simple record of what he did and what he did not do. At the beginning of August, 1862, he was commander-in-chief. The Army of Virginia, under General Pope, was at and near Culpepper, and numbered some thirty thousand men, which force was increased soon after by the arrival of Reno with eight thousand men of the Ninth Corps, and of King with his division of about seven thousand. McClellan, at Harrison's Landing on the James, had an effective force of about ninety thousand men. It would not be easy to say how many more men there were in the defences of Washington, at Harper's Ferry, at Yorktown, at Fortress Monroe, etc., but it is probably not excessive to say that the commander-in-chief had one hundred and fifty thousand men disposable at this time, after leaving adequate garrisons in all places to which garrisons were indispensable, and that no one of these men was more than one hundred and twenty-five miles in a straight line from Washington. Lee was in the neighborhood of Gordonsville, confronting Pope and protecting Richmond. He had the control of such forces as to make seventy thousand a liberal estimate of the maximum which he could use, not only in any one field but in any one series of operations. If any trained soldier should be told this, and reminded that the resources of the United States in money, stores, munitions, ships, etc., were practically unlimited, and then should be shown the map of Eastern Virginia, with its frequent rivers and bays and all its water in the undisputed control of our navy, and, finally, should be informed that General Hallock so bore himself in his high office that in one month these masses of Federal troops were driven to the protection of the defences of Washington, with heavy losses of killed, wounded, prisoners, guns, munitions, and stores of all kinds, while the victorious Confederate army betook itself to the fresh fields of Maryland, he would say that there was little need of denouncing such a man of war. For those, however, who wish to hear what Halleck was besides being incompetent, we may say that General Gordon declares him contemptuous, meddlesome, morose, revengeful, jealous, bitter, relentless, wrathful, arrogant, curt, timid, self-indulgent, splenetic, envious, discourteous, crafty, malignant, savage, scolding, ill-tempered, shirking, selfish, ignoble, and false.

We cannot spare the time to collect with the same diligence which we have employed in the case of Halleck the adjectives applied to Pope. Our own opinion is that Pope was a man of considerable ability, both as a soldier and as a man, but that the qualities of his head were superior to those of his character and heart. He was both deceived and beaten, but he had very able commanders opposed to him; he was not so badly beaten as some of the other commanders in Virginia; he was always ready to fight, and he wrote a very able report of his campaign. General Gordon pays his compliments to him throughout this volume with great vigor, with great persistency, and great fulness; but while we incline to agree with much of what he says about him, we still think that, though Pope may have been as black, he was not so incompetent, as he is painted.

We must add to the list of ill-consequences attendant on indulgence of easy writing the frequent appearance of objectionable eloquence. Thus the Confederates are spoken of once as "driven" and twice as "hurled" across the Potomac by McClellan at the battle of the Antietam. This is quite wrong. The most that can be said of that battle is that we gained a little ground, and that for an invader not to win is to fail—or, in other words, that for an invader a drawn battle is equivalent to a defeat. Most of the hard fighting of the 17th of September, 1862, was done early in the day. The Confederates held their positions the rest of that day, all that night, and all day of the eighteenth, and crossed the Potomac in retreat, quietly and without molestation, on the night of the 18th. The only "hurling" that was done was done by them to some of our men who crossed to the Virginia side of the Potomac a day or two after the battle. So General Gordon speaks of Porter as "first of all from the Army of the Potomac hurrying forward to reinforce Pope"; of his own brigade as "crouching under blankets in the dismal hours of that night of horrors [to wit: the night of the first of September, in the Southern State of Virginia], in cold, in flood, and hunger, in such bodily torture that even the battle-field would have been a relief"; of McClellan as "hastening with his wearied and half-famished troops" upon the Maryland campaign, etc., etc. All this is exaggerated and untrue, and some of it puerile. Porter could not "hurry forward," if he wished to do so. A corps commander, like other officers, must obey his orders. There was no "bodily torture" on the night after Chantilly. There was some heavy rain; but those of us who had blankets and no wounds thought we were very well off. Wet nights without fire or food were not very rare occurrences in those days. McClellan's army was neither weary nor hungry at the time named. We were well rested and well fed when we began our march through the lovely Maryland country. Such statements mislead those who do not know and nettle those who do. Sympathizing as we do with General Gordon's spirit, respecting as we do his character and his personal history, and admiring as we do his industry, we regret that so much good work should be so burdened with superfluities and so disfigured with blemishes. His faults are such that the reviewer cannot help noticing them, and yet there is real merit in the book. The volume before us is the only tolerably complete work on Pope's campaign, and it is thoroughly readable. It is so good that we are vexed that it is not better.

The story of the battle of the Antietam has never been adequately told. Gordon's noble regiment fought there, within three weeks of the date at which the present volume closes. Let him tell the tale of that short but tremendous struggle with the fidelity with which he has portrayed Pope's campaign, and with as much improvement upon his 'History of the Campaign of the Army of Virginia' as we recognize in that volume when compared with the third part of his 'History of the Second Massachusetts Regiment,' and he will deserve and receive the thanks of his countrymen and take a high place among the writers on our war.

RECENT WORKS ON FINE ART AND ARTISTS.*

IN noticing, some weeks ago, 'Illustrations of the History of Art' we spoke of it as calculated to be useful if people only knew how to use it. A large collection of woodcuts of buildings and parts of buildings, statues and groups, bas-reliefs, paintings and pieces of decorative design, but without text by way of analysis, discussion, or even detailed description, has a status something like that of *Punch's* favorite answers to conundrums that have not yet been composed; they are illustrations to a book that has not been written. Now, if the publishers will have prepared a skeleton treatise on the fine arts, following the order of the woodcuts in these folios, and avowedly written to fit them, there will then be a text-book which every school might advisedly possess. Weekly talks about these pictures by the teacher to the pupils would be good; but the teacher in most instances will be found as uninformed about the objects represented as the pupils themselves, and it is into the teacher's hand that our imagined treatise should be put. The children being interested by any one of the illustrations, the teacher consults the index of the text-book and develops from what is found there her little lecture on the subject. These remarks are apropos of the third part, which treats of "Architecture and Sculpture of the Renaissance Period and of Modern Times."

The text which we desire to see written to accompany the last-named work must not be at all of the character of 'Great Lights in Sculpture and Painting,' which contains little discussion of art or of works of art, but is devoted almost wholly to gossipy anecdotes about artists. Here we have the old scraps of legend about Apelles and Zeuxis, entertaining old stories, whose ill-luck it has been to mislead moderns wofully and to help

* 'Illustrations of the History of Art.' Series III. Boston: L. Prang & Co.
'Great Lights in Sculpture and Painting: A Manual for Young Students. By S. D. Doremus.' Pp. 218. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880.
'Common Sense in Church Building. Illustrated by seven original plates. By E. C. Gardner, author of 'Homes and How to Make Them,' etc.' Pp. 166. New York: Bicknell & Comstock 1880.
'Illustrated Biographies of the Great Artists. Sir Peter Paul Rubens, by Chas. W. Kett, M.A.; William Hogarth, by Austin Dobson.' New York: Scribner & Welford.
'The Early Teutonic, Italian, and French Masters. Translated and edited from the Dohme series, by A. H. Keane, M.A.I.' With Numerous Illustrations. London: Chatto & Windus; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott. 1880. Large 8vo, pp. xvi.–559.

prove how the writers of a great art-epoch misunderstand the arts. Here are the well-known stories about Giotto and Andrea, bits of Cellini's autobiography, and traditions about Titian and Charles V.—all amusing enough for the new generation which is coming on and has not read them yet, but valueless, or perhaps worse than valueless, for the study of fine art. The book pretends to be nothing more than pieces prepared for dictation to pupils. It is only to be wished that the stories had been selected for their bearing on art itself, or as characteristic of an artist or of a school, and also as probably true instead of merely legendary.

A book more novel in character, and far more likely to do good in one way or another, is 'Common Sense in Church Building.' The author has published works of similar character before. In the present one it is supposed that a city church is to be built, that the clergyman writes to an architect who is an old friend of his, that different influential members of the congregation also take part in the debate by means of letters to the same architect and in other ways, and that the architect answers all these letters and appeals quite at length, earning his commission, or nearly so, before any plans are submitted. Some interesting little plans are enclosed in his letters, indeed, but these are rather to illustrate the theories he is busy developing than to embody his ideas of the church building needed in the particular case in hand. A little country church comes up also for discussion. In all of this tossing back and forth of the shuttlecock of common sense and practical requirements there is a great opportunity for stating sound principles and suggesting improvements upon modern church-planning. The book is too small and too familiar to allow anything to be discussed thoroughly, but it is sensible and good as far as it goes.

Among the soundest contributions to the modern popularization of fine art are certainly the "Illustrated Biographies of Great Artists." Eight of them have been noticed already in these columns; we have now to mention the volumes which treat of Hogarth and Rubens. Of these the latter is probably the most important, because containing much information new, or nearly new, or at least inaccessible to most readers. But each is good, sufficiently full for its purpose, sympathetic in criticism, and evidently the work of a true student and admirer. The Hogarth volume has, like most of the volumes of the series, a tolerably full list of the author's works, both paintings and engravings. The Rubens list is declared out of the question because necessarily too long, but the general index names a number of the most important of the pictures described in the text. The illustrations are the weak point in all these volumes. It is impossible to avoid wishing them away. In the case of the Hogarth they are fac-similed from his prints, very sensibly giving a section at the full size rather than a reduced copy of the whole, but the process employed is far from being faultless.

The comprehensive work on 'The Art and Artists of the Middle Ages and of Modern Times,' edited by Dr. Dohme, and carried out as it has been with the assistance of many of the most eminent German students of the history of art, well deserves, notwithstanding its size, a complete and careful translation into English. The subject is treated for the most part in biographies of famous artists, each written by some one specially competent for the task, and each embodying the results of the latest investigations and criticism. In spite of the variety of authors and the diversity of style in its different sections, the work is uniformly good, and some portions of it form genuine and remarkable contributions to knowledge. Springer's elaborate Lives of Raffael and Michelangelo, for example, are by far the most valuable existing biographies of these artists; they are the result of studies pursued for twenty-five years, and join to accurate and abundant knowledge judicious criticism and discriminating taste. If no other portion of the work is to be compared with this in fulness and importance, yet the minor biographies, by such writers as Semper, Woltmann, and Alwin Schultz, display hardly less thoroughness of research and familiarity with their subjects. A translation of the whole work is, therefore, much to be desired, and if issued in parts of reasonable size and at not infrequent intervals, it could hardly fail of a wide circulation among the increasing numbers of the students of the history of the arts, who at present are destitute of trustworthy guides in English. The lack of works in English of any substantial value upon the history both of ancient and modern art is surprising, considering how general the desire for information upon the subject has become in a large class of English readers.

In the absence of a complete translation, a volume of selections from Dohme's series is welcome. Mr. Keane's principle of selection is tolerably arbitrary, and the title he has chosen of 'The *Early* Teutonic, Italian, and French Masters' does not correctly represent the substance of his volume, since the earliest Italian master whose life he has translated is Masaccio, and the earliest French master, Poussin. The choice of lives of the masters of these two countries which Mr. Keane gives us is perhaps such as a general reader might make, but is by no means satisfactory to a reader with some preliminary information as to the significance of the artists whose lives are translated or omitted. Another point to be noticed is that they are all of painters; so that while we have Masaccio and Filippo Lippi, we miss Brunelleschi, Donatello, and Luca della Robbia. And among the painters the motive of choice is not always clear; the lives of Fra Bartolommeo and Sodoma are translated, while those of Fra Angelico, Perugino, and Verrocchio are omitted.

The translation itself is perhaps better, a little better, in character than that to which we have been accustomed in recent versions from the German of books relating to the arts. It is not so blundering as the translation of Grimm's 'Michelangelo,' or of Lübke's 'History of Sculpture,' for example. The translator has plainly tried to do his best, but he is not very sure of his German, and his English is not always exact. In one of the most interesting sections of the volume, that on the "German Minster-Builders," considerable confusion results from carelessness in the translation of the terms by which an important distinction is marked among the master-builders and stone-masons of the later Middle Ages. There were two separate categories of these masters, those who belonged to local guilds and had settled places of abode and of work, and those who belonged to one or other of the Masonic lodges which had their origin in the workshops of the great cathedrals, and who were employed in church-building from time to time in different localities according to the demand for work. It was not till the sixteenth century, when the building of great churches had for the most part ceased, that the important distinction between these two classes was gradually effaced.

In the life of Mantegna an error, very frequently repeated and annoying to a cultivated reader, is the constantly calling Ludovico Gonzaga of Mantua "the Margrave," and his wife, Isabella of Ferrara, "the Margravine," and for this blunder the original affords no excuse, as Herr Woltmann gives always, properly, *Marchese* and *Marchesa*. The same life affords a good many instances of English much finer than the German, as where in the German it is said that Correggio "got his wife from Mantua," in the English we find that there Correggio "contracted a matrimonial alliance." And just after, on the same page, where Dr. Woltmann says of Mantegna, in regard to his influence on the German masters, "He was infinitely instructive to them," his translator, instead of putting this simple phrase into good English, tells us that "he constituted for them a store-house of information."

On page 78 it is said, "In the sixtieth year of the fifteenth century the predominance of the Flemish school of painting was still undisputed even in South Germany"; it should have been said, "In the years from 1460 to 1470 the victory of the school of painting of the Low Countries was decisive even in Upper Germany." On page 83 it is asserted that "It is beyond all doubt that centuries before Schongauer handled the graver copper-plate had been discovered," which is to be corrected as follows: "It may be confidently assumed that the art of engraving on copper had been discovered at least twenty or thirty years (*schon mehrere Jahrzehnte*) before Schongauer handled the graver." The book is full of oversights like this. But while a more careful translation is waited for, the English reader may be glad to have even this, for it contains much information which he will hardly find in any other English publication.

William Lloyd Garrison and his Times; or, Sketches of the Anti-Slavery Movement in America. By Oliver Johnson. With an introduction by John G. Whittier. Portrait and illustrations. (Boston: B. B. Russell & Co.; New York: Charles Drew. 1880.)—The major part of this work was written for weekly publication in the *Tribune*, and probably no other living actor in the anti-slavery struggle could have performed such a task so easily and so well as Mr. Johnson. He was one (and is the only survivor) of the twelve founders of the first Garrisonian organization in January, 1833; for the next ten years he was in close and almost daily intercourse with the editor of the *Liberator*, which he often conducted in Mr. Garrison's absence, and he subsequently edited himself the *National Anti-Slavery Standard* in this city and the *Anti-Slavery Bugle* in Salem, Ohio, so that the range of his experience and acquaintance was very wide. These qualifications, nevertheless, would have counted for more than they do here if his object had been to write personal reminiscences exclusively, and to be less careful of the order and proportions of his narrative—if, in other words, he had chosen to follow more or less closely the example of the Rev. S. J. May in his invaluable

'Recollections of the Anti-Slavery Conflict' (1869). As it is, he has scrupulously kept himself in the background, and his account of the formation of the New England Anti-Slavery Society, above alluded to, is perhaps the single positive contribution to the history of the movement to be found in this volume. In general, the incidents and events treated have been described in easily-accessible works; but some of the less-known, though in their time efficient, agitators are here commemorated as perhaps nowhere else.

More or less consciously the burden of this summary retrospect is a defence of the Abolitionists, and of Mr. Garrison in particular, not so much in their attitude towards the churches as in the attitude of the churches towards them—a distinction which should not be overlooked. Mr. May was under the same compulsion. "Many of my readers," he says in his preface, "may wish that I had not reported so many of the evil words and deeds of ministers and churches. I have done so with regret and mortification. But it has seemed to me that the most important lesson taught in the history of the last forty years—the influence of slavery upon the religion of our country—ought least of all to be withheld from the generations that are coming on to fill our places in the Church and in the State." Mr. Johnson had not the professional incentive that Mr. May had to vindicate religion against its time-serving expounders, but the same week in which the *Liberator* was launched saw the first issue, from an adjoining office, of the *Christian Soldier*, edited by Mr. Johnson and presently printed on the *Liberator* press; and the intimacy thus fostered was based on a common religious sentiment and a common orthodoxy. In defending Mr. Garrison he defends himself, and in no other phase of the controversy does he appear more at home. The serial mode of publication naturally led to clerical attacks, neither well-considered nor weighty, and if the replies, which are incorporated with the main history, detract somewhat from the literary form of the work, they abundantly confirm Mr. Johnson's position.

Three-fourths of this volume are devoted to the period ending with the division among the Abolitionists and the rise of the Liberty Party in 1840; and this again corresponds with the necessity of treating the religious issue with fulness. At that date the anti-slavery professors of religion who could not co-operate with "infidels," negatively reinforced the pro-slavery professors who had invented the term; and the greatest moral reform of the age came to be identified exclusively in the popular mind with come-outers. In that year, too, the decision was made by the anti-slavery societies to seek no political preferment and to enter into no political organization. The reasons for this are set forth in chapter xviii., which we incline to regard as the best in the book. We can also praise the exposition of the obstacles prepared for the Abolitionists by the Colonization Society, which artfully satisfied the scruples of the North on the subject of slavery by enlisting them in behalf of a pseudo-charity. In recording the differences and dissensions in the anti-slavery ranks Mr. Johnson speaks throughout with moderation and an evident desire to be candid; and he passes over some which a biographer of Mr. Garrison would have to face.

We Four: Where we Went and What we Saw in Europe. By Miss L. L. Rees. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1880.)—Four young ladies of Philadelphia determined in the summer of 1878 to make the trip to Europe. They "planned and anticipated and talked," and their friends "looked scornfully on" till all their arrangements were made and they started June 18, on the *Canada*, with the world all before them, and a feeling that an escort would have been an encumbrance. They visited London and Paris, and made a rapid progress through Switzerland, Germany, Scotland, and Ireland, and evidently had a very jolly time. The book which chronicles their experiences is of less value than a guide-book, but though not as complete, so far as information goes it is of the same sort. The personal reflections, however, will be found of interest to every one who cares to get an intimate view of somewhat piquant and thoroughly indigenous feminine character, without more trouble than is involved in turning over the leaves of Miss Rees's volume. The "four" are called, for convenience of identification, Artemis, Clio, Erato, and Pomona; which the author is, the reader will find some difficulty in deciding, but it is not important. The voyage over was not eventful, but it is told with conscientious fulness. As they passed Dover one of the passengers, "who had been making the part of *King Lear* in Shakspere's play of that name an especial study," quoted some passages, and, generally speaking, sunrise and sunset occupy a good deal of attention. The four were rebuffed on arrival in London by "the lady (?) clerk of the Portland House," which it happened was full. This is how they "got square" with her after a slight and, on her part, brutally phlegmatic altercation: "A parting shaft had to be given. It is very strange you do not know the Langham Hotel, one of the handsomest in London, and in Portland Place also. Good evening, madam." When they heard that Billingsgate was "no place for leddies" they were only restrained from visiting it by a policeman's authoritative warning. A surly Briton in a railway carriage, who "did not offer any reading matter to his fellow-companions," grumbled so much at the slowness of the train that the author was obliged to say: "That is just what I was thinking, sir; but as this seems to be your regular style of travelling in England I concluded to put up with it"; to which the man made no reply, as he "could not decipher whether I spoke from sarcasm or ignorance," although he "looked savagely" at her. At Paisley the four met a Scotch peasant, who, when she learned that they were without "a manly escort," seemed astonished, "but, I am sorry to say, did not appear to admire our courage." Of observations on "what we saw" the following may be given as an example: At Versailles "we traced Napoleon I. from the earliest record with his Bonaparte brothers and sisters until last a granite statue of the dying man—no semblance of royalty now, but with an emaciated countenance and swollen abdomen, that causes a feeling of pity for the sufferer to rise in the heart, while we cannot but condemn the principles of action that had governed him." Miss Rees also speaks of "the pure brow" of Josephine, and Charles's "persecutor, Cromwell," but in the main she shuns statements not sanctioned by lapse of time, and suggests the Rollo books tinctured with a slight alloy of kittenishness.

Dictionary of Terms and Phrases used in American or English Jurisprudence. By Benj. Vaughan Abbott. 2 vols. Vol. i., A–K, vol. ii., L–Z. (Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1879.)—According to Mr. Abbott's preface, this work is intended rather as a "Law Dictionary" than as a "Dictionary of the Law." By this he appears to mean that he has not concerned himself with the substantive rules of law, but has chiefly endeavored to make his book a compilation of authoritative *definitions*, with illustrations of their application and use. The work has been done with a great deal of thoroughness and care. It seems to be more comprehensive than Bouvier's dictionary, which has hitherto been the chief resource of lawyers in this country, and will, without doubt, fill a useful place in the economy of the legal profession. There are some defects which might in a new edition be easily removed. To begin with, Mr. Abbott's passion for Latin sometimes gets the better of his judgment. Of course every law dictionary must contain explanations of technical Latin terms. But there is no need of going beyond these, and crowding its pages with ordinary Latin words, abbreviated phrases, and trite maxims, which have little more connection with law than they have with theology or medicine. Several instances of what we mean may be found on the first page of Mr. Abbott's first volume. *A posteriori*, *a priori*, *a quo*, and *a quâ* are all no doubt Latin expressions, but what have they to do with law? "*A verbis legis non est recedendum*" is put down by Mr. Abbott as expressing "a familiar rule of statutory construction," viz.—that the language of a statute is the primary guide in construction. The phrase, however familiar (and as to this we have serious doubts), is of little importance as a guide in statutory construction, and would find its proper place in a collection of legal maxims rather than in a dictionary. Occasionally doubts as to Mr. Abbott's entire familiarity with the language of which he is so prodigal force themselves unwillingly upon us, as, for instance, when he tells us that a person incapacitated from business is said to be "*ab agendo*." Again, a great many English words are given which are in common use wherever the English language is spoken, and have no technical legal meaning. *Adverse possession* is a technical term, but *adverse* is not. The same may be said of *public economy* and *public*. In cases like these Mr. Abbott always gives a definition of the epithet, which may be found in Webster quite as well. These blemishes, however, are slight, and do not detract from the real merit of the work, which will be found of considerable value both by students and practising lawyers. As a collection of authoritative definitions supplied by the courts it stands quite by itself, and the practical value of such a collection can hardly be overestimated.

The Egotist. By Henry T. King. (Philadelphia: Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger).—Mr. King's sub-title is perhaps a good enough explanation of his work; it is "Essays of Life: its work and its fortunes, its joys and its sorrows, its success and its failure." It thus appears that the subject with which he deals is one of reasonable comprehensiveness; the spirit in which he deals with it may be inferred from one of the short para-

graphs of which his book is composed: "What I write in this book are no fine-spun theories, the production of contemplation, but they grow out of what I see in life; what I see of men and their doings as I sit in my office, hearing and advising my clients. . . . Not what I have read in books, but what I have seen and know." We are not prepared to say that this is not the best line for Mr. King to take in writing about life, but it is clear that it involves the repetition of a good deal that he might have "read in books" and thus avoided. He would thus have been even more original than he is. Still, he has a distinct flavor of his own. For example, this seems thoroughly individual in the light of a Rochefoucauld maxim: "Some persons simply have the capacity of holding fast to any money they may get" (page 135); or this: "With regard to meeting obligations, there are two classes of persons" (page 106).

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 19, 1880.

The Week.

THE doubts which still lingered in the minds of the public as to whether General Grant would take the nomination if it were not offered unanimously and without a contest, were removed last week by an authoritative announcement through the New York *Times* that he would take it in any way he could get it, like the other candidates. This puts some of his supporters—the more delicate and high-minded—in an awkward position, but we have no doubt that to the bulk of the working boomsters it is very welcome. They never quite liked what they probably called the "dignity game." It made General Grant seem too far removed from them—

"Too bright or good
For human nature's daily food."

The Philadelphia *Bulletin*, a Stalwart Grant paper, is much dissatisfied with our sketch of the way the Grant movement would work in practice, and thinks it "libellous." It mentions as a fatal objection to the programme that the only "armed force" on which General Grant could rely to put him in the White House after he had done his own counting is the United States Army—a very small body. But the *Bulletin* is evidently not well informed, for another leading boomster paper, the Chicago *Inter-Ocean*, says in a recent issue that if "Grant is chosen *he will take the office*, and all talk of a conspiracy [to prevent him] will melt away under the influence of a man whose simple word would call to his side a half-million of veteran soldiers." So that he will really, it seems, have a very large force at his command when he begins his count. The "boom" has been reinforced during the week by Mr. Henry Ward Beecher, who demands not only a third term, but five terms in all, thus leaving the other boomsters eight years in the rear. Mr. Beecher is evidently determined to make himself "generally useful," as the advertisements say.

The *Tribune*, not wholly discouraged by the action of the Harrisburg Convention, is making an effort to discover the true sentiment of Pennsylvania, which seems, so far as the *Tribune's* test is of value, very decidedly anti-Grant and in favor of Blaine. The difficulty with ordinary newspaper attempts at popular political diagnosis is, as the *Tribune* very justly remarks, that the people applied to are wholly irresponsible, and represent no one but themselves. Accordingly in this instance each of the 2,600 local committeemen of the Republican party throughout the State was addressed by postal-card and asked for a brief statement of his preferences as to the Chicago nomination. To these the *Tribune* has so far received 1,051 replies, of which 812 are for Blaine, 188 for Grant, 14 for Sherman, and the rest scattering. Many of the writers are reckless enough to allow their names to be published, which was optional with them, from which it is fair to conclude they are tired of their "representative" positions, or else that they know that Senator Cameron does not read the *Tribune*. But before concluding with that journal that "Maine will be jealous of Pennsylvania presently," we may as well bear in mind that it is a fortnight since the *Tribune's* postal cards were sent out, and that up to the present time no answers have been received from nearly two-thirds of the persons addressed, that comparatively few of the Grant men would be likely to reply, and that all of the Blaine men would.

Secretary Sherman has been busy throughout the week debasing the public service to further his own selfish plans over a pretty wide stretch of territory, we judge from the reports of the New York *Times*, which keeps him under the same strict surveillance that it used to exercise over the similar movements of Mr. Tilden. It has discovered his hand in what it sarcastically alludes to as a "spontaneous" popular uprising of Boston merchants, and, in connection with that dissatisfied marplot, Secretary Schurz, in some ugly manipulations of the civil service in St. Louis. In this city he has compelled Surveyor Graham to attempt to decoy the business men into "spontaneous" support of him, while at the same time he has kept Collector Merritt away from his business at the Custom-house in order to "manufacture sentiment" in the northern part of the State. Of Ohio, singularly enough, unless he regards it as already "fixed," he has been very neglectful. A meeting in his favor at Columbus Friday night was characterized by "utter absence of enthusiasm"; "frequent complaint of the lack of organization in his interest" is heard from his friends, and Governor Foster dejectedly observed to a *Times* correspondent, "Sherman is not working here at all," adding that the fact was "unaccountable" to him, considering Sherman's skill and adroitness. As if all this were not enough, the *Times* brings forward that eminent patriot, ex-Senator Dorsey, of Arkansas, as a witness that even Little Rock is not outside the circle of the Secretary's malign influence, which, on the promise of future favors, is endeavoring to undermine the sturdy morality of Arkansas Treasury officers. Dorsey also contributes a bit of what he calls "secret history" to the effect that Sherman opposed the Resumption Act in caucus, and now wants to claim all the credit for it; he adds characteristically that "caucus proceedings are always secret, and each member of the caucus is bound in honor not to reveal them," but that the infamy of Sherman's conduct has "unsealed his lips."

There has been a good deal of curiosity of late to see whether Governor Cornell would nominate Smyth, the Insurance Superintendent, for another term, in view of the exposures made about him when he was tried by the Senate, and in view of his late attempted fraud in the holding of the Albany primary meetings. Mr. Cornell, it was thought, might feel some hesitation about it himself, but the question was, Would Senator Conkling allow him to refuse? The answer has come, for Smyth has been renominated, probably under orders from Washington. Nothing more discreditable has occurred in State administration for a good while, but all friends of good government ought to be glad of it. The more true to themselves, and their system, and their chief the Conklingites are, the sooner will the public's eyes be opened to the absurdity of electing these men on Mississippi and Louisiana issues. It gives a New York election the air of a "confidence game" in a fair. One operator reads horrid accounts of murders and outrages and piracy on the high seas to the crowd, with appropriate and harrowing comments, and, having thus absorbed their attention, his confederate "goes through" them and takes their valuables.

The Albany Republicans who were indignant with Smyth's attempt to cheat them at the primaries have refused to take part in the second election, because it was only held to fill the places of six delegates who were shamed into resigning, the tenure of the remaining majority being also tainted with fraud. The malcontents have held a meeting and issued an address, in which they denounce the General Committee savagely, but say that instead of sending up a second and contesting delegation to the Convention they will lay their griefs before it, and if they get no redress the Convention "must take the consequences." We doubt if this promises much result. They will be heard with much courtesy, and will then be furnished with lists of Southern murders, and requested, in view of these horrors, to forget their wrongs for this once, and help the Machine to win a glorious victory in November. Privately, Mr. Conkling would call this "letting 'em squeal as much as they please, if they don't bolt."

The Fitz-John Porter case has begun to excite so much party feeling in Congress that it is not likely that any bill giving effect to the President's recommendation for his relief will be passed this session. In the first place, the surviving members of the court-martial which convicted him—of whom the chief is General Garfield—feel that the finding of the Advisory Board casts a slur on them; in the second, it has become with many people one of the sacred legends of the war, which they cannot bear to have attacked or criticised, that Pope was betrayed by the McClellan set in the army. There was, however, so much fresh evidence produced before the Advisory Board, not simply in the shape of Confederate testimony and reports but of new and accurate surveys of the battle-field, that its finding really casts no reflection at all on the verdict of the court-martial. With the legend it is impossible to deal by any process of ratiocination, and the same thing may be said of the belief held by many that a Confederate Brigadier is sure to tell lies if examined even on oath with regard to the facts of the war. Nothing but time or death disposes of prejudices of this sort.

General Logan made a minority report against the bill in the Senate for himself and Mr. Plumb, in which he took the remarkable ground that the sentence of a court-martial is so final and absolute that neither the President nor any power on earth can set it aside or annul or undo it; from which it would seem to follow that if a court-martial were to sentence a man to be shot, and the clearest evidence of his innocence were afterwards produced, such as proof of an alibi or of mistaken identity, he would have to be shot all the same. General Burnside made a report for himself, in which he took the much more rational ground that as the Advisory Board was in no sense a legal tribunal, and the proceedings before it were to a certain extent *ex parte*, but nevertheless did produce new facts tending to show General Porter's innocence of which he ought to have the benefit, the proper course to be followed now is to authorize the President to convene a new court-martial and give General Porter a fresh trial upon the old charges and specifications. Another bill has been introduced in the Senate by Mr. Randolph authorizing the President to commission Porter as a colonel of infantry, the commission to be dated in 1863, with pay and emoluments from that date, and to put him on the retired list immediately afterwards. This is thought likely to meet the objections to the bill now pending.

We do not, as a rule, think it worth while to follow the Chicago *Tribune's* financial utterances; but we must call its attention to the fact that when it says legal tender paper in England "may be issued to an indefinite amount by a mere order of the Government," and that this is the way that "England provides against a scarcity of debt-paying paper," it does what the editor would call "telling a deliberate lie," but what in these parts is called committing a gross blunder. The Government has no power to order an issue of legal-tender paper to the smallest amount, or even to allow the Bank of England to issue one dollar beyond the amount of the Government debt to the bank—$75,000,000—and the bullion it may have in its vaults. Moreover, bank-notes are only legal-tender as long as they are redeemable in coin. What the *Tribune* is lying or blundering about is the promise which, on two or three occasions in commercial crises, the Government has given the Bank, that if it did issue beyond the legal limit it would get an act of indemnity passed by Parliament. The *Tribune* ought to confine itself to the protection of down-trodden silver.

Early in the week the Treasury bought $11,474,000 of United States bonds of 1881 for the sinking fund, and gave notice that hereafter it will buy $1,000,000 on Wednesday of each week. These bonds are purchased with the surplus revenues of the Treasury, which, on account of the increase in foreign imports and the improvement in domestic trade, are steadily rising. The Committee of Ways and Means of the House have agreed to authorize the resumption of refunding, the new bond to run forty years, although redeemable after twenty years, and to bear 3½ per cent. annual interest. Since this decision was arrived at by the committee the market price of the 4 per cent. bonds has advanced to 107¼, a price which warrants the sale of 3½ per cent. bonds at about par. It is, therefore, likely that within a few weeks refunding operations will again be in full blast. The expectation of this has advanced the prices of choice railroad investments, and has given a fresh start to general speculation at the Stock Exchange, the experience of last year being that while refunding will work in favor of an easy money market it will also turn a good deal of money now in United States 5 and 6 per cent. bonds into railroad securities. The foreign-exchange market has been firm, and rates for sterling bills are nearer to the point at which gold can be exported than that at which it can be imported. The price of silver bullion in London declined to 52¼*d.* per oz.; and here the "buzzard dollar" had a value at the close of the week of only $0.8759.

The imperative need of a strong man at the head of the Government in order to restore to the South the peace and prosperity it enjoyed under the Grant régime is occasionally somewhat obscured by accounts published by the Southern press of flourishing industries and general progress. The Charleston *News and Courier* has recently been defiling the political graves of Moses, Scott, Chamberlain, and the rest, by implication at least, in giving its readers a statement of the present condition of the cotton manufacture of South Carolina, which, notwithstanding the pusillanimity of the Hayes Administration, is far better off to-day than it has ever been heretofore. There are now in the State seventeen factories engaged in the production of cotton yarns and cloths, with 95,438 spindles and 1,933 looms in operation. The daily consumption is 54,049 pounds of cotton, and the daily production 101,338 yards of cloth, and 17,183 pounds of yarn. They employ 2,296 operatives, who in turn support 7,913 persons. The monthly pay-rolls amount to over $38,000; the capital employed is $2,288,600, and their estimated worth $2,844,000. The profits range from 18 to 25½ per cent., one factory making 50 per cent. This, except in the percentage of profit, is not a showing which compares favorably with that of many New England towns to be sure, but it indicates the practicability of manufacturing on a large scale at the South, and the possibility of persuading the Southern people of it. It involves, of course, a saving in the cost of the raw material, in commissions, in transportation charges, and in waste; to which should be added the saving in the rental of land and in the wages of operatives.

The elections which are occurring here and there in England to seats accidentally made vacant by death or otherwise in what remains of the present Parliament, are watched with the greatest interest for the indications they give of the result of the general election which is to take place within the present year. That of Liverpool, which occurred recently, was not, for reasons which we gave last week, very valuable as a sign. Liverpool has always been a Conservative stronghold, and especially in exciting times. In 1868, after the passage of the Reform Bill and the increase of the constituency, the Tories carried it. In 1873 they carried it again at an off-election. In 1874, at the general election, they carried it by still heavier majorities. It was, therefore, not surprising that they won the vacant seat again the other day, now when the Jingoes are on their mettle, but they did not win it by a majority which gave much encouragement to either side as to the condition of public opinion. During the past year fifteen elections have been held, not counting the recent ones of Liverpool and Southwark, and in these the Liberals lost no seat and gained two, though that of Sheffield is considered a somewhat doubtful triumph. In Southwark, however, they have during the past week sustained an undoubted defeat in a place where they had no good reason to expect it, as Southwark has always been a strong Liberal constituency. It is true the Liberal forces were divided—the Workingmen running a candidate of their own, who drew off nearly nine hundred votes, with which the Liberal would have been almost on an equality with his opponent—but

the fact that the Workingmen did run a candidate must be taken of itself as a sign of Liberal weakness, or, at all events, as a sign that the Tories have not been losing ground lately even in a kind of constituency in which they have hitherto enjoyed little favor.

The distress in Ireland is reported to have abated, the measures of relief proving more than equal to the emergency. In fact the crisis has never been anything like as serious as that of 1847. The population, instead of being 8,000,000, as it was then, is only 5,000,000, and neither the potato nor any one article of food is as much relied on as it was then. Means of transport and communication of all kinds have also greatly increased, so that no district is as hard to get at as it was thirty years ago. The most picturesque and remarkable incident in the efforts to combat the famine has undoubtedly been the magnificent donation of the New York *Herald*, and the response it has called forth from other quarters, so that the fund already raised by this means amounts to over $200,000. It has completely crushed poor Mr. Parnell, who doggedly refuses to take a place on the *Herald* Committee which that journal urges on him with remorseless persistence. His own collections, obtained by abuse of the landlords and of everybody who does not agree with him, must be very small.

There is no fresh news from Afghanistan, and no announcement from the Government as to what its policy is to be. Lord Beaconsfield has denied in Parliament that permission has been given to Persia to occupy Herat, but refuses to say that no such step is contemplated. The project clearly excites alarm among the more moderate supporters of the Ministry, because it is plain that if Persia is to take Herat she must be guaranteed the possession of it both against the Afghans and the Russians. That place has long been considered "the key of India," but it is now discovered that there is a key to Herat, a place called Mymeneh, in the Uzbeg region, north of the great mountains, and there is little doubt that Mymeneh has a key too, and that the real outside key which opens the whole of Central Asia will not be found short of Moscow or St. Petersburg. Things in Herat are in a bad way. It is held by Mohammed Ayub Khan, the brother of Yakub, but his rule does not seem to amount to much, as his troops amuse themselves by fighting in the streets and pillaging the inhabitants. There is a curious article in the last *Nineteenth Century* by Sir Henry Rawlinson, the great Jingo prophet on Indian matters, whose predictions broke down so wofully about the Gundamuck Treaty. He says now that things have been going on beautifully, barring the murder of the envoy, but that Kabul must continue to be garrisoned by a force lodged in the refortified Bala Hissar, leaving the chiefs to govern the country as best they can under British superintendence; Jalalabad and Kandahar must be retained, and Herat given to Persia, and finally, if Afghan-Turkestan is to be abandoned entirely "to the insatiable grasp of Russia, the Indian frontier will be as faulty as before," so that it appears it was by no means "rectified" when he last said it was, and probably never will be "rectified" as long as the Russians are in Central Asia. Sir Henry's recommendations have hitherto been followed very closely by the Beaconsfield Ministry.

Dr. Russell, the well-known correspondent, formerly of the London *Times* and lately of the *Telegraph* in South Africa, sent home some unpleasant accounts some time ago of the disorderly conduct of the British troops in that region. This excited the ire of Sir Garnet Wolseley, who does not like to believe a newspaper correspondent under any circumstances, and he pronounced them exaggerated and untruthful, and intimated that Dr. Russell had been made the victim of a hoax. This appears to have roused the latter, and he has appeared with a full bill of particulars in the *Telegraph*, giving a shocking picture of the indiscipline of the troops in the Transvaal, which Sir Garnet has taken possession of with some unnecessary violence of language, as conquered territory. The main cause of the disorder seems to be drink, but it must be added that experienced observers have already frequently pointed out the difficulty of keeping any troops well in hand which are employed as much as the British army is in burning and ravaging barbarians, whom they despise as "niggers." In fact, the infliction of tribal punishment—that is, visiting communities with fire and sword for the offences of individuals or chiefs, as we do in our treatment of the Indians and as the British have done in Africa and Afghanistan, brutalizes or demoralizes any army. No soldier who burns a village over the heads of women and children ever gets over it thoroughly.

The European press is filled with groans over Prince Bismarck's demand for an addition of 27,000 men and many batteries of artillery to the German army, to be taken from a class not now drawn on. Everybody is asking what this can mean, in the present trying condition of German finance and industry, and with one province—Silesia—actually desolated by famine. There is, of course, much speculation of a wild kind, but the prevailing opinion is that he is afraid of France and Russia, which, he thinks, have a strong tendency to combine, and would be really formidable if combined. France is recovering rapidly from the war, and will have next year a larger army than Germany, and Russia is smarting under internal troubles and the incompleteness of her victory over Turkey. All parties in the meantime talk peacefully, but there is a strong feeling in commercial circles that the mere existence of these armaments must tend to bring on a collision. The strain on the nerves of watching each other becomes after a while too much for military powers, and they rush at each other's throats so as to have an end of their fears. Germany will now call out 190,000 men every year, making her army under arms about 600,000 men, and about 1,500,000 with the reserves. France calls out every year about 168,000, and Russia 210,000. The Russian army is supposed to amount to 1,829,880 men; that of Germany and Austria combined to 2,500,000. The four great Powers, in fact, France, Germany, Austria, and Russia, have over 6,000,000 men under arms, and either wholly or partly withdrawn from industrial pursuits. The Russian press denies stoutly that it is Russia that Germany is afraid of, and insists that it must be France, while Baron Haymerle, the Austrian Minister, says he considers France the most peaceable country in Europe.

France in the meantime seems busy with the work of internal reorganization. The bill reorganizing the State Board of Education—the most interesting feature of which for foreigners is that it excludes the bishops and all clergymen who have hitherto had *ex-officio* places on it—has passed the Senate after a severe struggle, in which the Duc de Broglie made a speech, after a long retirement, in the character of a pious but despondent Catholic. The Minister of Public Instruction is to have the nomination of nine members of the Board, and it was proposed that he should be compelled to nominate clerical representatives of the various denominations, but the Government resisted this successfully. The other members are elected by various teaching bodies, and they may choose clergymen if they please, but clergymen are not to have seats *ex officio*. A bill regulating the right of public meeting is also under discussion, which makes meetings possible, on written notice to the police of time, place, and object, without formal permission; but periodical meetings in the same place are not to be permissible, as this would be a club in disguise, and French Conservatives dread clubs. These precautions against orators, absurd as they seem, are fairly justified by French history ever since the Revolution, because no French orator of the Radical school ever spouted long without recommending action, which always means some sort of appeal to physical force, either in the way of open insurrection or in the form of a big procession ready for insurrection. In fact, among the Radicals an orator who has no thought of fighting in his mind is looked on with a certain contempt. A remarkable feature in the debates, and instructive as an illustration of the spirit which the Monarchists bring into politics, was that the Right voted heavily against the Government with the extreme Radicals on the Public Meetings bill, of course with the view of discrediting the Republic.

GENERAL GRANT'S POLITICAL EDUCATION ABROAD.

WE spoke last week of the kind of rôle which the more ardent of General Grant's supporters had marked out for him, in saying that they desired to have him superintend and revise the counting of the electoral vote for his own benefit. Senator Cameron's reason, given just before the meeting of the Pennsylvania Convention, for wishing to re-elect him—that the people are "tired of the uncertainties of government"—would seem to indicate that they also already contemplate as probable and desirable those remoter results of their action which we set down last week as possible. That is, they seem really to demand a permanent, or nearly permanent, President, and have selected General Grant for the place, and prefer the plan of packing nominating conventions as a means of attaining their ends to the passage of a constitutional amendment.

The argument which they have used most effectively with those who do not share their dislike of the "uncertainties of government," and are not attracted to General Grant by the prospect of his doing his own counting after the Presidential election, is, however, that the scandals which discredited his Administration during his two terms are not likely to recur, should he be elected again. He has, they say, learned so much during his tour abroad, both about politics and men, that he would certainly not be again betrayed into the indiscretions the remembrance of which constitutes with a large body of voters such a formidable objection to his candidacy. We have always thought it very unlikely that a man of peculiarly set character and by no means wanting in self-confidence, such as he is, should be convinced at the ripe age of fifty-seven by two years of foreign travel that he had acted under wrong motives and influences during his Presidency. His journey abroad was that of a sight-seer with extraordinary advantages. He stayed a few days or weeks in each place, looking at the curiosities and dining with the most distinguished people, all of whom treated him as a hero and poured out flattery on him without stint. That he bore himself under all this with exceeding modesty and good taste every one admits. But his tour was not a period of study and reflection, or deep observation of any kind. He was altogether rather less than three months in England and Scotland, and the time was passed in incessant fêting. In the remainder of the two years he accomplished a journey round the world, which took in Egypt, India, China, and Japan, so that it was on the face of things very unlikely that he saw or heard anything on his way calculated even to raise doubts in his mind as to whether his mode of administering the United States Government had been in any degree objectionable. He was enjoying the leisure and freedom from care, and the congratulations and compliments, to which the part he had played in the war fairly entitled him; but he was not studying institutions or comparing experiences with foreign statesmen. A full account of his trip has been published in a large and handsome volume by a sort of historiographer who accompanied him throughout, and we have looked through it in vain for any account of an attempt on General Grant's part to go below the surface of things or lay aside the character of a much-fêted guest in any country which he visited. There is no trace of his having given any time or attention whatever to an examination of the mechanism or principles of administration anywhere. From first to last he amused himself, as he had a good right to do, and almost resented any attempt on the part of his hosts to instruct him, or to show him anything on the ground that it was "in his line."

The book does, however, contain one feature which gives it a good deal of interest just now as a "campaign document," in the shape of reports of conversations between General Grant and the author on "questions connected with American politics and history." These reports are the more valuable because it is expressly declared that they were not printed until they had been submitted to General Grant and had obtained the benefit of his revision. Many of them relate to the civil war, and to the character, capacity, and achievements of the various officers who served under and against him, and these are not only interesting and instructive, as the reminiscences of a great commander are apt to be, but are characterized by all the magnanimous good sense, and the sound judgment of military capacity, which contributed so much to his military success by enabling him not only to put good men in responsible places, but to get from them their very best work. Some of his eulogies on his old comrades may sound extravagant, as when he places Sheridan as a soldier in the same category with Napoleon and Frederic; but a general who rates his lieutenants in this way is sure to have the highest order of co-operation always at his command, and to have the love as well as obedience of those who serve under him. In fact, one has only to read General Grant's talk about his fellow-soldiers, those of his own army as well as of those of the enemy's—such as Lee, Jackson, Longstreet, and Johnston—to see plainly enough where the source of his failure in civil administration lay. His strong feeling of *camaraderie* was in the Army displayed always towards a picked body of men, who had either risen into the sphere of his notice and influence by a severe process of selection in active service, or been known to him all through life as schoolfellows at West Point. He ascribes, indeed, his success on several occasions, and notably at Fort Donelson, to his long and thorough acquaintance with the opposing generals in the old army. In trusting and standing by his military subordinates, therefore, he was dealing with a small class whose peculiarities he understood, and with whose motives of action he was familiar from his boyhood. He might, perhaps, have carried the same predisposition into the management of a highly-organized, severely disciplined, and permanent civil service like that of Prussia without doing any mischief, but when brought to bear on the very heterogeneous body who present themselves as candidates for offices, high and low, to an American President, the result could not help being what it was in General Grant's case. The "fire rule," by which no man was to be dismissed or even investigated as long as public opinion assailed him, covered at last a considerable number of very unworthy, not to say disreputable, persons.

We find in his talk about those who served under him in civil life, even at the close of his trip when he was on his way home in the China seas, none of those signs of cleared perception or changed standards on which the Independents are now assured by the promoters of his "boom" that they may confidently count. Upon the question of civil-service reform he stands just where he stood when he nominated Shepherd for the chairmanship of the District of Columbia, and gave Butler the control of the Boston Custom-house and Conkling control of the New York Custom-house.

"Civil-service reform rests entirely with Congress If members and senators will give up claiming patronage, that will be a step gained. But there is an immense amount of human nature in members of Congress, and it is in human nature to seek power and use it, and to help friends. An Executive must consider Congress. A Government machine must run, and an Executive depends on Congress. The members have their rights as well as himself. If he wants to get along with Congress, have the Government go smoothly, and secure wholesome legislation, he must be in sympathy with Congress. It has become the habit of Congressmen to share with the Executive in the responsibility of appointments. It is unjust to say that this habit is necessarily corrupt. It is simply a custom that has grown up, a fact that cannot be ignored. The President very rarely appoints, he merely registers the appointments of members of Congress. In a country as vast as ours the advice of Congressmen as to persons to be appointed is useful, and generally for the best interests of the country. The long continuance of the Republican party in power really assures us a civil-service reform."

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"Notwithstanding all that is said by the newspapers, I am convinced that our civil service, take it all and all throughout the country, is in as high a state of efficiency, and, I think, higher than that of any other nation in the world."

It does not appear that while at home or abroad he ever made any examination of the civil service of any other country; so that this opinion is about as valuable as that of the late Senator Morton, who said ours was the "best civil service on this planet."

"I can see," he adds, "where our service can be amended. But every day the Republican party remains in power amends it. As to

competitive examinations, they are of questionable utility. One of the most brilliant candidates before the Civil-Service Board was in jail very soon after his appointment, for robbery. The way to achieve the best civil service is, first, to influence Congressmen and induce them to refrain from pressure upon the Executive; then pass laws giving each office a special tenure; then keep the Republican party in power until the process of education is complete. As it is now, the only danger I see to civil-service reform is in the triumph of the Democratic party."

The suggestion here that persons who pass well in examinations are likely to become robbers is very rich. There is, of course, a good deal of justice in the remark about Congressmen, but it is quite evident he does not think the President is called upon to take any pains to help in bringing Congress over to this desirable state of mind. Of Mr. Conkling he says he is "fond of him, and holds his great character and genius in profound respect." "No man is more trustworthy than Logan," most of whose protégés in office while he was in the Senate went to the penitentiary or fled to avoid prosecution.* Mr. Fish he places with the three other great statesmen of his age, Cavour, Gortchakoff, and Bismarck, which would be a very high compliment, and, even if extravagant, like his rating of Sheridan, not wholly unwarranted, if he did not soon after describe Butler as not only a man of great ability, but "a patriotic man, and a man of *courage, honor, and sincere convictions.*"

In fact, of all the men he had to deal with in civil life, and to use for the high and low offices of state, the only one to whom he expresses a decided antipathy is Mr. Bristow, the Secretary of the Treasury who broke up the Whiskey Ring, brought some of its chief members to justice, and traced its ramifications to General Grant's confidential aide-de-camp, General Babcock. He does not make use of a single expression in these authorized conversations to show that he felt he had, during his eight years, made any mistake in the men he trusted, except in the case of Mr. Bristow, or that there had been anything wrong in his methods or policy. His allusions to Mr. Curtis and other reformers are either sneering or positively condemnatory. He insinuates in more than one place that these men are insincere, and once characterizes all persons belonging to what the Boston Simmons calls jeeringly the "better element" as "dangerous."

Now, whatever we may think of these views of public life and public men as those of a mere observer who has unusual opportunities of observing closely, we have absolute knowledge, in his case, of what they lead to in practice. We know what kind of machine a civil service is which is carried on under their influence, and which is handed over without let or hindrance to the control of members of Congress. We know what motives influence members of Congress in filling places in the public service with their protégés. We know what is the practical working of a standard which makes Butler "a man of courage, honor, and sincere convictions," which treats Belknap's disgraceful retirement from office as a cause of "regret"; which leaves Shepherd still fit for one high office after he has been legislated out of another for corruption; which ascribes to Mr. Conkling "great character and genius"; which sets Logan down as a good dispenser of patronage; which treats all who struggle to put public life on a higher plane, and raise the character and capacity of those who serve the state, and improve the conditions under which they serve it, as hypocritical Jeremiahs. Nor need we look for any strenuous effort towards reform from a President whose chief remedy for administrative abuses is to keep his own party in power indefinitely.

REMEDIES FOR IRISH DISTRESS.

THE recurrence of another famine in Ireland after an interval of over thirty years, and when the population has been diminished nearly one-half and the outlet for its products has been greatly increased by improved means of communication, is causing a wider interest in the question of Irish poverty than was probably ever displayed before. The remedy which naturally first suggests itself to the American mind is emigration to this country. There is in this country a vast body of Irish who have by emigration permanently improved their own condition, besides adding to the resources of the United States. Let those who are suffering at home, and find that their own soil does not afford them a subsistence, come out here, it is said, where there is still room for ten times the population of Ireland to live in comfort, and the Irish problem, now two centuries old, will be completely solved. There are two answers to this. One is that no country in the world has tried emigration as a remedy for poverty and over-population so thoroughly as Ireland. During the eighteenth century there was a steady drain of enterprising young men into the French military service so great that the archives of the French War Department show that between 1689 and the French Revolution 200,000 Irishmen perished on French battle-fields—an enormous contingent of the bone and sinew of the people, considering that in Swift's day the race from which these recruits were drawn did not number over 800,000. Since the beginning of this century there has been a steady and, down to 1860, growing tide of Irish emigration to England and this country. There were in the United States at the last census close on 2,000,000 persons of Irish birth. The emigration from Ireland to all parts of the world between the years 1851 and 1878 was 2,500,000, or nearly one-third of the population of 1847.

In the second place, it is useless to talk of emigration as a means of effecting a radical change in the condition of the Irish population who remain at home, and it is with this that both philanthropy and legislation have to occupy themselves. About the fortunes of those who leave Ireland there is and need be no concern. In fact, we may safely go further than this, and say that the emigration of the last fifty years has been positively detrimental to the Irish in Ireland. Every community owes a large part of its progress and prosperity to the presence and activity of its most industrious, pushing, and energetic members, and these are the ones which every community in each generation loses by emigration. It is these that Ireland has been losing since 1851. Their departure, so far from helping to raise the standard of living among those who remain behind, either leaves it unaffected, or tends to lower it, and their places are apt to be filled rapidly by a less bold and enterprising breed. At this moment it would appear that in spite of all the emigration the standard of living among those who have remained at home has not been materially raised, and they are still dependent on the success of each crop for protection against absolute famine.

The remedy of emigration having proved unavailing, the question of a change in the tenure of the land by which the whole people may be said to live, has assumed greater interest and importance than ever. The *grande culture* does not grow up in Ireland; large farms are rare and do not increase in number. The *petite culture* is the rule—the great bulk of Irish farms are under thirty acres—but it does not succeed. Agriculture in nearly every branch is still in a very poor condition. Thirty years ago, after the last famine, it was thought that the burdened condition of a large number of the estates, a legacy of the fast living of the eighteenth century, preventing the landlords from making improvements and forcing them to exact high rents, was the chief cause of Irish poverty. The Encumbered Estates Court was therefore established, in which any estate could be sold, in spite of settlements, on the petition either of the owner or his creditors, and in parcels to suit purchasers. A very large quantity of land—one-fourth of the island, it is said—has been thrown into the market in this way, and it was hoped that it would be purchased to a considerable extent either by tenant-farmers or by capitalists who could afford to improve their property and deal liberally with their tenants. These expectations have likewise been disappointed. The purchasers have been mostly sharp attorneys, money-lenders, or small shop-keepers in search of a good investment, and

* We may as well give the exact language of the Stalwart Chicago *Tribune*, which said of Logan, at the time of his last election to the Senate, a year ago: "He was opposed to all reforms in government; he was the embodiment of the worst phase of machine politics, and helped to bring scandal and reproach upon Grant's Administration; a majority of his appointments turned out to be corrupt and faithless; a number were indicted, some fled the country, others escaped through flaws in the law, many passed under a cloud, and some, who are out on bail, have yet to be tried"

ready for any amount of rack-renting that would bring them in a high rate of interest, but without a particle of the feudal interest in the inhabitants of the property which the old class of landlords, in spite of their extravagance and thriftlessness, could hardly help taking to a greater or less degree.

This having failed, Mr. Gladstone's Land Tenure Act was tried. This secured the tenant compensation under certain conditions for his improvements in case of arbitrary eviction; but it did not give him security against eviction, or against the raising of his rent. It provided that when estates were sold by the Encumbered Estates Court a preference should be given to the tenants if they were ready to buy, but only if they were *all* ready to buy, and were ready to give as much for the whole estate as any outsider, a contingency which, of course, rarely happened. So that in point of fact the condition of the Irish tenant-farmers, though better than it used to be, has not been radically improved by any recent legislation. There are at this moment 500,000 of them, representing probably 3,000,000 of population, who hold as tenants at will, and they are not, as in England, the tenants of landlords to whom they are bound by ties of blood, religion, and old association, but for the most part of landlords from whom they are separated by the most serious differences by which a community can be divided. Public sentiment, both in England and Ireland, therefore seems to be coming rapidly to the conclusion that some strong effort, and on a great scale, must now be made to increase gradually the number of peasant proprietors, and see whether the "magic of property" will not produce the extraordinary effect on the small farmer in Ireland which it has produced on him in France and Belgium and the Channel Islands. It is said of the French and Belgian small farmer that he is not scientific or neat, and does not produce as much per acre as the large farmer in England; but it is not said, and it cannot be said, that he is unhappy or discontented or improvident, or is ever threatened with famine.

There are two ways of bringing about this result. Mr. Parnell has made himself the advocate of one, which is by rousing a furious, vindictive, and communistic spirit among the tenants and treating the landlords as public enemies, to frighten Parliament into buying the latter out wholesale and handing the land over to the tenants on easy terms, in fee simple, with a Government lien on the land for the amount of the purchase money. There is to this, however, the objection that any change in the ownership of landed property effected through the rousing of fierce anti-social passions and class hatreds would inevitably give a severe blow to the security of all property, and cause capital to avoid a country on which such a curse had descended; that, moreover, when the Government became at one stroke everybody's landlord it would be impossible for it to avoid incurring the animosity under which the landlords were expropriated, and at the same time it could not claim for its rights the traditional sanctity which surrounds those of private owners. Combinations to resist payment of its claims would in troublous times become a favorite political enterprise, and if it asserted them by force it would have land on its hands which nobody would occupy, and for which, like Cromwell, it would have to import tenants from England or Scotland.

Mr. Bright, in a recent speech, supported a wiser and more enlightened scheme, the working of which would be gradual, which would assail no rights of property, and owe neither its inception nor success to class hatred. It consists, in brief, of the establishment of a Government Commission armed with powers and funds to buy such estates as come into the market, either through the will or misfortunes of their owners, and resell them on easy terms to the occupying tenants. This would make the number of Government debtors at any one time or place comparatively small, and the work of collecting its dues comparatively easy. The plan has been tried to a limited extent with great success by the Commission which was charged with the disposition of the Irish Church temporalities. They sold land largely to occupying tenants, and the default in the payment of their dues, even during this year of distress, has only amounted to about three and a half per cent.

There is no country in Europe to-day in which a greater responsibility is incurred than in Ireland by the man who advocates or instigates revolutionary or violent modes of settling social or political problems. Irishmen in Ireland have been educated by the atrocious circumstances of their history into a fatal distrust of the law, and into the disposition to turbulence which long distrust of the law always generates. The experience of Pennsylvania in the matter of the Mollie Maguires furnishes a fair illustration of the baleful tendency to engage in anti-social organizations which the average Irish peasant carries with him everywhere. To attempt to use this tendency for purposes of either political or social reform is absurd as well as detestable.

SOME OF THE REASONS WHY SO FEW STUDENTS ATTEND THE AGRICULTURAL SCHOOLS.

ATTENTION has often been called to the small results obtained at the agricultural colleges founded under the Act of Congress of 1862; but, in so far as we have noticed, little heed has been given to the causes why so few young men devote themselves to agricultural study. There are, in fact, many reasons why the farmers make so little use of the schools of agriculture, some of which apply particularly to one or another locality or latitude, though most of them are common to all places where land is cultivated. It is not from any lack in the community of opinions or of convictions as to the methods to be pursued in teaching it, that the diffusion of agricultural knowledge is so slow. Indeed, it is a noteworthy fact that there are few subjects about which so many men are ready and anxious to give advice as upon the methods by which agriculture should be taught. The interest evinced in the matter by persons of the most varied callings and degrees of culture would be cause for great encouragement to the faculty of an agricultural school if there were any experience to show that the spirit of work lay behind it, or indeed that it amounted to anything more than empty words. It is plainly evident that much of the current advice to teachers cannot be spoken of as founded upon abundant knowledge. Not a little of it seems to be based upon that vague longing for country life which is apt to come home at times to most residents of towns and cities here in America, as it could hardly fail to come to people of English blood so recently descended, as many of us are, from cultivators of the land.

But, whatever may be thought of it in other respects, there can be little doubt that this attitude of advice stands in the way of action. A school needs students first of all. If good students are sent to it the chances are that it will do them good service. Advice and criticism of its methods may come later; but material, and good material, to work upon is a prime necessity of the case. A school, like any other organism, grows by what it feeds on. It is a good old agricultural maxim that "silken purse cannot be made from sow's ear." In one word, it may be said that the best way to study agriculture is to study it. It is a natural inference that the intelligent parent will choose for his son the place of study which has the best reputation and the soundest traditions.

Foremost of all, perhaps, among the influences adverse to the agricultural school is the widespread conviction that farming is a business that can only be learned by long-continued labor at the farm, and that any interruption of such labor is likely to spoil the lad. There is a constant drain of active and vigorous young men from the farms toward the cities, and common experience teaches that while the boys who are kept at work at home sometimes become farmers, those who are permitted to leave the homestead are apt to be lost to agriculture. Hence the not unnatural fear that systematic study at an agricultural school will but lead the young man to adopt some other calling and carry him no one knows whither. The fear that the boy may be diverted from the farm is curiously complicated with a spirit of self-conceit and narrowness which makes the parent doubt whether his son would really be taught much of anything useful if he were sent to the agricultural school. The very fact that he possesses so much natural shrewdness and sagacity and good judgment, in respect to the affairs of daily life, tends to give the American farmer an unreasonable confidence in his own opinion. It makes him over-confident upon subjects which are quite beyond his scope, and indifferent to or even disdainful of scientific knowledge. He sees so many men of his own class rise to prominence, or the semblance of it, with no other education than that of the newspaper or the printing-house, that he is apt to doubt the merit of systematic training.

But besides the doubt whether the lad would learn, and the fear that he may never return to the farm, there is the well-nigh universal difficulty of want of pecuniary means. Our yeomanry are for the most part

too poor to provide an agricultural education for their children. They can neither afford to spare hands that are useful on the farm, nor have they the ready money wherewith to provide board and clothing for the college student. The plan adopted at several agricultural schools, of paying the students for work done upon the college farm, is a clumsy and expensive attempt to meet this patent difficulty. It is hard to say what would be the best method of encouraging worthy lads, from the poorest of the sandy and hilly districts of New England, for example, to study agriculture. Provision has already been made at several of the schools for the remission of tuition-fees in such cases, but the difficulty with respect to food, fuel, books, and clothing remains, and has never been satisfactorily met. Perhaps a somewhat liberal system of scholarships, —or, rather, of direct gifts of money—to be allotted in the final years of schooling to students who have proved themselves worthy of such aid by their success in the first year's studies, would be a help. There are happily not a few country places where a really able lad of good character could borrow money enough to support him for a year at school, if there were a fair prospect that he could gain enough in the years immediately succeeding not only to sustain himself but to repay a part at least of the debt. There can be no question that situations could be found after graduation for young men thus educated and not afraid of farm-work. The only trouble is that these situations would generally be less remunerative than those obtainable by men of similar age who have been equally well educated in other departments—that is to say, for a given amount of time spent in study, and of pecuniary sacrifice made for the sake of the study, more money can usually be gained in the years immediately succeeding graduation by the students of other branches than agriculture. For the agricultural graduate, moreover, there is little chance for prizes, whether of position or of emolument, such as may be hoped for in most professions.

But while in the older States many of the farmers are too poor to think of giving their sons an agricultural education, and lack of capital deters from all agricultural enterprise, there are some sections of the country where the farmers are too well off to care for any man's teachings. There is small hope of getting many graduates in agricultural science from those Western districts where climate, fertility, cheap land, and easy tillage conspire to make farming a mere matter of the management of gang-ploughs, headers, and steam threshing-machines. The mere fact of the existence of cheap land at the West is of itself a well-nigh fatal impediment to the agricultural schools. To many minds it seems little short of absurd that a strong, healthy lad should give time to study, or that he should even remain in the older States, when a few years of faithful labor at the frontier will ensure to him independence and a thorough knowledge of the art of farming as practised in his place of settlement. It is clear, however, that there cannot always be open lands at the West, to be had almost for the trouble of taking; and that, consequently, there must soon come a time when the motive for emigrating from the East will be much feebler than it has been hitherto. There can be no doubt that the agricultural schools will profit when the tide of emigration slackens and the country begins to settle down upon a more natural basis of living than the one to which we are now accustomed. Meanwhile, however, it would seem to be plain that there must be somewhere, between the Californian grain-lands and the New Hampshire pastures, a class of farmers so situated that they can appreciate agricultural science, and can afford to have their sons study it. It is precisely this conviction which inspires and at the same time exasperates the agricultural teacher. He knows that some day this class of students must frequent the agricultural schools, and his hopes and fears alternate as he speculates whether the day will be reached during his own lifetime. Assuredly it will be a great gain for the Republic when the spirit of these well-to-do but easy-going and too quiescent farmers is stirred within them, and they are impelled to take action in their own behalf.

While the bone and sinew of agricultural schools must always come from the farming population proper, there is another class of men to which these schools appeal, and from which they should certainly derive a fair share of support. There is in this country an incessant though slow and feeble reversion from city to country life. A few capitalists retire from business to farms, and a good many sons of capitalists are established upon farms by their parents. These young men ought, of course, to obtain the best agricultural education within their reach, and many of them are conscious that it is their duty so to do. But they commonly labor under the disadvantage that they are unfamiliar with rural affairs. They are consequently compelled to spend a comparatively long apprenticeship upon farms, in order to become acquainted with a mass of practical details, such as are familiar to the country boy almost from his birth, but which cannot well be learned at the schools. Devotion such as this, at the beginning of adult life, to the merely practical side of the business not only brings that side into undue prominence, but is apt to fix the man in rather narrow ruts; and it is commonly found indeed, when these terms of pupilage have expired, that a good many traders of horses and of fancy cattle have been produced, but comparatively few farmers, in the proper sense of the word.

No doubt much good has been done everywhere throughout the country by these city-bred farmers through the introduction of improved stock and new appliances, and by the employment of better methods of dairying, or the like, than were known to their neighborhoods before. But in all probability one might search in vain among them for examples of the best possible farming which their several localities would permit. If the best of these men had but given zealously during two or three years their winters to the agricultural school and their summers to the apprenticeship at the farm, they would have gained an ampler store of the knowledge which is power, and their aims and works would have been correspondingly high and important. Example is a force of paramount importance in agriculture, and it is but natural to look to the farmers in easy circumstances for model practices. As Sir Humphry Davy said long ago: "It is from the higher classes of the community, from those who are fitted by their education to form enlightened plans, and by their fortunes to carry such plans into execution—it is from these that the principles of improvement must flow to the laboring classes."

Correspondence.

THE AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT OF BOSTON UNIVERSITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It affords me pleasure to relieve your uncertainty, and to assure you that the Massachusetts Agricultural College has been and is open to women who are matriculates in Boston University. Our commonwealth is not so far behind your own Empire State as you seem to suggest.

With high respect, yours cordially,

Wm. F. Warren.

President's Office, Boston University,
Boston, February 10, 1880.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Why be so severe on Boston University for including the Agricultural College in its departments? Harvard for several years included among its advertised "departments" the Episcopal Theological School, which had no more to do with it than has the Agricultural College with Boston University; and the list of students in the Episcopal Theological School still figures in the Harvard catalogue. All colleges like to glorify themselves by numbers.

T. S.

Boston, February 8, 1880.

HARVARD DIVINITY SCHOOL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the letter of your correspondent "X.," published in your issue of the 12th inst., I find several statements referring to the Harvard Divinity School, some of which call for explanation and some for denial. The confident tone of the letter indicates the familiarity of the writer with the details of the life of the Divinity School, hence are the mistakes more dangerous. I do not wish to discuss the question of the possibility of "unsectarian" theological instruction; that has been done by abler pens than mine; I wish only to correct the very misleading statements of your correspondent.

The letter opens with "a most emphatic denial" of the assertion that the school "stands for free enquiry in the field of theology." We are told "neither in the school nor out of it is this felt to be the fact. This freedom is not felt by the students, either in the choice of studies or in the pursuit of those selected for them." The two statements in the last sentence must be answered separately. First, with regard to freedom in the choice of studies. For lack of means the courses in the school are not sufficiently numerous to admit of choice, there are only enough to occupy a man's time; the proposed fund of $130,000, which the *Nation* has felt it to be its duty so persistently to oppose, is designed to remove, amongst others, this very difficulty. As soon as the funds permit more courses of

study, choice will become possible and will be permitted. But besides this, the assertion of your correspondent is not strictly accurate; several students have been permitted to substitute other Old Testament studies for the Hebrew language, on account of physical inability to pursue it.

Secondly, with regard to the statement that, in the pursuit of those studies selected for them, the students do not feel free, any one who is at all familiar with the school will instantly reply that if they do not, it is entirely their own fault. But they certainly do; *absolute freedom of enquiry and speech* is everywhere permitted. We have men of all shades of belief, from the most radical to orthodox, and in the lecture-room, at conference and debate, at the regular religious services, each one speaks with perfect freedom. At every conference the most varying opinions are freely pronounced and discussed. This double assertion of your correspondent is, therefore, incorrect.

Again: we are told that "to train young men for any church is to train them for no church." This is one of those peculiar sentences that sound axiomatic but mean nothing; it is, perhaps, not necessary in this case to point out its absurdity.

Again: "Instead of a fair and candid study of the book (the Old Testament) as illustrated in the works of the Dutch school, a system of repression was and may now be in vogue." Justice to Prof. Young demands a denial of this statement also. Although Prof. Young himself holds what are considered conservative views—views not accepted, perhaps, by a majority of the students—he invariably presents the opinions of the Leyden school, stating at the same time his reasons for dissenting from them. I have heard him say again and again: "I have given you the reasons and the authorities for my own views; these are the views of Kuenen and Oort; it is for you to consider both sides and decide for yourselves." Thus your correspondent is again mistaken.

The next statement is a most remarkable one: "As to who or what Jesus was or is, nobody in the school seems to have any idea." A more unjustifiable or ridiculous statement would be difficult to make. Prof. Ezra Abbot, to whose department the question mostly belongs, has very definite views on the subject, and takes every opportunity of expressing them to the students. I have heard him express himself freely at least fifty times. Prof. Everett, in the course of lectures on "Systematic Theology" which he is delivering to the Senior Class, has not yet reached the subject, but will certainly not hesitate to express very definite views when the time comes. It is, moreover, very easy to find his position from his published sermons on the subject. As before intimated, the students express their own views on this question with complete freedom. The rash positive statement of "X." is, therefore, utterly incomprehensible to me.

But your correspondent reserves his most tremendous assertion till the last. I must be excused for quoting it entire: "At present the school uses the scholarships as a means of repressing the free thought and expression of the students. (The writer does not modify this statement.) Students who go to Harvard with the idea that there are scholarships and freedom soon find out their mistake, and, to the detriment of their manhood, keep quiet."

Before characterizing these statements let us examine them. The facts in the case are that, with one exception, the scholarships are given absolutely *without conditions*. (That is, only the very moderate requirement is made—to which even "X." probably would not object—that the recipients shall be of good moral character, etc.) The exception is the Williams Fund, which specifies that its incumbents must be studying for the Protestant Christian ministry. There are no sectarian conditions. This fund is administered by a society having no connection with the University. Now, sir, the assertion that the school "uses the scholarships as a means of repressing" freedom of thought and enquiry is absolutely false. I have been connected with the school for four years, and have known intimately men of all beliefs who have received aid (I may state that I am not a recipient of any scholarship, and cannot, therefore, be charged with coming to my own rescue), and I have never heard the slightest suggestion that would bear out your correspondent's statement. I know that the Faculty makes aid in no way dependent on belief. The wholesale insult to the students, in the last sentence quoted, is contemptible. Strong language is needed with regard to these assertions in such widely-circulating columns. If they be not made from gross ignorance they are simply falsehoods.

I feel sure, sir, that you will wish to give to this reply the same publicity as to the attack of "X." I regret to have taken so much of your valuable space. When, however, such crude and exaggerated assertions are publicly made with such an air of information, the reputation of the Divinity School, the honor of the professors, and the manliness of the students all unite in calling for a prompt and vigorous denial.

A Member of the Divinity School.

Cambridge, Mass., February 16, 1880.

CARE FOR RAILROAD EMPLOYEES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Enclosed I send you a communication I have recently received from a gentleman in immediate charge of a Western railroad. I do not know how I can bring the matter more directly to the attention of those who alone can give effect to the plan suggested—I mean the Eastern owners of these properties—than through your columns. That in itself the plan is not only perfectly practicable, but one dictated by the soundest considerations of pecuniary interest, I have no doubt. The employees of the Western railroads should be made at any reasonable cost the close allies of the owners. That by a little foresight and even less money outlay they could be so made I know perfectly well. As a rule, however, the absentee managements of the Western roads are on these points singularly short-sighted, not to say selfish. I have only to add that this letter, though written without a thought of publication (for which reason I withhold the writer's name), comes from one of the most capable and business-like, as well as liberal-minded, of the men it has been my fortune to meet in railroad circles. I very strongly commend it to the thoughtful consideration of such of your readers as may also be directors of railroad properties in the West.—I am, etc.,

Charles F. Adams, Jr.

Boston, Feb. 2, 1880.

January 22, 1880.

My Dear Sir: I have thought that possibly you might be interested in a subject which has frequently impressed itself upon me in the last ten years, the importance of which, however, has become more apparent to me in the last year, during which I have been brought nearer to the matter.

It will pay the owners of Western railroads to give more attention to the personal welfare of those of their employees whose vocation lies in the lower walks of the profession—their machinists, engineers, firemen, conductors, brakemen, telegraph operators, and clerks in the various offices; the train-service employees perhaps more than others.

There is no business or profession where the interests of the employer and employed should be more closely identified. There is none where this is less the case than is to be found on most of our Western roads. The life is one full of continued excitements. Sudden and repeated calls are made for great efforts. The strain on the nervous system is severe and excessive. Even under the best circumstances the wear and tear will use up the most vigorous man in a shorter time than in any other business. We need for the work men sound in mind and body, and we ought to give them every reasonable opportunity and advantage for leading such a life as will keep them in sound condition.

Where railroads are directly under the control and supervision of the owner or owners this is understood, and to some extent, I believe, action has been taken. Out West, where we have the Grange element to contend with, and a middle class who rise to political power through the injustice and prejudices of the Grange element, we especially need the moral support and political help of our men in all contests against corporations. We do not get this support by merely paying the daily wages earned.

Apart from these considerations there are reasons founded on humanity and morality which it is perhaps unwise to advance, as the only arguments which in this day seem to have any force are those founded on the doctrine that "it will pay." Speaking, therefore, from that standpoint alone, I venture to say that if the Boston owners of railroads in the West would give some attention to advancing the personal welfare of those of their employees of the laboring class it would pay them quickly and handsomely.

You may say that that is a question which lies chiefly with the local management. I answer that is true only in theory; for the course of a management is shaped by the spirit which animates and proceeds from the board of owners, and where the success of a management is measured by large immediate net earnings alone, very little time or thought will be given to the considerations I have suggested.

You may ask what I mean by "advancing the personal welfare of employees." I mean a consideration of the welfare of the men *beyond their working hours and outside of their duties for which they are paid.*

I mean the adoption of systems for helping the men in their private lives, *all of which can be accomplished at a trifling outlay.*

In order to make myself clear I shall speak somewhat in detail of one system against which more can be said than against other systems relating to questions of promotion, life-insurance, care of wounded and sick, providing rooms for rest and reading at division-stations, etc., etc. The system of which I would speak is one for assisting employees in securing homes. Place aside a fund to be loaned at four per cent. per annum. Loans to be made only for the purpose of erecting homes. Only to men who have done three or more years of meritorious service and from the various departments of the service. No loan to exceed $1,000, and no time to be in excess of five years. The borrower must have saved one-third of the cost of the homestead, so that the loan, secured by first mortgage on the homestead, shall not be in excess of two-thirds of its actual cost. The loan to be made solely as a reward for past service, the borrower to be under no obligation for future service, but simply bound to repay the money in accordance with the terms of the mortgage. A fund of $100,000 in ten years would enable three hundred or more men to secure homes; for as fast as the principal was repaid in instalments by the first batch of borrowers it could be loaned to first applicants in a second batch, and so on. This is no expenditure of money, but is simply transferring a certain sum of, say, $100,000 from the "call loan" fund at two or three per cent. to a "Special Employee Loan" fund at four per cent.

As I have said before, objections can be made against such a plan, as indeed objections can be and generally are raised against any innovation of established customs; but in a small way, and to retain and interest men whom I wanted to keep, I have personally made several such loans in the past three years, and now have about $10,000 loaned out to thirteen men on the terms and under the conditions briefly outlined above, and can speak with certainty of the good which has arisen to both sides, and I have felt but one drawback—that I have not been able to lend to a hundred others.

A railroad man who makes suggestions of this character from the Western end of the line renders himself liable to have his ideas ranked as "utopian," "visionary," etc. I have, however, been through the mill myself, and believe that a little attention to these matters would give our owners a more zealous and earnest service, would foster and encourage a high *esprit de corps*, would breed a strong attachment to the line and its owner, would remove the possibility of strikes and riots, and would lead to the securing of a better grade of men. All this means increased efficiency and increased net earnings; and it can be secured at small cost and with little trouble to the local management.

I may never be able to get any one who has the power to put into execution such plans to agree with me as to the desirability of doing so; but, like the ambassador in James's 'De Lunatico,' I shall continue to believe that I am not the crazy fellow because the majority differ with me. If you would interest yourself in the matter, you could give a strong helping hand. Yours truly, * * *

C. F. Adams, Jr., Esq., Boston.

THE INDEPENDENT VOTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There are hosts of people outside of New York watching the movements and progress of the Independent Republicans, or "Scratchers," with interest and hope; for, to men who think on political subjects without partisan bias, it has become painfully certain that the country has nothing to hope from either of the great political parties, and much to fear from both of them, as they are now organized and led. Until some change comes we must look for safety in the future to the "independent voter." To persons to whom a party name is dear this will seem extravagant language. Let us see if it is justified by facts.

There are before the nation many important questions in which its future well-being is deeply involved, and which demand immediate solution, and yet are neglected and avoided by both parties—or, to say the least, neither party will commit itself, continually and unreservedly, in power and out of power, to either side of them. Perhaps the most ominous fact about this state of things is that it is perfectly understood and admitted that neither statesmanship nor patriotism has anything to do with it; that it is simply the result of a struggle for place and power, promoted by party leaders, who thus use the nation for the advancement of selfish ends.

That we may not seem to deal in loose and general accusations, let us specify two or three of these questions:

1. The currency. Nearly all men who are practically acquainted with the requirements of business, or who have studied the subject in the light of history, and at the same time are neither speculators nor office-seekers nor partisans, concur in the opinion that the future safety of the country requires that its currency should be placed at once beyond the danger of being swept, by a change of the balance of trade or other cause, from the solid basis where alone, as we are taught by the experience of all the past and the consent of all mercantile nations in the present, it can safely rest. And yet neither party will commit itself to the attainment of this end.

2. Civil-service reform. All parties out of power insist upon its vital importance and pledge themselves to it. In 1876 the Republicans made it the most prominent article of their creed. In fact, in view of the scandals of the preceding four years, had they failed to do so, there was little hope that the people would trust them again with the power they had abused. All honor to President Hayes and his Administration for what has been done towards the redemption of the pledge then given! But how far the party is true to it may be seen in the fact that at this moment its most prominent candidate for the Presidential nomination is the man whose last Administration has the unenviable distinction of furnishing three Cabinet officers generally believed to be guilty of peculation in office, and of being, on the whole, the most corrupt the country ever saw; and, further, that two out of the three next after General Grant the most prominent have opposed the Administration of President Hayes in every attempt at reform, if it interfered with patronage. As for the Democratic party, it is enough to say that fifty years ago, under its great leaders, it utterly debauched the civil service of the country, till that time pure, and that, out of power or in power, it has never since done anything to repair the mischief then done.

3. Counting the votes for President. In 1876 we were brought dangerously near to civil war by the disagreement of the two parties as to the manner in which the result of the Presidential election was to be ascertained. The appointment of the Electoral Commission saved us for that time. No one supposes that experiment can be repeated. We are rapidly approaching again the same danger, and that under circumstances which greatly intensify it. Thoughtful men are oppressed by the prospect, and earnestly desire that our lawgivers should take measures for our safety before the excitement growing out of a pending election or of partially-ascertained results shall render agreement upon any plan impossible. But nothing is done. Each party seems afraid to propose, still more to agree to, anything, lest in its application it shall tend to defeat party ends.

These specifications might be extended, but it is needless. It is often said that this devotion to party and selfish ends, although to be regretted, is not dangerous to the country—that it has existed from the foundation of the Government, and yet at the end of a hundred years the nation is safe. The answer is obvious. In the past, parties divided upon great questions of statesmanship and public policy, and fidelity to one side or the other of these questions was the party test. The success of a party was the success of a principle. It is not so now, and hence our danger. Upon what one important question of national policy are the parties divided by lines so distinct that we can say this is a Democratic or that a Republican measure? Each party devotes itself to showing how dangerous would be the ascendency of the other, and to efforts to get the other "on record" in some way which will show its dangerous tendencies. This state of things cannot long continue. The great mass of voters, while vitally interested in having a good government, have no interest in the success of either party, as parties are now constituted. They are neither office holders, office seekers, nor contractors. To many, doubtless—to most, perhaps—the party name will continue to be all-sufficient for some time to come. But not so with men who have the capacity and will take the trouble to think.

How to get and keep a good government—how to avoid the tyranny of rulers, civil and ecclesiastical, on the one hand, and the tyranny of the mob on the other—has been the "conflict of the ages." Only the careful student of history knows what the conflict has cost. Our Government is far from perfect, but its attainment has cost those who went before us a great price, and for the present we know nothing better; so its preservation seems to call on us for careful consideration, persistent effort, and self-sacrifice. Those of us who were old enough thirty or more years ago to participate in political affairs remember that no successful opposition to the aggressions of the slave-power could be made so long as we re-

mained in the old party organizations. Now, as then, if we will be useful citizens, we must be content, if circumstances require it, to be come-outers. J. C. D.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., Feb. 2, 1880.

Notes.

A HISTORY of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad was published in 1853, and now we have a handsome volume, privately printed (and printed on laid paper at the Chiswick Press, London), a 'Bibliography' of the same company, from 1827 to 1879, compiled by Mr. John W. M. Lee. It embraces, including the publications relating to the branch roads, 644 numbers, most of which are prosaic enough, and attractive only to specialists, statisticians, or the legal profession. But in 1828 we notice "The Railroad, a Characteristic Divertimento for the Piano Forte" (No. 17), and Nos. 28, 307, and 516 are out of the common. Some famous names, like Wm. Wirt, J. P. Kennedy, Reverdy Johnson, and Henry Winter Davis, give a literary, or at least intellectual, flavor to the catalogue; and both as concerning the oldest passenger railroad in the United States, and that with whose prosperity the great foundation of the Johns Hopkins University is so intimately connected, this 'Bibliography' seems to justify the pains spent upon it.——The same may be said of the 'Memorial of Caleb Cushing,' published at the expense of the City of Newburyport, Mass., and for sale by A. Williams & Co., Boston. The tributes of funeral orators, historical societies, of bench and bar, suggest without solving the question why Mr. Cushing was not the first man in Massachusetts during his lifetime; though as regards his early defective oratory there is a significant passage on p. 154, in the memorial of the Essex Bar Association, than which there is nothing more critical in the book. A fine portrait in carbon photography serves as frontispiece.——The second volume of *Le Musée Artistique et Littéraire* (J. W. Bouton), the "annex" of *L'Art*, to use the phrase of the day, contains articles on Cham, Viollet-le-Duc, Hogarth, Poussin, and other masters, and the usual profuse assortment of illustrations in all the branches of art. Some of the American paintings at the Exposition are here reproduced, including Mr. Vedder's 'Cumæan Sibyl,' this time referred to in the text without abuse. The public, by the way, should not lose the present opportunity of viewing this fine work and the 'Young Marsyas' at Mr. Vedder's gallery, No. 39 Union Square.——Mr. Frederick Martin's 'Statesman's Year-book' for 1880 promptly takes its place in the invaluable series to which it belongs, with the customary alterations to date.——We have so recently reviewed Dr. Maudsley's 'Pathology of Mind' that we need say no more of the new edition just published by D. Appleton & Co. than that it is in many respects the best general book on insanity in any language. It is a pity that we have not in this country in that branch of the profession some men of Dr. Maudsley's intellectual calibre. The Messrs. Appleton, by the way, have just removed to their new quarters at Nos. 1, 3, and 5 Bond Street.——Harper & Bros. have in press Dr. Henry M. Dexter's 'Congregationalism of the Last 300 Years,' with its invaluable Bibliographical Appendix.——S. C Griggs & Co., Chicago, will shortly publish 'Preadamites; or, a Demonstration of the Existence of Men before Adam,' by Prof. Alexander Winchell, of the University of Michigan.——A 'History of the Cincinnati Society of ex-Army and Navy Officers' (Cincinnati: Peter G. Thomson) is a handsome pamphlet of two hundred pages. It contains an account of the formation of the society, full reports of its proceedings, and a brief statement of the military history of all its members. It may be as well to state that it has no connection whatsoever with the Society of the Cincinnati formed at the close of the Revolutionary War, and that its name is owing simply to its locality.——The history of the Smithsonian Institution is continued in the thick volume of 'Journals of the Board of Regents, etc.,' and the pamphlet 'Scientific Writings of James Smithson,' edited by Mr. W. J. Rhees, chief clerk of the Institution. As in the former volume of 'Documents,' the indexing is a curiosity. Here is an example, ludicrous in itself, and containing two errors—of fact and of alphabetic arrangement: "Angelo, Michael, personification of 'Thought' by a soldier, 298"; "Thought, personification of, by Thorwaldsen, 298." A medallion portrait and other illustrations accompany Smithson's scientific papers.——Five "Circulars of Information" of the Bureau of Education for 1879 relate to training-schools for nurses and of cookery, proceedings of the National Education Association, etc. The Bureau gives notice of the annual prize of the King of Belgium, which, for the ensuing year, will be awarded "to the best work on the means of improving ports established on low and sandy coasts like those of Belgium." The prize is $5,000. Manuscript or printed works must be sent to the Minister of the Interior at Brussels before January 1, 1881.——Bulletin No. 3 of the U. S. Entomological Commission is Dr. C. V. Riley's Report on the Cotton Worm, pp. 144, with numerous woodcuts and one full-page colored illustration. On pp. 68–74 Dr. Hagen's yeast-fungus remedy is unfavorably criticised.——The Minnesota Historical Society will celebrate the two-hundredth anniversary of the discovery of the Falls of St. Anthony on July 3, 1880, on the University Campus at Minneapolis.——Mr. L. W. Schmidt, who has lately removed to No. 7 Barclay Street, has received the catalogue of the remarkable library of the Comte Octave de Béhague, to be sold at No. 5, Rue Druot, during the fortnight beginning March 8. It embraces nearly 2,000 numbers. The bindings are of great value, more than five hundred having been executed by the late Trautz-Bauzonnet, a complete list of whose mosaic bindings from 1838 to 1878 is appended to the preface to the Catalogue.——Prof. A. Gazier, we learn from *Polybiblion*, has printed the hitherto unpublished letters to the Abbé Grégoire from correspondents whom he had consulted for particulars about the various patois of France (Paris: Pedone-Lauriel).

—Our readers are acquainted with the result of last year's competition for the prizes offered by the proprietors of the *Sanitary Engineer* and others for the best four plans for workingmen's tenements. A similar series of prices, since offered for the best designs for large city schools, has resulted in nearly as active competition. Over one hundred plans were exhibited last week at the Academy of Design. The conditions imposed were hard of fulfilment; and although the verdict of the committee is not published, it may yet be anticipated that no thoroughly satisfactory answer will have been rendered to the problem—how to provide airy and well-lighted rooms for a school of eight hundred children on a city lot of one hundred feet square, enclosed on three sides by four-story buildings. An inspection of the plans shows that no one allows more than about one hundred and thirty cubic feet of air-space for a scholar. We need not say that this is entirely inadequate for a "model" school. The architect is, of course, not to blame for this deficiency under the circumstances. The question of securing sufficient light is a peculiarly difficult one, and has been met with much ingenuity in a variety of ways. There are a number of other points of great interest—as the arrangements for heating and ventilating, the security against fire, the convenience for school work, and the latrines; but the most difficult problem by far is the introduction of sufficient light. The offerers of the prizes will have conferred a great service if they succeed in impressing the public with the disadvantage at which the most intelligent school architects have to work in this city.

—The February *Macmillan* has an account of the Zulu nation and the recent war, taken down from the lips of Cetywayo himself by Captain Poole, R.A., who has charge of the august prisoner. It does not turn out to be a sensation, and we doubt if the enterprising *North American Review*, which some time ago had an article from the pen of Chief Joseph, is at all jealous. As history it contains very little of value, much of it being already well enough known and the remainder rather rambling. The editor also observes with great justice that it is "in some respects one-sided." The Zulus have no idea of chronology, and Cetywayo complicates this difficulty by proving himself, as we judge from sundry interpolated notes, a great liar. Moreover, though the Zulu annals are the reverse of peaceful, they are in the highest degree monotonous, and Chaka, the founder of the nation, seems to have been the only remarkable man it has produced. As a literary curiosity, however, Cetywayo's story has an interest, and suggests the valuable additions to literature and the general information we should now possess if there had been enterprising magazines long enough ago to afford defeated barbarian lions an opportunity of painting the picture themselves. The "commentaries" of Ariovistus or Arminius, say, would make an interesting series of articles.

—The first number of the new series of *Unsere Zeit* contains an article by H. B. Oppenheim on the history of the parties now represented in the German Parliament—groups, for the most part, so vaguely defined as to make the details of German politics extremely confusing to the foreign observer. The present party system Mr. Oppenheim dates from the formation, in the reactionary period following 1848, of the "German Progress" party. Then was formed, he says, for the first time a liberal party, founded not on general principles, but upon the basis of definite historical precedents, and with practically attainable objects. By call-

ing itself a German party it secured the valuable support of those outside of Prussia who hoped for national unity, and inspired its active members with the enthusiasm engendered by an ideal aim. For a series of years, in spite of repeated dissolutions, this party had a strong majority in the lower house, but even before that brilliant move of Bismarck's which ended in Sadowa it had begun to disintegrate. Those who placed German above Prussian interests wished to come to terms with the Government, for, as they thought, progress towards national unity implied, first of all, harmony between king and people in Prussia. This fraction, headed by Twesten, Von Forckenbeck, Von Unruh, and Lasker, proposed accordingly a compromise with the Government; but, as it was not accepted, the other element won the upper hand, and kept it till, after the Austrian war, the former seceded to start the National-Liberal party. The two bodies were now divided not only with reference to the relative importance of local and national interests, but also with respect to the German policy to be followed; the new party advocating immediate federal union with the non-Prussian states, the old, under Waldeck's lead, the gradual absorption of them.

—It was a fortunate time for separation, because the liberal representatives of the annexed states (Hanover, Hesse, etc.), without denying their liberalism, wished to be on livable terms with the Government; for, on the reorganization of the local authorities, their districts would lose much if they were at odds with it. During the conflict period there had been practically but two parties; now there were three, and there were soon to be more, for, the necessity of union among the Conservatives being gone, their party also disintegrated. The seceders, however, under the name of Free Conservatives (in the Imperial Parliament they are called the *Deutsche Reichspartei*), formed and have maintained a separate organization corresponding to the Right Centre of French politics, as the National-Liberals do to the Left Centre; but they have never acquired anything like the relative strength of the latter. Their intention was to form a kind of parliamentary body-guard around Bismarck, and to swallow Tory prejudices so far as he might think desirable. The leader of this fraction was Count Bethusy-Huc, and it was composed chiefly of the high nobility, especially of Silesia, the great province for entailed estates. From this body have been taken most of the appointees to diplomatic positions, and some middle-class members of it have been made *Fach* (that is, business) ministers, as distinguished from the holders of the portfolios for military, judicial, and foreign affairs. The lesser nobility, however—the *Junkerthum*—remained firm in their adherence to the principle of stand-still in church and state. Both branches of the Right are distinguished from the Right in other parliaments by the fact that they are not allied with the Catholic Church, and hence derive no considerable support from the lowest class. After 1866 the Progressists steadily lost ground, and a new party appeared, which was destined to play a highly important part. This was the so-called Centre, or Catholics, who had obtained but fifteen seats in the Prussian election of 1866, but in 1870 had already increased the number to fifty-nine. For the federal election of the same year the Centre, headed by Windthorst, Reichensperger, and Karl von Savigny, issued their platform, advocating state rights and local privileges against centralization, and, "as political, so also ecclesiastical freedom, and the rights of religious bodies against possible encroachments in the way of legislation." In the same House the other parties were represented respectively in the order in which we have named them by 50, 123, 116, and 55 members. The increased power of the Centre is, to a large extent, attributable to the provision of the federal constitution ordaining manhood suffrage. When this was under discussion, says Mr. Oppenheim, "no one imagined the depths of ignorance, prejudice, superstition, and narrow-mindedness which now are, and for a long time to come will be, so potent a force in many parts of Germany." And, aside from the efforts of Poles, Danes, Alsatians, etc., our author deems the strength of particularism to be still very great. It was this, he says, more than anything else which carried the tariff of 1879.

—It is seldom that a musical composition has attracted so much general attention and interest as Berlioz's "Damnation de Faust," which was performed for the first time in English on Saturday last. It is difficult to imagine why this beautiful composition has only of late years been publicly performed in the composer's own country, why it is very seldom heard in Germany, and why it has never been brought before an American or English audience until now. That the doors of the Conservatoire de Musique of Paris have remained obstinately closed to Berlioz is no matter of astonishment. The programmes of its concerts are to this day almost exclusively confined to the works of the classical school. Schubert and Mendelssohn have been admitted, Schumann is but rarely heard, and this is the last concession which the solemn and dignified guardians of the public taste in France who rule at the Paris Conservatory have made to the exigencies of modern art. Berlioz's "Faust" cannot fail to produce an immediate and dazzling effect upon the hearer, whether a professional musician or an advanced amateur, or a concert-goer of merely ordinary cultivation. The best qualities of the composer are present in it. A fulness of beautiful melodies, poetical and original ideas, highly dramatic effects, with a brilliant and bold instrumentation and thoroughly artistic form, combine to produce a work of art of the very highest order. Berlioz was inspired by Gérard de Nerval's translation of Goethe's 'Faust.' He selected the words himself, and treated the text in his own original and thoroughly independent manner. He looked at the poem only from a musical point of view, omitting and adding whenever he thought he could by this means secure the most powerful musical effect. In the very first scene he leads *Faust* over the plains of Hungary, at early morning, for no other purpose than to introduce the Rákóczy march, which he does with striking power. The short first part opening with *Faust's* melancholy greeting to the coming spring, followed by the bright and joyful strains of the village festival, and concluding with the thrilling phrases of the famous Hungarian march, is, as a whole, the best of the work.

—The second part opens with the first scene of Goethe's drama: *Faust* in his room, restless and disgusted with life, and about to put an end to his misery, when he is interrupted by the solemn harmonies of the Easter hymn breaking in upon the quiet night. *Faust's* monologue moves in the gloomy mysterious key of C sharp minor, which at its climax is changed by a daring and unexpected modulation into the bright and comforting key of F major. After a noisy, strikingly realistic scene among the carousing students in Auerbach's cellar, in which the "Song of the Rat," followed by a burlesque requiem, and *Mephistopheles'* "Song of the Flea" are the most characteristic features, the demon carries his victim to the banks of the Elbe, to a field of roses, and there, bedded among the blooming flowers, he and his spirits sing the weary *Faust* into sleep and oblivion. Though one may look in vain for fields of roses on the banks of that cold, inhospitable, and most uninteresting river, Berlioz has made of this scene the gem of the whole work. It is impossible to describe the tender grace of this lovely number. After a soft introduction for baritone solo, which was admirably sung by Mr. Remmertz, the separate parts of the double chorus come in one after the other until, united and sustained by a most poetical orchestral accompaniment, they swell to a magnificent crescendo and then gradually sink to the softest pianissimo, when the weary sleeper is left to his dreams of peace and happiness. In the third part *Faust* and *Margaret* meet. The duet between the two lovers is also of indescribable beauty of melody and harmony. The fourth part contains a number, "Ride to Hell," which, for wild and overpowering orchestral effects, is perhaps unequalled in the whole history of music. The following chorus of the pandemonium, celebrating in wild discordant shrieks *Mephistopheles'* triumph, is even terrible. In magnificent and most comforting contrast to the dissonant shouts of the infernal hosts follow the solemn, majestic harmonies of the heavenly choir, receiving and welcoming *Margaret's* spirit to the abode of everlasting happiness. The performance of this immensely difficult work was excellent in almost every respect. The work of the chorus and the orchestra was admirably done, and no praise of Dr. Damrosch's untiring energy and rare skill and intelligence can be too high.

—Mr. Steele Mackaye's new theatre in Twenty-fourth Street was opened week before last to a full house, with a nondescript play of his own called "Hazel Kirke." The innovations introduced into the theatre itself are numerous. There is above the stage a lofty vault and beneath it a profound abyss, and in this space works up and down an elaborate framework in three stories, each one containing—or capable of containing—a fully set scene. Of course when the curtain is up, and there is a scene before the audience, the other stories are not visible at all, being either above or below the stage, but new scenes can be set in them while the play is going on, and so be ready whenever they are wanted. The object of all this machinery is to avoid long "waits" between the acts, though whether it is worth while to take so much trouble to obviate this objection to the ordinary method may be doubtful. That Mr. Mackaye's device, whatever its value, is a complete success, there can be no question. Everything works smoothly and noiselessly, and the "waits" are as long or as short as it seems advisable to the manager to make them. Another change is that the orchestra, instead of being placed in front of

the foot-lights, is perched up in a small gallery at the centre of the stage-arch. This, in a theatre as small as the Madison Square, is no bad plan, as it gives more room for seats. The floor is given a very steep incline, so that everybody in the house has a clear view of the stage. To all the details of the interior Mr. Mackaye has devoted a great deal of taste and thought, and the result is that the Madison Square Theatre is really worth seeing, if only for the prettiness of the spectacle. The curtain we will not undertake to describe; it was designed by the well-known artist, Mr. Louis C. Tiffany, whose assistance (to judge by the pleasing result) must have been called in for many of the scenic details also. Altogether, Mr. Mackaye is to be congratulated on his venture, but he is not by any means to be congratulated upon "Hazel Kirke." Whether it will run or not we should dislike to undertake to predict, but we trust that it may not, for its success will encourage Mr. Mackaye to believe that he is a dramatist, and this, of course, would encourage him to write other plays. He has a good stock company, and has it in his power to produce well any play that does not require a large stage. The strength of his company is in comedy, though many of his comedians evidently think that their line is tragedy. Miss Ellsler, a new actress to us, is given in "Hazel Kirke" an extremely difficult part, which any young actress might be pardoned for spoiling altogether. To say that she makes it go off at all is almost to call her a genius, and her talent for a certain kind of pathetic acting is very marked. Mr. Dominick Murray has acted Irish melodrama so long that the "brogue" still lingers in his speech, and produces an effect a little inconsistent with the rôle of the fine old English bachelor assigned to him in the play. Mr. Whiffen's *Pittacus Green* is a disappointment, as almost anything must be after Mr. Whiffen's *Sir Joseph Porter*. But the fault lies mainly with the part, which is more often silly and vulgar than it is funny. *Dunstan Kirke*, as the self-willed old farmer (suggested by the obstinate father in "Dora") is well, though somewhat monotonously, played by Mr. Couldock.

—The "Royal Middy," as given at Daly's Theatre, is an American adaptation of the "See-Cadet," recently produced at the Thalia Theatre in the original. The "See-Cadet" is a comic opera of the lightest sort; the libretto being almost bouffe in character, and the music certainly far from profound. The choruses are generally very good, and many of the airs, particularly the mask song and *Don Januario's bolero* in the first act, are pleasing and linger in the memory. But most of the score is not very original, and is music of a sort that might give rise to a dispute as to whether it was or was not commonplace. In the original the libretto and the situations of the plot are the main things. The absurdity is much heightened by the introduction of snatches of French here and there, the contrast with the prevailing German being often very comical. But in the American version all this disappears, and the plot is so altered for propriety's sake that the situations lose half their force. In the original, *Don Lamberto's* relations to *Fanchette*, and the complications arising out of them, are perfectly natural, though they cannot be reconciled with the canons of strict morality. In the American version morality is saved, but reason and probability are both thrown overboard. The singing at Daly's is not by any means what it should be; indeed, very little attempt is made at singing, except in the choruses, which are very well given. The acting is inferior to that at the Thalia some weeks ago. Mr. Alonzo Hatch acts *Don Lamberto* in a way to make the judicious grieve, while Miss Lewis's *Fanchette* is not by any means a success.

—Swiss dredgers last December brought up from the bed of the river Rhone a carved and polished jade *strigil* which at once attracted the attention of savants, from the well-known fact that jade is rarely if ever found in Europe. The London *Times* has had a number of letters upon the subject, among others from Prof. Max Müller, who believes the "scraper" to have been "the property of the first discoverers of Europe." He does not deny that such an announcement is enough to make one feel a "little giddy," but he maintains that any justifiable giddiness experienced in reflecting upon it bears small proportion to the giddiness which should be felt in reflecting upon some of the ascertained facts of philology. If one is to be giddy, his argument is, he should think of the portentous circumstance that the numerals are the same in Sanskrit and in English. Of all the numerals from one to ten, moreover, only *saptá* (seven) and *ashtáu* (eight) have the accent on the second syllable in Sanskrit, and the same is true of ancient and even modern Greek. "Any one who can look without a tremor into the depth thus suddenly opened before our eyes" and perceive that we are using the tools of language which came from Asia at the time of the great migration, ought to be able to keep a steady head, he thinks, in the presence of a theory that jade tools used in the Europe of the Stone Age "were brought from those well-defined areas in Asia where alone jade has been found," leaving America and Oceanica of course out of the question. It is evident that somebody has been ridiculing this theory, since Prof. Max Müller is never so derisive as when deriding the derision he has met with so frequently at the hands of a perverse generation. But it may be pointed out that (we are tempted to add as usual) his argument is in favor of a probability only, and tends to likelihood rather than certainty. In the words of the *Times*, which his letter has thrown into a spasm of awed speculation the like of which would make the fortune of a young editorial writer, he "opens up so many suggestive and profound ideas that the question on the nature and origin of manufactured jade, which was the basis of them all, is in some danger of being buried under the pile of riches of which it has unlocked the doors." The "theory" that jade was once produced in Europe, as it is in Asia, America, and Oceanica, and that it may be rediscovered there, is also, we suggest, one that it demands no excessive giddiness to contemplate; more especially as it is said already to have been found at Potsdam and Schwemsal. It need hardly be added that Prof. Max Müller alludes to these finds as "a few and somewhat apocryphal exceptions," and that it does not occur to him that they may indicate possible finds in future.

SIBREE'S MADAGASCAR.*

MADAGASCAR deserves indeed the first part of the title which the author has given it. The island is a thousand miles long, and has nearly the same area as France, but upon our maps it is dwarfed by its proximity to the neighboring continent. Although it is only three hundred miles away from Africa, it has far less in common with it, either in fauna or flora, than would be supposed. Mr. Alfred Wallace says that it sustains "a similar relation to Africa as the Antilles to tropical America, or New Zealand to Australia, but possessing a much richer fauna than either of these, and in some respects a more remarkable one even than New Zealand." Dr. Sclater, in his account of the mammals of Madagascar, concludes, 1st, that Madagascar has never been connected with Africa as it at present exists; 2d, that Madagascar and the Mascarene Islands must have remained for a long period separated from every other part of the globe; 3d, that some connection by land must have existed in former ages between Madagascar and India. From this it will be seen that it is by no means very clear that Madagascar is an *African* Island.

In the present volume, and in an earlier one entitled 'Madagascar and its People,' Mr. Sibree has given a very good popular account of the peculiarities of the fauna of the island, and he has furnished some interesting notes respecting its more curious plants. His style is not wholly free from obscurities; for instance, we are told (p. 88) that one species of yam has an edible root which "attains the size and thickness of a man's leg. The inside is white and has a milky juice; it is soft as a watermelon, but without seeds, and is eaten raw." It is doubtful whether we might not infer from this that some edible roots *do* have seeds. It must be further said that a few of the statements relative to the natural history of the island are unworthy of the author. On page 83, at the close of an attractive account of a species of opuntia, or prickly-pear, we read:

"It is perhaps not superfluous to remark that, except in old trees, there are no proper *branches* in the prickly-pear; all the thick, fleshy leaves grow from the edge of the others, and the flowers and fruit also grow in the same position. They possess great vitality, so that a single leaf laid on the ground soon develops a number of tendril roots, takes hold of the earth, and rapidly increases."

To which it might be rejoined that the foregoing remark is not only superfluous but is wholly misleading. As an exercise for correction by a botanical student it might serve a good purpose, albeit the errors are a little too obvious. What the author calls *leaves* are, in truth, fleshy, flattened branches, bearing other branches still more disguised under the form of spines or thorns.

For the most part the descriptions which the author gives of the animals and plants are accurate and graphic. As an illustration of this the account of the "traveller's tree" may be cited. This is a plant of the banana family, possessing a crown of broad and long leaves arranged in two rows, at the top of the stem, like a fan. In the common banana what appears to be the stem is made up of the bases of the leaves rolled firmly together, but this near relative of the banana has a trunk of soft

* 'The Great African Island. By Rev. James Sibree.' London: Trubner & Co. 1880. 8vo, pp. 372.

wood which frequently attains in crowded forests a height of eighty or ninety feet, although in the swamps it is only ten to twenty feet high. Of this plant the author says:

"In proceeding along the coast we had an opportunity of testing the accuracy of the accounts given of the water procurable from the traveller's tree, about which I had always felt rather sceptical, as somewhat of a 'traveller's tale.' In fact, I had never before seen the tree where plenty of good water was not procurable; but here there was none for several miles except the stagnant water of the lagoons. We found that on piercing with a spear or pointed stick the lower part of one of the leaf-stalks, where they all clasp one over the other, a small stream of water spurted out from which one could drink to the full of good, cool, sweet water. If one of the leaf-stalks was forcibly drawn down, a quantity of water gushed out, so that we afterwards readily filled a large cup with as much as we needed. On examining a section of one of the stalks a hollow channel about a quarter of an inch in diameter is seen running all down the inner side of the stalk from the base of the leaf. This appears to collect the water condensed from the atmosphere by the large, cool surface of the leaf, and conducts it downwards. After three hours' walking along the shore in the heavy sand, with a hot sun overhead, we were glad to draw from these numberless vegetable springs, and thanked the Giver of these living fountains in that thirsty land. We afterwards found that in some villages the people supply themselves constantly from this source."

Mr. Sibree, as we learn from an earlier work, went to Madagascar in 1863 as an architect to superintend the erection of four churches in memory of the martyrs who perished during the terrible persecutions in the island between 1837 and 1857. During a residence there of four years he had an excellent opportunity of becoming acquainted, under favorable circumstances, with the character of all classes of the natives. For this reason the chapters upon the customs, art, folk-lore, and popular superstitions are of exceptional interest. The inhabitants of the island, the Malagasy, closely resemble in many of their ways the Malayo-polynesian peoples, rather than those of Africa. This similarity suggests very startling questions relative to the period when the island first became peopled; and everything bearing upon traditions, habits, and language possesses an importance which Mr. Sibree has fully realized. The islanders have nominaliy embraced Christianity, and their rude customs are happily giving way; but a study of these and kindred ethnological subjects must be made now or never. At the capital of the island, Antananarivo, an annual is published, to serve as a repository of information respecting topics of anthropological interest, and for three years this periodical was under the charge of the author of the present volume. This fact is mentioned to show the zeal with which Mr. Sibree has undertaken his task. The volume closes with a fair and very interesting statement of the progress of missionary operations in the island. By a series of political changes the Hovas, the most intelligent and energetic of its numerous tribes, have gradually obtained the supremacy over all the rest:

"The policy of the present Government has in many points been greatly in advance of that of all preceding ones. In their anxiety for education, in the repression of the traffic in intoxicating drink, in the upholding of the Sabbath, and in the amelioration of cruel customs and laws and warlike usages, they deserve the praise of all; and in what they do to extend Christianity, although they do not always see the possible difficulties this may involve, the personal influence of the highest personages in the state has been exerted from the best motives and from a deep and sincere interest in the extension of the Gospel. Civilized and Christianized, a great future lies before Madagascar; and as it has become famous for the faith and devotion of many of its sons and daughters, so also, from its commercial importance, its inexhaustible fertility, and the mental capabilities of its people, it will eventually take an important and honorable place among the nations of the world."

MRS. DELANY'S CORRESPONDENCE.*

"IF all the world were prudent and regular," wrote Mrs. Delany in 1742, "it would not be half so diverting as it is now." The world certainly was anything but prudent or regular in her day, and she certainly found it very entertaining. She lived in a society where deans and virtuous ladies read 'Roderick Random' aloud in country-houses; where at dinner-parties they had plum-pudding and roast-veal for the first course, creamed apple-tart and collared pig for the second, and no dessert; where little girls were taught, as their first lesson in deportment, to "bridle" on entering a room—that is, to hold up the head and draw the chin back; where fine ladies amused themselves with making grottoes of shells in their gardens, or with "sugar-plum knotting" in-doors; where people took as cough-medicine two or three snails boiled in barley-water; where a queen at her coronation was not ashamed to wear, in addition to her own jewels, all that she could borrow of the court-ladies and all that she could hire of the Jews and jewellers. It was a time of gorgeous magnificence and of brutal grossness. For instance, Mrs. Delany writes thus to her sister in 1750:

"The present talk of the town is of an affair between Lord Hervey and Lord Cobham. Lord Hervey was at a drum of Lady Cobham's; he held his hat under his arm, the inside upwards; Lord Cobham laid a wager with Mr. Nugent of a crown that he would spit in Lord Hervey's hat, *and did*, asking Lord Hervey's pardon for doing it, and telling him the reason, upon which, with the utmost composure, Lord Hervey offered him his hat to win as many crowns as he pleased, but next morning sent Lord Cobham a challenge" (i. 365–6).

If such were the manners of gentlemen, it can hardly be supposed that their lackeys behaved better. Mrs. Ann Granville writes in 1737 of an "affair of importance" which consists in "the footmen being turned out of the playhouse; they have a strong party of ladies on their side; they were very impertinent, but the gentlemen were to blame also." It seems that these footmen were excluded from a certain gallery where they had congregated, in Drury Lane Theatre; and they collected with sticks and other weapons to fight their way into the stage-door. The Prince and Princess of Wales and others of the royal family were present, and great alarm prevailed; but the riot was not suppressed until twenty-five or more persons had been severely wounded (i. 155).

Mrs. Delany spent much of her life in Ireland. Perhaps nothing that she tells is so amusing as Lady Morgan's descriptions of the gay society of her youth, where a leading man of fashion in Dublin used to enter drawing-rooms by turning a somerset, in full dress, at the door; but Mrs. Delany's tales are wonderful enough. She informs us, for instance, that after the Lord Lieutenant's banquets, as the guests withdrew, the doors of the castle were always flung open, and the mob from the streets swept in to carry away every remaining fragment. The wife of the Bishop of Clogher, going to a dinner-party in her own sedan-chair, soon found both her bearers to be too intoxicated to proceed farther, and had to borrow a "hackney-chair" and finish her journey. More serious illustrations of the condition of that unhappy country were the narratives of young heiresses who had been forcibly abducted and married by villains, just as is described in Froude's 'History of Ireland.'

There is a delightful letter from Dean Swift to Mrs. Delany, then Mrs. Pendarves. He tells her with magnificent gallantry that when he "received the honor and happiness" of her letter he was suffering under both giddiness and deafness, but he did not "value" his deafness for three days, because her letter was his "constant entertainment during that time." He writes to her: "A pernicious heresy prevails here among the men, that it is the duty of your sex to be fools in every article but what is merely domestic; and, to do the ladies justice, there are very few of them without a good share of that heresy, except upon one article, that they have *as little* regard for *family business* as for the *improvement* of their minds." But to this sweeping charge he makes his fair correspondent a triumphant exception. "I know you never laugh at a jest before you understand it, and I much question whether you *understand a fan* or have so good a fancy *at silks* as others" (i. 135). These letters leave, on the whole, a very agreeable impression of the gifted and wayward Dean; and there is a good postscript in a letter to him from Lord Carteret who says: "P. S. When people ask me how I governed Ireland, I say that I pleased Dr. Swift" (i. 157).

Mrs. Delany's career included nearly a century of English history, from 1700 onward; and she passed through the social and public life of a frivolous period, being herself not only without stain, but a perpetual example of high aims, varied cultivation, and refined virtue. Of her wit and wisdom these letters everywhere give proof; they show her a devoted friend and the faithful wife of an adoring husband. She had tastes and knowledge far beyond those of the ordinary Englishwomen of her time; she studied eagerly the habits of animals and plants; she arranged a drama for an oratorio of Handel, the theme being taken from 'Paradise Lost'; she painted in oils, and on one occasion, being detained by weather at an inn, persuaded a sign-painter to let her do his work for him, and left the sign of "The Swan" behind her. She was a guest at gorgeous houses, and when she journeyed from Bulstrode with the Duchess of Portland they had four coaches-and-six, with twelve horsemen attending, besides "apothecaries, bakers, butchers" that joined in the procession to escort them part of the way. Yet she was utterly simple and unspoiled, and Edmund Burke said of her: "She is not only the woman of fashion in her own age, she is the highest-bred woman in the world, and the woman of fashion in all ages." She has been hitherto best

* 'The Autobiography and Correspondence of Mrs. Delany. Revised from Lady Llanover's edition, and edited by Sarah Chauncey Woolsey.' Boston: Roberts Brothers.

known to American readers through the 'Diary' of Madame d'Arblay; and it is pleasant to hear that the editor of these volumes, Miss Woolsey, is about to make a similar abridgment of that very amusing book.

LATE STUDIES OF ORIENTAL CYLINDERS.*

IT is time that a more careful and scientific study were made of the little seal cylinders of which there are hundreds scattered about in the public and private collections of Europe and America. They are an inch or two long, half or three-quarters of an inch in diameter, pierced the length of the axis so as to allow them to be held by a string, and the surface is covered with mythological or other figures, often with the name of the owner added. Made of various hard stones, they are well-nigh imperishable, and as every gentleman in the older and later Babylonian empires, in the great Assyrian empire, and in those of Armenia, Susa, and Persia, carried one on his wrist or about his neck, it is not strange that hundreds even have been discovered whose inscriptions cover a period of more than two thousand years. They are valuable for the study of history, palæography, art, and mythology, but they have for the most part hitherto been looked upon as curious puzzles or as the toys of a museum.

The published material for their study is considerable, but very imperfect. Cullimore's 'Oriental Cylinders' (London, 1842) is a collection of 174 figures, without a word of description or conjecture, as at that time, indeed, conjecture would have been worthless. Lajard's 'Culte de Mithra' (Paris, 1849) contains a larger and finer collection, thrown together, like Cullimore's, with no understanding of the nationality, even, of the cylinders, and made to serve the purpose of a baseless notion of the worship with which they were imagined to be connected. Passing by numerous earlier and later works, in which one or two are figured, the next collection of any importance is Ménant's 'Catalogue' of the cylinders in the Royal Cabinet of Medals at the Hague, which contains thirty-five photographs of cylinders, besides seals of the cone form, which are far less interesting. Apart from scattered notices here and there, the only considerable studies of these cylinders are by Lenormant in various portions of his 'Essai de Commentaire des Fragments Cosmogoniques de Bérose,' and by Ménant in the works cited below. We may say here that Ménant is still pursuing this study, and that he desires to obtain impressions of cylinders owned in America. Any such sent to this office we will undertake to forward to him.

So much is now known of the Assyrian language that the translation of the inscriptions on the cylinders generally offers few difficulties. Even in the Armenian and Susian cylinders, the language of which still baffles translation, it is easy to read the name of the owner. The commonest form of inscription is in three lines and generally of one type, as in the following: "(1) Hisimilasu, (2) Son of Butur-Sin, (3) Worshipper of the God Martu." These inscriptions thus give no clue to the explanation of the accompanying figures, there being no evidence that even the god worshipped by the owner is more likely to be engraved. It is a peculiarity of Ménant's interpretation of these figures that he is very chary of allowing them to be gods. He accepts George Smith's identification with Izdubar and Heabani of the hero with side curls and the man-and-bull monster that fight together against wild beasts; and he calls the seated male figure Belus, and the nude female figure with crossed arms Beltis; but the other figures he generally regards as human. It is, however, difficult to conceive why the Chaldeans should have covered their seals with "priests," "pontiffs," "sacrificers," and "initiators" in preference to the gods to whom these officials were devoted. A notable case is that of perhaps the commonest of these figures, which Ménant calls a priest, probably because its hands are lifted in an attitude which might be adoration. But this figure, which appears fifty times in Cullimore's, Lajard's, and Ménant's collections, is always beardless, and presumably female rather than a eunuch. It wears a long flounced dress, never found on a standing male figure, with a flying loop in the coiffure behind the head (cf. Cull. 'Oriental Cylinders,' Fig. 106, where it appears in connection with another having a similar flounced dress and coiffure, unmistakably feminine; also Fig. 90, where four female figures, *not* Chaldean, have a similar headdress; and again the headdress of the female figures in the remarkable seal found by Schliemann and described in his 'Mycenæ,' p. 354). Another mark of distinction is the peaked hat, rarely if ever found on a bearded figure, but found on indisputably female figures, as in the goddess armed with the long-handled scimitar, generally worn by Bel Merodach, in 'Culte de Mithra,' xxxvi. 1. It can hardly be doubtful that this beardless "priest" is really a goddess, as a figure in precisely the same dress, but with a front view, represented in Cullimore's 'Oriental Cylinders,' Fig. 56, as resting on two lions, is identified by one of the inscriptions which speaks of "Ishtar on the lions," who is the Ishtar of battle, while the more common figure is most probably the Ishtar of love, and her attitude is hardly that of adoration but of invitation.

There is on the cylinders a quite common group, consisting of a seated male figure, to whom a standing figure, often with the horns of a god attached to his headdress, is leading a humbler figure held by the hand. These Ménant calls Belus, the *initiateur* and the *initié*. But it would seem that this sitting figure can hardly be Belus, as it has sometimes the emblem of streams falling from the shoulders, which it would seem must belong to Hea, the god of the ocean and the under-world. If this be so the two other figures would probably represent a soul being brought to the King of Hades for judgment. The figures of a "warrior" and a "sacrificer," as they are called by Ménant, seem to us to be almost certainly those of gods.

It must be confessed that Ménant throws considerable doubt on the accepted explanation of a somewhat famous cylinder (given in George Smith's 'Chaldean Account of Genesis,' p. 91), which represents a male and a female figure, one on each side of a tree whose fruit they are about to pluck, while behind the woman is an erect serpent. Smith, the younger Delitzsch, and Baudissin agree that this must represent a Chaldean legend of the fall of man, but there are other cylinders of the same general type which invalidate this explanation; although since the discovery of the tablets containing the story of the Deluge we need not be surprised to dig up a Chaldean version of any of the stories which precede it. A remarkable cylinder in the possession of Professor S. Wells Williams, of New Haven, seems to confirm the current explanation, as it takes up the story after the fall, and represents the serpent—*not* the ordinary dragon or griffin—as now being pursued and punished by Bel Merodach.

Much study yet remains to be given to these cylinders before they can be fully understood. Their hundred or two figures of gods, men, heavenly bodies, and symbolic objects can be but slowly identified and explained. It seems already certain what a few of the chief figures are, and also that the inscriptions, of which Ménant has here satisfactorily translated a goodly number, can give us no help in identifying the figures of the gods. As a general thing the engraver seems indiscriminately to have put on two or three favorite figures, each in its conventional attitude, and after engraving the name of the owner and his filiation, with the name of the god to whom he was devoted, to have filled up the field with such minor objects as there remained room for. With our increasing knowledge of the Babylonian pantheon we may expect to be able soon to understand these extremely interesting figures much better than at present. We may notice that in these, as in other of Ménant's works, there are some annoying typographical errors. Thus, in the "Catalogue" we notice that on p. 23 the reference to "Cullimore, Pl. 20" should be Pl. 17, and on p. 59 "Cullimore No. 17" should be No. 7.

* 'Catalogue des Cylindres Orientaux du Cabinet Royal des Médailles à la Haye. Par Joachim Ménant.' La Haye: Imprimerie de l'Etat. 1878.
'Les Cylindres Orientaux du Cabinet Royal des Médailles de la Haye. Par Joachim Ménant.' (Dans les *Archives des Missions.*) 1878.
'Notice sur quelques Cylindres Orientaux. Par Joachim Ménant.' Paris. 1878.

RECENT NOVELS.*

THE *Saturday Review* says in a recent number that the literature of the present day consists mainly of ephemeral novels or of forms of journalism—"reporter's work in disguise." 'Under the Tricolor' is an unhappy combination of both: nine parts of "reportage" to one of novel. The one part of novel is made up of the commonplace moralizings of the Paris correspondent of an American newspaper, a middle aged, unattractive, and impecunious woman, who lives in a well-known Franco-American boarding-house, and acts as confidential manager of an improbable love-passage between two young dwellers in the same *pension*. The real object of the book is to give a sketch of the members of the American Colony; they pass before us thinly disguised under pseudonyms. First come the "low Americans" of Mme. Magne's boarding-house, utterly unable to appreciate any life beyond that of their homes, with their bad French, their love of bargains at the *Bon Marché*, and their provoking persistence in teasing the Legation for tickets of admission and for redress when they are overreached in shops. Then we have the widow with small means and a mysterious past; the mother and one daughter, so often seen abroad, whose man remains at home, or is missing altogether;

* 'Under the Tricolor; or, The American Colony in Paris. A Novel. By Lucy Hamilton Hooper.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

and two young women who have come to Paris for culture in various directions—one "with as much voice as a mouse in a cheese," who insists upon being a prima donna, and another who has entered "Vinoy's class of young men to draw from the nude living model, while the unkempt Bohemians were laughing and jesting about her."

We are then taken to the quarter of the *Arc de Triomphe* and shown the American nobility, "mortified at the fact that they were born under the stars and stripes," "the only foreigners in Paris who are ashamed of their nationality." They adore fashion, and rank, and title, and try their best to live near the rose if they cannot quite be it—even turning Catholic sometimes to win this social heaven. Why not? As Henry IV. said: "Paris vaut bien une messe." Another method—but more expensive—is to buy vicomtes and barons as husbands for their daughters. Some of them, however, prefer to adopt English manners and talk, and to prostrate themselves at the feet of English swells; this class is increasing. An interesting matter for observation is the position of this aristocratic American colony, as Mrs. Hooper describes it, encamped on the outskirts of French fashionable society, gazing longingly upon a promised land into which they cannot hope to enter, despised by the people they most admire and despising each other. We should mention that among these lost sheep who have erred and strayed from their country and their country's ways, Mrs. Hooper has found two ladies "who are still truly and nobly American," and who have not been injured by transplanting. "The finer growths," she tells us, "do not change their nature with the soil. Potatoes vary in quality and flavor with the earth in which they are planted and the skies beneath which they grow, but the diamond remains unaltered and unalterable whether washed by the waters of an African river or blazing on the bosom of a northern queen." What an admirable subject the American Colony might be for a good hand Mr. James has shown us in his most recent sketches. Mrs. Hooper's long residence abroad has given her the opportunity to collect good material, but in this book it is wasted, and the taint of the reporter clings to it. Mrs. Hooper is not a close or discriminating observer; she lacks imagination, and the literary gift has been denied to her.

The American publishers are promptly in the field with the first part of Zola's 'Nana,' which we believe is still running in the *Voltaire*. Nana is, readers of 'L'Assommoir' will remember, the child of Coupeau and Gervaise, and takes early to the pavement. At the opening of 'Nana' she appears on the stage at the Varieties Theatre as "the Blonde Venus," and captivates all Paris that is dissipated and disreputable, and even that frequent visitor, the Prince of Wales, to whom the book must be singularly interesting reading, we should say. At the end of this volume she is at the summit of her vogue; the next will probably take her down the decline. So far 'Nana' is indisputably M. Zola's worst book. Curiously enough, the impression that it must leave upon every reader, whether blasé or inexperienced, is that it is unreal and amateurish. This is unfortunate, for M. Zola has certainly never chosen a theme better capable of illustrating his great theory that there is no sunshine anywhere in life, and it cannot fail to be disappointing to so distinguished a moralist to make so slight an impression with so potent a subject. Compared with the conviction conveyed in such a sentence as "He knows not that the dead are there, and that her guests are in the depths of hell," 'Nana' seems trivial. There are some "facts of life" which can be estimated quite accurately without experience of them, and it might be objected to this book that the misery of the life of a "Nana" is one; but it is a sufficient objection to it that, judged by M. Zola's own standard, it fails in verisimilitude.

Few writers of novels who have so distinct a call to their profession as Mr. Julian Hawthorne are so uneven in their execution. In taking up a new book by him we are in doubt whether we are to be delighted by the fulfilled promise of 'Bressant' and of 'Garth,' or whether we are to be annoyed with the grotesque unreality of 'Idolatry.' We are prepared for the one state or the other, since Mr. Hawthorne's genius is untempered by the critical faculty or by any sense of humor; but we are unprepared to find in the author of 'Saxon Studies' defects that hint at a want of perception and betray a lack of general observation. Sebastian Strome is the son of a country parson, after the type of the good bishop in 'Les Misérables.' While studying for his father's calling he becomes the victim of sceptical doubts, and, feeling strangled by the bands he is about to assume, his liberty and his reason lay violent hands on all the moralities; he lives fast, gambles, betrays the maid of the young lady to whom he is afterwards engaged, entices her to London, and deserts her. This, we believe, is an entirely new complication in the history of the novel; Sebastian's taste is throughout deplorable, however, and is, if anything, inferior to his morality. He is suddenly called home to find the girl he had ruined fatally injured by a passing railway-train, together with his father, who had endeavored to save her, and himself left with a little daughter, whom he may recognize or not, as he chooses. His heart, it happens, has remained sound at the core by virtue of the sceptical pickle in which it has been immersed; he feels that he needs punishment, and proceeds to administer it in his own fashion. He first confesses to his fiancée, and though she wants to forgive him he refuses to accept her sacrifice, declaring he can never have loved her; in which statement he is much mistaken. Having performed this duty, he returns to London, sells his effects, and retires to the slums with his baby to maintain her by honest toil at wood-carving. The lady, meantime, who may be described as of the strapping order of heroines, marries out of pique a genuine villain, and not a sceptical simulacrum of one. Having reason to reflect, she is on the point of murdering her husband in a fit of emotional insanity when he suddenly dies unassisted. (Previous to this, we should mention, he has accidentally killed Sebastian's baby.) She is under suspicion, however, when Sebastian emerges from his retreat, converted from scepticism, accepts a Government position that is all ready for him, goes to the Crimea, finds a witness who can prove Mary's innocence, and the book closes with an intimation that the two lovers have got back to where they started from, and will marry and be happy. This is not the kind of thing many people who read 'Bressant' ten years ago thought Mr. Hawthorne would be doing ten years afterwards.

'A Strange Disappearance' has the incontestable merit of being interesting, though it is absurd enough in certain particulars, and has nothing to do with the people and events that belong to this world. It is a detective story, of the sort that Mr. Collins is fond of, and, being by a lady, excites some surprise that its machinery should be so well managed. The mystery, which involves the marriage of one of the wealthiest and proudest citizens of New York and the daughter of a low German burglar, her subsequent disappearance, and the attempts of the police to find her without knowing anything of her history, is disclosed little by little, and we find clues and lose them again in just the way needed to keep our attention. 'A Strange Disappearance,' in other words, is one of those novels which once beginning you read through, and then lay aside with a feeling of wasted time.

The Indian Mutiny is now so far removed from us in time that a tale like 'The Serpent-Charmer,' relating the fortunes of a Franco-Indian family involved in it, seems almost to belong to the domain of historical fiction. The book, the plot of which appears to be founded on fact, is rather a boy's book than a novel, and is filled with an uninterrupted series of wild adventures told in an agreeable and interesting way. Many European households at isolated stations in India were placed at the outbreak of the revolt in the position of the Bourquien family, though few of them came through the terrible interregnum of anarchy, rapine, and slaughter as well. We have often wondered why Indian adventure and life have not been more utilized by English producers of fiction. The returned nabob and civil-servant and half-pay officer are familiar characters to all novel-readers. They necessarily figure, however, in European scenes. But the life of these familiar types as it went on in India, in their first stage of existence, is nearly a sealed book to us. So, too, is native Indian life. Here and there some rash intruder, like Mr. Wilkie Collins in his 'Moonstone,' has endeavored to lift the veil from the latter and shown us a wild melodrama of Oriental passion and religion which he has labelled India, though he might perhaps as well have called it China or Assam. The explanation of this is probably two-fold. The novel-producer, English and American, knows little or nothing of Indian life, and the class which is directly interested in it is so restricted and so little literary that it has never given rise to a school of fiction of its own. As a field for juvenile fiction India presents many advantages. It is a country remote, little known, picturesque, and mysterious; peopled with strange and interesting figures; an ancient, splendid, but conquered civilization, existing side by side with that of the invading and resistless European. It is a theatre of adventure, danger, heroism, and crime—of everything which is exciting to the adolescent imagination. Precisely how much M. Louis Rousselet really knows about India we do not undertake to say; but he knows, at least, a good deal about boys, and that they

'Nana. From the French of Emile Zola. Translated by John Stirling.' Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Co.

'Sebastian Strome. By Julian Hawthorne.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880.

'A Strange Disappearance. By Anna Katharine Green.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1880.

'The Serpent-Charmer. By Louis Rousselet. Translated from the French by Mary de Hauteville.' With 68 engravings on wood by A. Marie. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

like a hearty meal of pillage and carnage, and are not easily surfeited with stories of snakes and alligators, and with this he has provided them in 'The Serpent-Charmer.'

Cyprus. As I Saw It in 1879. By Sir Samuel White Baker. (New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.)—The interest in Cyprus awakened by the English occupation bids fair to be satisfied, if the making of books about that island can accomplish it. Among the many that have been published Sir Samuel Baker's will probably be the most popular, for the results of personal inspection, directed by the most trustworthy sources of information obtainable, are given in his natural and easy style, so that the most lazily disposed are entertainingly provided with an amount of knowledge that is, in general, to be had only by the study of statistics and the expenditure of much time. The narrative, probably constructed from a diary of each day's journey, is agreeably diversified by incidents of a personal nature which, however, are not allowed to encroach upon the main purpose of showing Cyprus as it stands, its needs present and future, and the difficulties attending its government and development under the terms exacted by the Porte. The first year's occupation, although disastrous to the agricultural interests from drought, has shown the revenue to be easily collectable, but the surplus, which the treaty gives to the Porte, has been calculated on the Turkish basis that all necessary expenses of government are included in the salaries of the various orders of tax-collectors, needed public works of all kinds having been entirely neglected under Turkish misrule. It would be singular if England should long contentedly accept the position of tax-collector to the Sultan, even if the office be rendered less irksome by the secret knowledge of having gained some ulterior object by the occupation; she certainly does not require the sense of being a very ill-paid official to awaken her to the crying wants of the people whose care she has assumed. There is a pressing need of money for the development of every native industry, and the capital that would naturally flow into the island is frightened away by the uncertain tenure of the English, whose withdrawal, though based on the unlikely contingency of Russia's removal from Kars, Batum, and Ardahan, may still take place, it is supposed. The hands of the Government are tied, the people, until relieved, being unable to bear farther taxation; and a revision of the taxes as a method of relief must be undertaken with extreme caution to avoid a painful deficit in the revenue.

The wine trade, which has been rigorously taxed—almost to its destruction—on account of Turkish prejudice, could, by encouragement, be made to take its proper place as the principal industry of the island. At present the wine-grower struggles under different forms of taxation, aggravated by ruinous delays inflicted by dishonest tax-farmers; there is a first tax of two per cent. on the value of the land, a tax of one-tenth on the grapes, which must be appraised before the crop can be gathered, and ten per cent. ad valorem on the wine made. Then, before the wine can be taken to Limasol for sale, a permit for the removal of a stated quantity must be obtained, and at Limasol it must be again weighed to see that the permit has not been exceeded, an excess being punished by a fine double the amount of the whole tax. The transportation is in goat-skin bags made impervious with tar, and the journey under a broiling sun seriously debases its quality, as does also the unnecessary but required delay at Limasol before it is allowed to be sold. The only relief which the Government has yet been able to afford is the abolition of the tax-farming. The construction through the roadless wine-district of narrow roads, so that the wine can be transported in barrels from the grower to the merchant, is urgently advised by Sir Samuel Baker. The improvement in quality would at once make the tax less onerous. A wide military road already constructed at too great expense is, he says, unsuited to the habits of the people, besides having no branches into the wine-district. Until cheap roads are made the wine will taste of tar and goat-skin, and the laden mule and his driver will clamber around and over the English highway seeking shorter cuts to their destination.

A still greater necessity is a system of irrigation. It should be modelled on a simple plan, suitable to the simple character of the people, and such an one is entirely practicable; the dreary plain of Messaria is underlaid at the depth of five or six feet with the water needed by the perishing crops. If the Government, which can borrow money at four per cent., will advance loans at six per cent. for the construction of water-wheels, the crops would be assured, and Sir Samuel Baker is convinced that the first year's crops would repay the loan. The subject of a water-supply for the towns and villages should be placed in the hands of competent engineers, but with an emphatic caution against elaborate and expensive methods; in a place where the half-starved cattle prefer to die while they wait for the grass to grow rather than to wax fat on English prepared cattle-food, no caution in introducing improvements, one would say, could be too great. But the numerous remains of ancient aqueducts show that, though the disappearance of the forests may have affected the rain-fall, Cyprus has always had to depend upon artificial works for her water-supply. A renewal of the forests with stringent and enforced forest laws, the compulsory planting, by proprietors, of trees of fruit-producing varieties, which have been greatly neglected, would ensure great profit. In fine, England has acquired a property which with great economy of administration will yield after a time a large revenue, and, perhaps, equal the sanguine expectations of the first speculators who hurried to the island only to hasten away yet more rapidly.

But before that time there are plenty of disappointments in store for the Government. The crown lands, which have been confidently predicted to be of great agricultural value, have been encroached upon with the connivance of fraudulent officials, so that proving titles will involve endless litigation; when the occupation took place there were forty thousand unsigned fraudulent title-deeds, for example. It is a mistake to suppose there is any considerable quantity of cultivable land unused; and though there may be undeveloped mineral wealth, there are no obvious indications of it. Besides the works necessary for the progress of the people, others more costly are needed to render Cyprus the strong strategical position which was the reason for its occupation. The arsenal and harbor of Famagosta should be restored, the Pedias river enclosed in a narrow bed to increase the velocity of the current, and so prevent the formation of malarious marshes at the mouth; and farther expensive engineering works will be required to carry the silt beyond the harbor and prevent the growth of an impassable bar. Other harbors at Kerynia on the north coast, at Karavastasi in Morphu Bay on the west, and at Limasol and Larnaka on the south require various improvements differing in expense. The climate, with due precaution against encampment in malarious districts and the avoidance of the central region in summer, when the mean temperature is 72° and the maximum 115°, will not be found unhealthful, though the sufferings of the army which came provided with copper warming pans and cast-iron coal-boxes (could anything be more characteristically national than that?) have spread an impression to the contrary which Sir Samuel Baker considers extremely unfortunate. The book as a whole leaves a very distinct impression upon the reader's mind of just what Cyprus is, and what its reasonable prospects are, and it is unnecessary to say, we suppose, that the author has abundantly proved his trustworthiness heretofore. It does, however, need a map, and the reader will find it to his advantage to obtain one for himself and use it in connection with the volume.

The Cradle of the Confederacy; or, the Times of Troup, Quitman, and Yancey. A Sketch of Southwestern Political History from the Formation of the Federal Government to A.D. 1861. By Joseph Hodgson, of Mobile. (Mobile: 1876. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.)—The Northern public has, we believe, in spite of the date on the title-page, only just begun to have an opportunity of making the acquaintance of this work. It will be found by the patient reader to be a valuable contribution to the history of the doctrine of secession, and perhaps the only one in which the fate of the Whig party in Alabama and the successful efforts of Wm. L. Yancey to force his adopted State and the rest of the South out of the Union—efforts persevered in for many years—are set forth with so much detail and with so much candor. Mr. Hodgson seems divided between his admiration for Yancey and his sense of the folly of the idea that secession could be peaceable; and apparently was one of the Conservative Whigs who were reluctant to consider Lincoln's election a sufficient grievance to justify withdrawal, and who were stung into acquiescence in the ordinance of secession by Yancey's taunting them as Tories, and intimating that they would yet be hung for treason. In still another particular this book is an important source of information: a great deal of attention is bestowed on the complications of Georgia with the Cherokees and of Alabama with the Creeks in ousting them from their reservations—a crime which was expiated at Mission Ridge, and which is here made interesting by a discussion of the Constitutional issues raised between the States and the Federal Government over a conflict of jurisdiction, from Washington to Jackson. In a discursive and disorderly way, indeed, Mr. Hodgson may be said to show the two-fold strain upon our form of government of the anomalous condition on the one hand of the aborigines, on the other of the blacks, under the Constitution. The two

causes were united in Northern Georgia and Alabama, for the objection of these States to civilizing and adopting the Indian was that, according to Governor Troup, "the utmost of rights and privileges which public opinion would concede him would be a middle station between the white man and the negro slave"; and "there was no place for him intermediate between the slave and his master."

It is instructive to observe that in all this Indian controversy, as in the attempt to make slaveholding safe in any part of the Union, the term "right," so freely and so ardently used, had a purely abstract signification. The existence of a moral sentiment at the North was a standing puzzle to the South, and was so thoroughly disbelieved in that even Mr. Hodgson talks of the editor of the *Liberator* as a "British subject" and "agent of Exeter Hall," and reports George Thompson as "repeating in conversations that 'every slaveholder should have his throat cut.'" So when Roger A. Pryor, opposing a resolution in favor of reopening the slave-trade, at a Southern commercial convention held in Montgomery, May 10, 1858, had said: "This proposition, if endorsed, would shock the moral sentiment of Christendom," Mr. Yancey replied: "The gentleman from Virginia refers to the opinions of Christendom upon this subject—they are rather the opinions of devildom."

As far as it goes, the book points to the genuine simplicity of those fire-eaters who, while professing their readiness to sacrifice their lives in behalf of State sovereignty (and sometimes the lives of their fellow-slaveholders, as when Yancey tells Brownlow he hopes some day to bayonet him), expected the North to be cowed and to yield peaceably to the inevitable. One anecdote is offered in evidence: "General Clanton was accustomed to tell how when, a few months later than the election, a cavalry regiment of militia of which he was a field-officer was offered to President Davis, the reply was that the Confederacy would not need cavalry, that it would be an infantry war, and that a few regiments of infantry would be sufficient." Mr. Yancey, however, had long before worked out a plan of campaign, which he wrote of as "a well-considered Southern policy—a policy which has been digested and understood and approved by some of the ablest men in Virginia," and in which the Border States were to remain in the Union at first, and save the Southern Confederacy from having "a long abolition, hostile border to watch," besides interposing a barrier to armed suppression of the disunion movement.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 26, 1880.

The Week.

THE nomination of Smyth has not been confirmed at Albany, and the temper of the Senate is such that the chances of winning over that body seem hopeless. How much this is due to his abuse of his office, and how much to his late indiscretion in packing the primaries, is not clear. Smyth's career curiously illustrates the condition of parties. He owed the postmastership at Albany to Senator Conkling, and his friendship for that great man was the only recommendation he had for appointment to the responsible and technical office of Superintendent of Insurance. The fact that he was nominated by Gov. Robinson seemed to point to a bargain between Conkling and Tilden, or the Tilden wing of the Democracy. On his trial, however, in the spring of 1878, for extorting from insurance companies the costs of inspection without audit as required by law, he was acquitted by the combined votes of Republican and Tammany Senators—an alliance which was revived last fall so successfully. His renomination now is attributed by the *Times* to the dictate of Conkling, which may be true, but should not make the public think that Cornell needed any dictating. In the meantime Smyth had become more conspicuous as a "worker" than ever, and, relying upon the autocratic power of his patron and the *Tribune's* account of the extreme youth and feebleness of the Scratchers, he went a step too far and roused something like genuine indignation "within the party."

We regret that we cannot share the *Times's* surprise at the Governor's action. "Mr. Cornell," we are told, "can no more afford to act as the political dummy of Mr. Conkling than Mr. Robinson could afford to surrender his Executive conscience into the keeping of Mr. Tilden." But, innocent and esteemed contemporary, how could Mr. Cornell have got his present office except as Mr. Conkling's dummy—the phrase was in everybody's mouth during the late canvass—and can you persuade him that that did not pay, or that he can "afford" to be anything else than subservient to the hand which made him what he is? Can you even make him forget, while reading your daily contributions to the Grant boom, that there is no essential difference between the renomination of Smyth and that of Boss Shepherd, and that a respectable daily cannot afford to condone in a President the lawlessness which it finds "disgraceful" in a Governor?

One of the immediate results of the affair has been the retirement of Mr. Charles E. Smith from the editorship of the Albany *Evening Journal*. Mr. Smith was one of the most active Conklingite "workers," and was one of the delegates chosen by the fraudulent Smyth primary meetings, but resigned some days afterwards. The paper has been for many years the central organ of the Republican managing power, whatever it might happen to be, and its defection is a somewhat serious matter. The editorship passes into the hands of Mr. George Dawson, one of the proprietors and an influential Republican, who was one of the principal speakers at the malcontent indignation meeting the other day in Albany. In the meantime the result of the Convention at Syracuse will be known before this reaches our readers, and it is not at this writing very doubtful. Three-fifths of the delegates elected are third-term men, and the only question which seems to occupy their minds just now is whether they will repeat the Pennsylvania process and "instruct" the delegation to Chicago to vote as a unit for Grant, or leave them to the guidance of their own enthusiasm when the time comes. They have clearly not much to fear by way of opposition within the party machinery. Mr. George William Curtis has been defeated at the election of delegates on Staten Island, and in his absence nobody is very likely to offer any outspoken opposition to Mr. Conkling's arrangements in the Convention. Mr. Curtis has fallen a victim to his faith in "reform within the party," to which he has held with extraordinary tenacity against the teachings of political history everywhere. The party will probably be reformed, if ever, at the polls, by crushing defeats at the hands of men who care more for ends than for means.

The object of calling the Pennsylvania and New York Conventions so early as February to prepare for the nomination in June is, of course, the obvious one of forestalling the working of popular reflection on the Grant "boom." That it will fail to accomplish its purpose we still believe. The very nature of the trick stimulates opposition to Grant, and will continue to do so between now and summer. The Germans all over the country are preparing to oppose him to a man, and though we perceive Mr. Boutwell, who apparently wants a nice, compact little party, would like to get rid of the Germans altogether, the rest of the managers will probably perceive, as time goes on, that nothing is so necessary to a party as votes, and that the Republican party has none to spare. Strong native opposition is being organized too, both in this State and Pennsylvania, and it will grow stronger, as the weeks run by, in view of the fact that there is no such dearth of unexceptionable candidates, who would see that the laws were faithfully executed and whose character is above reproach, as the Grant movement seems to assume.

We have discussed Mr. Sherman's qualifications elsewhere; but there are also Mr. Edmunds and Mr. Washburne, on whom personally there does not rest the shadow of reproach, whose associations are of the best kind, who do take an interest in national affairs, and who have had long and varied experience of public life. How is it we do not hear more of these gentlemen from the pastors and church-members who were so shocked in 1876 by Tilden's being such a bad man, and who call so much in sermons and prayers for personal purity and integrity in politicians? And suppose that, after all, the Democrats should, in a lucid interval, nominate Mr. Bayard, does anybody believe seriously that fear of the "Brigadiers" and the "Solid South" will continue strong enough to prevent his receiving the vote of a large and growing body of Republicans who are sick of trickery? Side by side with the demand for "a strong man" in the Presidency there has grown and is growing another demand, and one which has a larger future, for a man of stainless character, who keeps good company, and believes in a government of law; and it may get imperious enough to make such a candidate welcome, no matter from what party he comes. Now is the time to think of these things.

The attitude of the *Times* and *Tribune* towards the "booms" is just now an interesting subject of observation. Both are playing a very close game for the organship. The *Times* seems to have definitively taken up the Grant boom, and maintains stoutly the celebrated proposition "that if the people want him they will have him." The *Tribune* is as zealously working for Blaine, and both are exploring the country for statistics in support of the prospects of their respective candidates. If Grant should be nominated and elected the *Times* will have the organship which it held from 1868 to 1876, and the *Tribune* will be once more "independent," and thunder against "the Machine," as it did during those years. If, on the other hand, Blaine should be nominated and elected the *Tribune* would be more of an organ than ever, and the *Times* would continue to "expose" the Administration. The inconveniences of the struggle to the readers of both papers are very great, owing to the way in which it colors not only the editorial articles but the correspondence and reporting, at a time when people are more than usually

in need of real news and impartial comment. What the advantages of being "an organ" are to a well-established metropolitan newspaper it is hard to say. There is probably little or no advantage in it, as regards either advertisements or circulation. There is a decided loss of real weight and influence in the long run

The Democratic National Committee met at Washington on Monday, and selected Cincinnati as the place and June 22 as the date for the next national convention. Chicago and St. Louis were competitors, but it does not appear that the choice of Cincinnati is in any way significant. Neither did anything occur at the session to indicate the preferences of a majority of the Committee. The most unblushing moral that we have seen drawn is that of the *World*, which says "it means hard money," as a convention of sane men at Cincinnati "could no more fail to meditate the lesson taught by the defeat of Ewing in Ohio than it could fail to meditate the lesson taught by the defeat of Robinson in New York."

The Senate has done nothing during the week which would imply a greater concern for the conduct of the Government than for the coming Presidential contest. The House, on the other hand, has occupied itself still further with the rules, and Mr. Wood has reported a new bill to facilitate refunding. It has also listened with some animation to a report from the Committee on Foreign Affairs, which at the request of Mr. Acklen, of Louisiana, had been investigating the charge brought against him by a Detroit paper of having presented to the House and got printed, as if a report of that Committee, a report of his own in regard to some Nicaraguan claims he has long been pushing without success. The Committee found the charge to be true in all the essential particulars, but declined to decide upon Mr. Acklen's motives—evidently not because they were in doubt about them. The Committee on the Judiciary was instructed to renew the enquiry if necessary, and to report what action the House should take in the premises. The debate over Rule XXI. was a contention between those who wanted to remove and those who preferred to keep the power to add political legislation to appropriation bills. In the end the latter prevailed. The only speech of any length was Mr. A. H. Stephens's, deferentially allowed to pass the time-limit, and it was a manly and statesmanlike protest against the corrupt practice of attaching foreign "riders," and against that form of coercion as an attack on the veto power of the Executive.

The Refunding Bill extends the existing provisions of law to any bonds bearing more than 4½ per cent. interest which may hereafter become redeemable. But in lieu of the bonds authorized under the various refunding acts of 1870-79 the Secretary of the Treasury may issue bonds to an amount not exceeding $500,000,000, bearing 3½ per cent. interest, and redeemable after twenty and payable after forty years; besides notes to the amount of $200,000,000, bearing the same interest, and redeemable after two and payable in ten years. Of the latter, not more than $40,000,000 shall be redeemed in one fiscal year, and they shall be redeemed by lot. Provision is also made for the exchange of outstanding bonds of a higher rate than 4½ per cent. for the new bonds and notes at not less than par, with an allowance for difference of interest in the two classes up to the maturing of the former. Certificates of deposit outstanding at any one time must not exceed $50,000,000, and the interest on them is fixed at 3½ per cent. for one year only, when the certificates shall be convertible in sums of $50 and its multiples into the registered coupon bonds of the new issue, and, being so converted, shall be destroyed. Penalties are affixed for combining to procure these certificates for sale or as agents of others; which is futile.

As might have been expected, General Logan has come out in support of the third term, and seems to be in a nervous condition. He says "there is danger, and great danger, to be apprehended to our country in the near future." "The evidence of this has been accumulating for some time," he adds, "and thoughtful people must have observed it." Unfortunately, most thoughtful people, when collecting evidence of "danger" ahead for our country, find the General himself one of the most alarming bits of it. That he should have got back into public life is justly regarded by thoughtful people as a very grave symptom. The remainder of his argument is that General Grant is a safe man "who wants proper laws, and, if President, we know he will execute them." Now for General B. F. Butler. What does he say? He is a thoughtful person also. In fact, we should like to hear from all the thoughtful boomsters, or such of them as are at large, on this third-term scheme.

M. de Lesseps with his family arrived here on the steamship *Colon*, on Tuesday morning, and was met at once by an invitation to a public dinner, and another to discuss the question of intercceanic canal routes with the American Society of Civil Engineers. Some doubt, which we believe has troubled the minds of several of his proposed hosts, as to whether assisting at a dinner in his honor may not impugn the Monroe Doctrine, is scarcely to be considered well founded, we should say. Whether he is right or wrong in his choice of routes across the Isthmus of Panama, and whether his preference is for European or American capital in the execution of his enterprise, makes, of course, very little difference to the reception which should be accorded him and which he will undoubtedly meet with. M. de Lesseps is certainly one of the most eminent men of the day, and as he is to the last degree a "practical" and more or less of a self-made man, he should have a warm welcome at the hands of Americans. He entered the consular service of France in 1825, and six years later became Vice-Consul in Egypt, whence he went to Rotterdam, Barcelona, Madrid, and Rome, withdrawing from the latter post into what he supposed would be "obscurity" about thirty years ago. Having, however, during his first Egyptian consulship meditated the scheme of cutting through the Isthmus of Suez, he set about executing it as early as 1852. With his triumphant success and his subsequent career, his notion of turning the desert of Sahara into an inland sea, his ship-canal through the Isthmus of Corinth, his scheme to connect south-eastern Europe with India, and his Panama aspirations, every one is familiar. What will be the practical result of his visit upon his latest enterprise of course remains to be seen.

The speculative fires continue to burn brightly at the Stock Exchange, and the week witnessed a further advance in speculative stocks of 1 to 33 per cent. The money market has been made easy by the Treasury purchases of bonds, and the New York banks, while somewhat curtailing their accommodations, added about $2,800,000 to their surplus reserve. On account of the continued large foreign imports and the check in the export movement, foreign exchange has advanced and is getting uncomfortably near to the point at which gold can be exported. In the natural course of events, however, gold should not be exported for several months, but it might suit the purposes of some of the "bears" in stocks to force shipments for effect before the close of March. General trade continues active, and in nearly every department what is called the spring business is expected to be the largest on record. In London money has been in better demand, but the discount rate is not yet up to the posted rate of the Bank of England. Silver in London declined to 52*d.* per ounce, and closed at 52⅛*d.* Here the bullion value of the 412½-grain dollar at the close of the week was $0.8759.

Miss Scott, a student of Girton College, England, in a recent examination on the same papers used in Cambridge University by the men for the Mathematical Tripos, has obtained marks which would have given her the eighth wranglership, were she eligible. Last year three students from Newnham Hall, the other woman's college near Cambridge, reached a first-class standard also, one in the papers of the Moral Sciences Tripos and the other two in the Historical Tripos. Miss Scott's feat in mathematics is an unprecedented one for a woman, and the only allowance to be made against her is that she is somewhat older than the successful male wranglers. The main value of the incident to the world lies in the sug-

gestion it contains that by far the most effective contributions to the solution of the "woman question" are made by women who do things, and not by women who say that women could do them if they tried. A first-rate piece of work by a woman is worth five hundred lectures maintaining that women can do first-rate work. It must be observed, too, that ever since women began to demand higher education, although there has been much serious opposition to their getting it in company with young men, there has been none to their getting it alone, and there has been from men the heartiest appreciation of all their remarkable intellectual feats. The prejudices with which Mrs. Somerville had to contend, and which were then as strong among women as among men, and had their roots largely in religious feeling, now obstruct no woman's path.

In the British House of Commons the obstructive policy which the Irish members have resumed seems not unlikely to force on a dissolution very soon. The Chancellor of the Exchequer has moved the adoption of a new rule, not unlike that which the French Chamber has had to frame to keep the Right in order. Under it a member censured by the Speaker as obstructing the business of the House will be suspended for the day, and three successive censures will lead to suspension for a week. In France, however, censure carries a pecuniary penalty through the stoppage of pay. How this will work remains to be seen, but probably effectively; but it puts the Speaker in an unenviable position. The loss of the Liverpool election by the Liberals seems now to be generally ascribed to their candidate's concessions to the Home-Rulers, which was more than many good English Liberals could stomach. But an examination of the returns after all shows that the result was really encouraging to the Liberals in spite of their defeat. In 1874 Lord Sandon, the Conservative candidate, now a member of the Cabinet, who stood at the head of the poll, had 20,206 votes; Mr. Caine, his Liberal competitor, 15,807. At this last election Mr. Whitley, the Conservative, had 26,106; Lord Ramsay, the Liberal, 23,885. So the Conservative gain was 5,900; that of the Liberals, 8,078.

On the Continent there seems to be little talked of or thought of but the probability of a great war, and this causes the coming general election in England to be looked for with unusual interest, and even anxiety. If the Tories are beaten, there is clearly an end to Jingoism, and there will probably be something in the nature of an accommodation with Russia, which will leave her freer by far for the ventures of Continental politics. An article in the *Grenzboten*, a German review, whose editor is thought to be inspired by Bismarck, has attracted a great deal of attention for its supposed expression of German solicitude about the fortunes of the Beaconsfield Ministry. It urges England to contribute to preserve the peace of Europe by guaranteeing the independence and neutrality of Belgium, Switzerland, and Luxembourg. As these things, however, seem to be in no sort of danger, the only effect of such a declaration would be to offend and alarm France, and if Bismarck had anything to do with the publication of the article this is probably all he looked for from it. The crisis is bringing Italy for similar reasons somewhat more into prominence. Her army is worth something, and she has in the *Duilio* the most formidable ironclad now afloat. So people wonder whether the visit of the Crown Prince to Rome is not made for the purpose of sounding her. But another theory of it is that it means an attempt to come to terms with the Pope. There is thus far no change in the relations of the German Government with the Church, except that the Falk laws are now administered with somewhat less rigor.

The explosion under the Czar's dining-room in the Winter Palace at St. Petersburg is the strongest proof the Nihilists have yet given of their ferocious determination and of their marvellous ingenuity. The recklessness with which the soldiers in the guard-room underneath were sacrificed is nothing new, because it was shown in the throwing of the Fieschi and Orsini bombs; but the attempt to blow up the whole imperial family at their dinner-table is a declaration of war against a dynasty such as no conspirators or traitors have ever before made. That it should have come so near success, too, in a period of extraordinary vigilance, cannot but shake the nerves of the family, as well as of the Czar himself, to a degree which will deprive him of much of the moral support necessary to a policy of defiance and repression. If the story be true that the commandant of the palace has had a stroke of paralysis, it shows with what appalling force the blow struck the inmates. The unaccountable thing about it is, that after having failed once through haste, on the railroad near Moscow, the conspirators did not wait longer this time, as they were sure of having their prey within their reach for probably two hours. They apparently made some allowance for accidental delay, but not much. The difficulty of the Czar's position lies, first, in the danger of appearing to yield anything to men capable of employing such means of terrorizing; and, secondly, in the difficulty of knowing what, of all possible things, would satisfy them. In their manifestoes they ask for a complete revolution, or probably for a period of anarchy. The nearest they have come to a definite programme is in calling for a single assembly elected by universal suffrage and with complete power. But, then, in the absence of any organized expression of public opinion, or, one may say, of anything that can be called public opinion, there is no knowing whether such a programme would find favor with anybody but the few thousands, it may be, who are carrying on the operations against the life of the Czar and his chief officers.

The activity in extending the frontier on the side of Central Asia offers a curious contrast to the uneasiness and apparent feebleness of the central authority in St. Petersburg. A new expedition has been organized against the Tekke Turcomans, to be commanded by General Skobeleff, of Plevna fame, and, besides avenging the late repulse, to obtain some foothold from which they could be permanently held in check. They are the most formidable and ferocious of the Central Asiatic tribes, and are dreaded by their brethren of the desert to such a degree that it is said the horses of the other tribes become uncontrollable when they scent in the breeze the faintest odor of the Tekke watch fires. There is one delicate feature in the enterprise. The Tekkes frequent the Persian border of the great Khiva Desert, in which there is no real resting-place south of Khiva short of the oasis of Merv, which, however, only lies fifty miles, or about three marches, from the Afghan frontier, in the direct road to Herat, and under two hundred and fifty miles from Herat itself. The seizure of Merv would therefore seriously rouse English susceptibilities, if it did not precipitate hostilities, which the Russian Government has every wish to avoid, at least at present. One of Skobeleff's recommendations for the command is said to be his willingness to undertake the job without going to Merv. In 1874 Lord Granville warned Prince Gortchakoff that the occupation of Merv might lead to serious difficulties; but to this the Prince made no definite reply. The Russian diplomatists have, however, within the present year warned Lord Dufferin that they might have to go there as a necessity for the punishment of the Tekkes. That there will be trouble about it yet is one of the most likely contingencies of the Asiatic turmoil. It is an oasis once of great fertility, and was supposed to contain 1,000,000 inhabitants in the fifteenth century. At present it has a few hundreds, and only in the spring and harvest, when the wandering Turcomans come to sow and reap and fatten their horses.

There is news from Afghanistan, in the meantime, that General Roberts has made a proposal to Mohammed Jan, looking to a settlement, which is that the British will acknowledge as Amir any sirdar or chief, with three or four exceptions, that an assembly of Afghan notables will elect; but Mohammed is said to insist on setting up Mussa Khan, Yakub's son, a child of six or seven years old, which would involve a long regency and probably much confusion. There has been no more fighting of any consequence, but the money is going fast all the same. There is also no news about the cession of Herat to Persia.

MR. SHERMAN'S STATESMANSHIP.

A CORRESPONDENT, "T. B.," makes some enquiries on another page about the history of Mr. Sherman's connection with the national finances. He assumes, apparently, forgetfulness on our part of the fact that Mr. Sherman introduced in the Senate in 1868 a bill for the consolidation of the public debt, by which he offered the holders of the earlier six per cent. bonds, which did not say specifically in what kind of money they were payable, a new five per cent. bond payable in coin, without the option of being paid off in coin. In fact, he maintained in discussing the bill that they might be paid off in greenbacks, although he admitted at the same time that the greenbacks were then payable in gold. But he had previously, in 1867, joined the late Senator Morton and Mr. B. F. Butler in maintaining not only that the bonds were legally payable in greenbacks, but that the bondholders would be perfidious and unreasonable to ask for payment in coin. In a letter written in that year, and in view of the agitation which Morton was getting up, Mr. Sherman, then chairman of the Finance Committee of the Senate, said: "I think the bondholder violates his promise when he refuses to take the same kind of money he paid for his bonds. . . . If, under the law as it stands, the bondholder can demand only the kind of money he paid, then he is a repudiator and extortioner to demand money more valuable than he gave." To appreciate all this thoroughly, it must be borne in mind that at that date the paper dollar was worth about 71 cents, and that the bondholders were not asking for payment. The bonds were not due. No question of any kind about the mode of paying them had been raised in the financial world. The whole discussion was got up by Western politicians for electioneering purposes. Mr. Sherman took a prominent part in it on the greenback side, and tried to use it to frighten the holders of the six per cent bonds into accepting a lower rate of interest, without the privilege of being paid off. It is true, he said he did not mean his consolidation bill as a threat; but his construction of the law and the surrounding circumstances made it a threat, and he did say that it would be prudent for them to accept the offer.

We commented on all this in very strong terms at the time (*Nation*, March 5, 1866), and we recurred to it January 17, 1878, and again in reviewing the volume of his selected speeches May 15, 1879. We recall it here to show that in characterizing Mr. Sherman's appearance as a Visiting Statesman we had his financial career fully in our mind. We confess, however, we are disposed to judge his financial vagaries much more leniently now than when they first appeared, because we think his subsequent career has revealed clearly enough what we may call the rationale of them. He probably became convinced at a very early period of his political career that, in order to be a statesman in the existing conditions of American society and politics, a man must stay in Congress by hook or by crook, and that he cannot stay in it by mere soundness of views, breadth of knowledge, or honesty of intention. He can only stay in it by either holding the views actually entertained by his constituents, or propounding views which they are likely to embrace with eagerness. A man who means to make politics his career, unless he comes from a small State, where the competition is small and personal weight is much felt, is therefore obliged to practise from the first the art of seeming to think the thought of the majority with more than ordinary profundity and to feel its passions with more than ordinary intensity, and of finding out beforehand what it is likely to think and feel. By far the larger proportion of those who practise this art become such adepts in it that their personality is wholly sacrificed. They sink into mere advocates. They cease to have opinions of their own on any public question. They carefully discard all passions or prejudices which the people are not likely to share, and keep far from them all knowledge which the people are not likely to appreciate or admire. The result is often in a few years a kind of atrophy of the perceptive faculty, a destruction of mental or moral initiative, and of all tastes or interests which do not bear on the question how are nominations to be got. Along with this comes a faith in compromise which sometimes assumes the proportions of a mania. After long practice in arranging compromises in party platforms and in the division of offices the whole universe assumes the appearance of a field for compromise, and all things, human and divine, of materials for compromise. Your trained politician would never have accepted the Copernican astronomy in its entirety, but would have proposed a reconciliation of that and the old system, by which the sun would have been held to go round the earth in some years and the earth round the sun in other years.

Now, Mr. Sherman differs from a large number, we were going to say the larger number, of politicians who have managed to stay in public life through a long series of years, in this, that he has managed to maintain his individuality intact while steadily pleasing his constituents. He has devoted a considerable amount of attention to finance during the last twenty years, and has become a financier, if not of the highest order, in which Hamilton and Peel and Huskisson stand, of a high order, while at the same time making a very successful show of sharing in the various financial crazes which from time to time lay hold of the public mind, and keeping his seat in the Senate. In making the public professions which he has occasionally thought necessary to help him in his elections, he has never lost his hold on the sound doctrine which he studied in private. For sound doctrine, too, he has always shown a distinct preference whenever he could do so safely. He has it constantly in his mind, and always produces and commends it when he thinks the people are not looking, or are prepared to look favorably. If he thinks the people are likely to clamor for the payment of the bonds in greenbacks, he clamors for it too, but secretly intends that it shall never take place, and at a fitting moment produces the plan of paying them in gold. If there is a demand for unlimited silver coinage and he thinks it popular, he joins in it and says it will be a great help in resuming specie payments, while privately believing that it will hinder resumption, and intending, if possible, to have the coinage of silver limited, and when the proper time comes, to try to stop it altogether.

We have no doubt whatever that in playing this double rôle, and playing it successfully, Mr. Sherman feels that he has evolved the nearest approach to the ideal statesman which the conditions of American society will permit. We do not ourselves admire it, and when Mr. Sherman first became prominent as a financier fifteen years ago we confess we did not understand it. But we are forced to admit that to play it as he has done shows no inconsiderable force of character and strength of mental fibre. Most public men who try it fail miserably and become in a few years intellectual wrecks, like Mr. Blaine, without opinions on any question, without much interest in any question, and ready to take up any theme which seems likely to tickle the voters' fancy, talk on it for half an hour, and let it go for ever. Mr. Sherman has not succumbed in this way. He remains a distinct individuality with ideas of his own, and generally sound ones, and with a history, which fills a volume, of many years' labor on real, vital, and pressing questions in the public service, and of solid and acute contributions to the discussion of financial policy and the shaping of financial legislation. Such men are rare in public life just now—so rare that even if Mr. Sherman were a less considerable man than he is, we should feel reluctant to condemn too absolutely his peculiar mode of keeping himself in office.

The Louisiana episode in Mr. Sherman's career belongs to an entirely different category from his financial aberrations. He has held or preached no doctrine about public finance which has not been honestly held at various periods by undoubtedly honest men. The history of finance shows that it has been full of delusions, which at various periods the strongest understandings have not been able to resist. Moreover, in all democratic countries the tendency of public opinion to make representatives the mere mouthpieces or advocates of their constituencies has acquired sufficient force to make it almost as easy for a conscientious politician to preach unsound doctrine, as for a conscientious lawyer to argue in

defence of causes which in private he would condemn. Politics, in short, has become a professional pursuit, in which many men allow themselves to hold a professional as well as private opinion on the same point. But the Louisiana count raised questions on which there never has been any difference of opinion among civilized men, and which lie so near the very foundations of society that every man, no matter what his calling, must stand squarely upon them. Mr. Sherman knew when he went down there that the members of the Board were men of tainted reputation, who had been already convicted of fraud in the business of counting votes, and yet he professed in his reply to the Democratic Visiting Statesmen that he knew of no reason for watching the proceedings of the Board with special jealousy or suspicion, and when he came away from New Orleans wrote a report eulogizing them in the highest terms. He knew that the law of the State and the rules of fair play required them to have at least one Democrat in their Board, and yet he made no objection to their doing their counting and revising privately, and without any Democrat being present. He knew they were exercising judicial functions in a case of vast importance, in which their own friends were one of the parties, and that both he and they would probably profit by their decision, and he encouraged them by his presence and countenance to decide in their own favor and for his benefit. Moreover, as soon as he came North he took an office of great dignity and power, which this decision had given him, and proceeded to reward the judges by other places in the public service. Nothing can palliate this proceeding. There is no redeeming feature in it, and no one who has occasion to estimate public men or political events, be he preacher, editor, or orator, can pass it over as of small account, without proving false to the generations who will have to carry on the Government after the actors in these troubles arising out of the war have passed away.

ANOTHER ILLUSTRATION OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

THE recent proceedings by which Mr. McLean has suddenly disappeared from the Police Board, and Mr. Nichols, removed a short time since by the Mayor, with Governor Robinson's approval, has as suddenly reappeared in his place, have not aroused a widespread indignation among reformers. Indeed, it may be said that in New York they have not attracted much attention, except from Tammany and anti-Tammany politicians. There is a certain want of conclusiveness about all proceedings connected with Police Commissioners which deters thoughtful persons from giving way to their feelings on the subject of reform in the Police Board. Besides this, the enthusiasm displayed over "reform" when Mr. Cooper came into office has died out within the past few months, partly because the triumphs of reform under his leadership have been meagre, and partly because the reform offered to the public by him has been difficult to understand thoroughly. The public's knowledge of what it wants, and what it expects reformers to do for it, is generally definite enough. It wants to have the streets well cleaned and lighted and policed; it wants to have the money of the city well taken care of and economically spent, and it wants to have officials who do not do these things for it turned out of office, and others who will do them put in. But reform, as practised by Mr. Cooper, is a much less simple thing than this. It involves not merely the removal of "bad" commissioners and the appointment of "good" commissioners, but a series of very long and intricate lawsuits, with the usual accompaniments of mandamuses, injunctions, certioraris, and prohibitions, ending in a decision of the court of last resort which practically leaves the matter exactly as it was in the beginning.

Students of problems of municipal administration at a distance from New York will probably care very little whether "Sid." Nichols is or is not a Police Commissioner, but his case is in some respects a good illustration of the absurd state to which city government has by a variety of causes been brought in this city. The facts are briefly as follows: In 1873, after the Tweed exposures, a new charter was made for the city, one of the main objects of which was to secure an efficient and honest executive. For this purpose the mayor was given the power to remove heads of departments for "cause" and after a "hearing," subject to the approval of the Governor. When the mayor preferred charges against Mr. Nichols, the latter took the ground that this provision meant that he should have a regular trial; that there should be a complaint and answer; that the accused should have an opportunity to retain counsel and be assisted by them in his defence; that he should have the right to summon his own witnesses and to cross-examine those of the other side; in short, that the whole proceeding was a judicial one, and that judicial procedure must be followed in it. It is not necessary here to rehearse all the steps which Mr. Nichols took to enforce his claim. The mayor appointed Mr. McLean in his place, and Mr. Nichols took up his case to the Court of Appeals.

Now, the Court of Appeals had already had before it a case under a similar clause of the charter relating to the Fire Department. By this clause the Fire Commissioners were empowered to remove clerks and other subordinates, with the limitation that no regular clerk or head of a bureau could be removed until he had been "informed of the cause of the proposed removal" and had had "an opportunity of making an explanation." The question before the court was as to the meaning of this clause, and it was decided that the clause meant that the "cause" must be some dereliction or neglect of duty, or incapacity, or some delinquency affecting his general character and fitness; that an "explanation" might consist either of explaining unfavorable appearances or disproving the charges, and the removal could not be made because some other man was "a better man than the accused or more congenial to the appointing or removing power." Following this decision the Court of Appeals held in Nichols's case that the proceedings by which he had been removed were illegal. At the same time, remarkable as it may seem, the question of Mr. McLean's title to the office was not involved in the proceedings, and the decision of the court did not reinstate Mr. Nichols. His actual reinstatement was effected by his seizing his old seat in the absence of McLean and getting himself "recognized" by his Republican colleagues.

We certainly do not mean to find any fault whatever with the decision of the Court of Appeals, but, taking the law to be as they lay it down, it is obvious that the provisions of the charter with regard to the removal of heads of departments are of a most farcical character. It prevents, as the Nichols case makes perfectly plain, the removal of anybody except by means of a tedious and expensive lawsuit, which would often last longer than the mayor's term of office, and which would generally end in just the way the Nichols case has ended. Indeed, it is probably safe to say that no prudent mayor will again try to exercise it; in other words, the mayor's power of removal under the charter is for all practical purposes at an end. Considering that the efforts of municipal reformers in New York and other cities have largely been devoted of late years to enlarging the power of the executive, this result would of itself be somewhat startling. But it is by no means all. If the mayor cannot remove, the heads of departments become for all practical purposes permanent officials, irremovable except by an alteration of the charter, while the mayor cannot even appoint new officials at the expiration of the old ones' terms unless he gets the consent of the Board of Aldermen. Of this difficulty the case of Police Commissioner Wheeler is a ludicrous and sufficient illustration. Mr. Wheeler's term of office has long since expired and he is merely holding over till his successor is appointed. The mayor attempted to remove him, but Mr. Wheeler ingeniously took the ground that as he was not in office he could not be removed, and obtained a writ of prohibition from Judge Van Brunt. The Board of Aldermen will not allow the mayor to appoint a successor, so Mr. Wheeler, who neither has nor pretends to have any rights to this office, is likely to remain in the enjoyment of his salary long after Mr. Cooper's mayoralty has come to an end.

There are, it should be said, two parties who are thoroughly satisfied with this state of things—Tammany Hall and the Conkling Republicans. The alliance between these two factions—

which was during the Tweed period the actual means by which the city was governed—was broken up for a few years by the rising against Tweed; but it is now as firmly established again as ever, and, through the Board of Aldermen, renders the mayor almost powerless, unless he is in sympathy with it. As the mayor cannot remove except at the end of a lawsuit in which he is more likely to be beaten than to win, and as the Board of Aldermen will not confirm his appointees until they are satisfactory to the "boys" (we believe there is not a single instance since Mr. Cooper came into office of a confirmation of any nominee of his occupying a conspicuous position in the community to a position with a salary attached to it), and an officer who "holds over" seems to have a permanent tenure of office, it follows that all the Republican and Tammany heads of departments will continue to hold office as long as the alliance between the two factions lasts. How far this permanency of tenure extends, no one seems to know. Our readers may have observed in the *Herald*, within the past month, an advertisement calling upon "all police officers removed within six years" to send in their names and addresses, apparently on the theory that *all* removals under the charter have been invalid, and that all removed policemen can be reinstated. The humblest policeman is just as much entitled to his mandamus or his certiorari as the proudest commissioner; but the consequences to the discipline of the force and the order of the city which might be produced by a struggle in the courts, such as is suggested by the *Herald* advertisement, can better be imagined than described. The alliance between Tammany and the Conkling "machine," it should be observed, is not fictitious and accidental, but is based on the fact that these two "machines" are the great centres of power and fountains of patronage in the city. Reformers who desire to make the mayor something more than their mere puppet will sooner or later have to recognize the fact that these "machines" must be broken up or submitted to.

LESSONS FROM THE PRUSSIAN CIVIL SERVICE.

I.

THE publication of Mr. Dorman B. Eaton's elaborate work on the history and principles of the civil service in Great Britain has called renewed attention to a reform movement which, in spite of the politicians, continues to interest the better class of thinking Americans, but which still needs, unfortunately, the stimulus of frequent discussion. Mr. Eaton is a historian in the sense with which a pregnant epigram has made us familiar. He teaches by example the true philosophy of civil administration; and although the comparative method as employed by him is peculiarly obnoxious to a certain school of patriots, it cannot be too often or too warmly commended to all who are sincerely in favor of reform. We propose, therefore, to give some account of a system which differs hardly less from that of England than from our own. We refer to Germany, or, more strictly, to Prussia.

It is not so many years since that system was the fashionable horror of Liberals all over the world. The very mildest criticism pronounced it a servile instrument of despotism; an incubus on the people and their just aspirations; a caste of bureau clerks, an aristocracy of tax-collectors, whose vulgar plebeian origin made their sway only the more vexatious and hateful to freemen. It may even be said that in the pre-constitutional days this opinion was a matter of accepted faith with all but the extreme Conservatives of Prussia. And yet to-day it is viewed with pride and admiration by Liberals and Conservatives alike. How shall this change be explained? Not certainly by any great change in the organization, the discipline, the principles of action, of the institution itself, for those are substantially what they were a century ago. Not by the example and authority of Bismarck, who has no superstitious regard for the bureaucrats, and has done little to make them popular. The true reason is rather that the former hatred of those officials and their system was an inevitable incident of the struggle for a charter, to which they, having in their own hands the legislative as well as the executive power, were of course hostile; so that after they had been vanquished and the charter had been obtained, the country was only too willing to leave them that part of their duties which more properly belonged to them, and for which they had shown themselves so remarkably competent. About their competence, their practical efficiency, no dispute had, in fact, ever been possible. The earliest state to adopt rational principles of civil administration, Prussia had an educated, trained, honest, and zealous body of public officials while France was still groaning under the *fermiers-généraux*, and patronage was filling the English departments with idle and profligate barnacles. If those officials also formed, as they undoubtedly did, a species of bureaucratic despotism, it was not because they were trained, or honest, or faithful; it was chiefly because, being the authors as well as the servants of the laws, they had practically usurped powers which ought not to have belonged to them, and which elevated them above all responsibility to the authority or even the opinion of the people. But after this had been corrected by the introduction of a popular legislature, the system lost its most glaring fault, while retaining nearly all its virtues.

These virtues are not less those of organization than those of practice—not less the principles on which the system is constructed than the rules according to which it acts. But of the two classes the theoretical virtues are, of course, the more important to foreign enquirers. The practical details of an institution require in the stranger who would study them a great variety of preliminary and often special knowledge, which, owing to local differences, will fail in many cases to repay the cost of acquiring it; while the original principles of life in the same institution may deserve the most careful efforts of the enquirer, and prove to be capable of universal application. In obedience to this distinction we shall, therefore, speak not of the machinery of the Prussian system, but rather of the organic and essential conditions of its being. And these, we venture to say, are directly opposite to the notion which has been formed of them by nine-tenths of all intelligent Americans.

To make this clear let us take, by way of illustration, one or two typical branches of the public service in Prussia or Germany; for instance, the postal service. Mr. Nasby has made us familiar with the interest which the politician feels in this useful department. That gentleman, as well as many of his countrymen, will, therefore, be not a little surprised to learn that in Germany postmasters are not appointed as a reward for managing caucuses, nor on the recommendation of their townsmen, nor even by a popular vote. When we add that the postmaster is not even required to be a citizen of the town where he officiates, the credulity of many readers will be violently taxed. And yet the German postal system is the most democratic in the world, for this reason: that every youth in Germany, practically speaking, may become a postmaster by his own choice—that is to say, the service is open to all those to whom the certainty of permanent employment with promotion and, on retirement, a pension, is sufficient reward for the preliminary course of study that must be pursued, and the few years during which only an extremely low rate of pay is enjoyed. The effort of the Government is, therefore, only directed to keeping a proper balance between these two factors, so that the service may always be adequately supplied. The Postmaster-General himself is a product of this system. He entered at the very lowest rank and worked his way upward to the highest station. The accomplishments of this remarkable official are not unknown even in America. He has purged the official vocabulary of foreign words; he delivered last winter a lecture on the subject full of the most curious philological learning; and at a scientific congress in Leipzig he astonished the delegates by addressing them in fluent and correct Latin. Familiar with all the most minute details of the service, he has likewise the broad, comprehensive vision which make the administrator and reformer. Not every under-official can indeed become a Stephan, for the number who can actually reach the higher posts is necessarily limited. Neither can every youth who leaves West Point become a major-general. But the chance is open to them all, and this explains in part the fidelity with which they serve as lieutenants and captains through a long series of years.

The qualifications for entry into the postal service are determined by a general law, and are such as may ordinarily be acquired by the poorest youth if he have fair natural gifts. In the case of the lower class of employees—the carriers, postilions, messengers, porters, and so forth—this is a very simple matter. They are required to be taken as a rule from a particular class of retired soldiers—the non-commissioned officers—who, according to law, have a claim to civil employment after ten years' continuous service in the army. That they have satisfactorily filled such military offices as corporal and sergeant is held to be proof that they are adapted to service in the post; but they have nevertheless to furnish evidence of sobriety, honesty, and other civic virtues. When the supply from this source does not suffice, the deficiency may be made up in other ways, but discharged soldiers are always preferred. Among the officials

proper, original appointments are made only to the lowest grade; the higher ones are filled almost exclusively by promotion. Exception might, of course, be made in the case of the postmaster-general, who, in virtue of his responsibility to Parliament, is a semi-political officer, but, as already stated, the present incumbent is no exception. The lowest grade now is open to every youth who, besides the usual testimony as to character, has the certificate of a gymnasium that he has completed his studies as far as *prima*, or through all but the last year of the course. This gives him something more than the education of our high-schools and academies—more both in depth and in breadth. On application for admission into the postal service he is taken at first as a pupil—or *Élève*, as the Germans continue to say, in spite of Dr. Stephan's horror of the use or misuse of French words—next for a time on probation in some more responsible duties, and finally, if he prove efficient, is regularly installed. To secure the just application of tests, and to prevent a youth from being exposed to favoritism, the examinations are conducted by committees, to which in some branches of the service outsiders are also attached. With good conduct and efficiency come regular promotion, and, on retirement in old age, a pension. The very low salary which is paid in the lower grades is counterbalanced, we repeat, by security of tenure, certainty of promotion, and assurance of a pension. These conditions keep the general supply of applicants about equal to the demand When it falls short, as is the case oftener than the contrary, a deserving letter carrier may be promoted, or a clerk transferred from some other department.

Our second illustration shall be from a service which offers in many respects different conditions. The problem of municipal government is not the least of those which vex the minds of thinking and unthinking men in America; and it has not been wholly neglected in Prussia, as any one may see who chooses to look over the history of the many experiments that have been tried. We are willing to admit, too, that in Berlin, as in New York, these experiments have often been conceived in a sense favorable not to popular, but to personal or dynastic rule—in Berlin, to a personal king or the central government; in New York, to Tweed and Kelly, or an oligarchy like Tammany Hall. But, along with this, reform in Prussia, unlike that in New York, has aimed at and has obtained honesty, efficiency, and respectability in the administration of the cities.

A short time ago a new burgomaster was chosen in Berlin. If Mr. Nasby was amazed at the picture of a Prussian postmaster, Mr. John Kelly will rub his eyes in despair at the sight of a Prussian mayor. The burgomaster of Berlin is elected not by "the people," but by the Common Council. His term is not one year, but ten. He is not questioned about his politics; and it is a literal fact that when the late burgomaster retired to accept a cabinet seat, not a newspaper in the city could state to what party he belonged. He may be taken from any part of the kingdom, and while the successful candidate in the late election came from Breslau, his chief competitor was from Königsberg. But here freedom of choice ends and a despotic government begins to apply its fetters. The municipal council may disregard politics and geography, but it may not disregard fitness; for the law treats service in city administration as a profession, like any other, which a man can enter only after making the prescribed studies and passing a term of apprenticeship. He must know something of law, of history, of political economy; he is sure to know Latin, Greek, and philosophy; and he is likely to speak more or less fluently two or three modern languages. With all these accomplishments, however, he is not ready for appointment until he has qualified himself by general experience in the civil service, and by special discipline in municipal employment. A candidate does not spring at once from the school of probation to the mayorship of Cologne or Berlin. He becomes in the first place, perhaps, an unpaid member or attaché of the magistracy in some small city; then in a large city; next, assistant burgomaster in a small city again, and then assistant burgomaster in a larger one; and he completes his tour by the office of burgomaster in a lesser and then in a greater municipality. A slow career, indeed. It may take twenty or thirty years. But Prussian mayors are not "Bosses," do not steal, and are gentlemen.

In the early stages of the bureaucratic career, we repeat, the son of the duke and the son of the grocer may sit on the same bench. One law fixes for both the qualifications for entry and the conditions of promotion in the service, and they must be high up in the scale before their superiors presume to defy the traditions of equality and justice by discriminating in favor of one against the other. That so few grocers' sons undertake this career is owing to circumstances over which Government has no control. They may want the means to cover the long period of necessary study and the term of probation during which they draw no pay. They are likely, too, in this enterprising age to have a spirit of speculation, which soars above the patient labor and slow progress of the civil service. But, even if these two reasons are not present, there remains a force, which may be called hereditary inertia, inclining the son to the occupation of the father, and which keeps the administration, like other trades and professions, in a certain class of families.

This is, perhaps, an unavoidable result in practice. It is a great advantage in so far as it nourishes a feeling of professional pride and class honor, which elevate the tone and increase the efficiency of the service. It becomes an evil when it generates a depressing routine at the cost of natural impulse or elastic initiative. But it is an unavoidable result, or, at least, one which could hardly be prevented by positive legislation, and is not peculiar to Prussia among countries which have a permanent civil service. Indeed, the legislation of Prussia, which on this subject consists for the most part of royal decrees issued by a simpler process than a parliamentary act, long before there was any parliament, and which, therefore, might be expected to sanction the most arbitrary and unjust practices—this legislation is conceived in a spirit extremely and almost grotesquely democratic. If the effect of laws were not subject to the eternal conditions of human nature the Prussian system would in this respect be almost perfect. It is not willing to stop even at a competitive examination, which is the favorite method in England. It does not advertise a vacancy in some department, invite candidates to present themselves, and then take the one who most satisfactorily passes the test. This is evidently the only system which we can hope to introduce in America as an improvement on the present; and it offers, perhaps, as many elements of fairness as any other that is possible under our loose and vacillating public policy. But the Prussian plan differs from this as much as an educational qualification for the suffrage differs from a qualification based on some accidental test, like height or weight. It undertakes in theory to give employment to every youth who satisfies certain conditions. What those conditions are has just been shown in outline, though the details vary greatly, of course, in the different branches of the service. The postal clerk and the inspector of mines do not need the same sort of preliminary training. But any young man who chooses to pursue the required general and special studies for his favorite branch—be it mining or posts or customs or justice—has a right to be installed in the path of regular promotion; and no discrimination can be shown against him by social, pecuniary, religious, or political tests. In short, the civil service is a profession, which a man chooses for himself as he chooses medicine or law or the ministry. Like those professions it exacts from its members a previous course of special discipline, and when that has been completed imposes no further tests except efficiency and good conduct.

THE QUEEN AND PARLIAMENT.

LONDON, Tuesday, Feb. 10.

UP to the present time Parliament has been occupied with the prologue to the political drama. The business of the piece has not really begun. The progress of the Queen to the House of Lords, the reading of the royal speech in the Lord Chancellor's Irish and not in the Queen's pure and clear English, the moving of the address to the throne and the debate upon it, have occupied one or other of the two Houses until last evening. It is difficult to conceive any ceremony much less imposing than that which is usually presented on the first day of the session. To the modern eye and mind it has something of the incongruity of a lord mayor's show. It has a mediæval and barbarous appearance. And here, slight though the occasion may be, lies one of the chief dangers to the English monarchy. It has many political advantages which are set forth in those writers on the British Constitution whose works are by courtesy assumed to be in every gentleman's library. But there is some risk of the public opening their eyes one fine morning and finding it, in some of its ceremonial and yet indispensable accompaniments, absurd. The perception that they are or are becoming ridiculous is as fatal to institutions as the feeling that they are mischievous. The sense of the ludicrous is more of a solvent than the sense of a grievance. An institution which is tolerantly laughed at is in danger of crumbling away. The English monarchy has not reached this stage at present, and may be generations or centuries distant from it. It is impossible to see further in politics than in a London fog. We may be moving to republicanism, or to the democratic Cæsarism which Lord Beaconsfield has preached for half a century, and which the *Quarterly Review* has begun to advocate; or we

may remain much as we are. But the growth of simpler manners and the sense of equality make the Persian apparatus of monarchy increasingly ridiculous in the eyes of an increasing number of persons. One cannot see how or why it is that men should suddenly see that to be absurd to-day which they thought imposing or respectable yesterday. We can only say that so it is. The film drops from their eyes. The conversion to a sense of the ludicrous comes as quickly, as irresistibly, and as inexplicably as the conversion to a sense of religion. Woe to a good many respectable institutions which once were useful, and would be so still if men could only believe in them, when this mysterious illumination comes! In the House of Lords, where the Queen reads, or where the Lord Chancellor reads for her, the speech which she addresses to the Peers and to as many of the Commons as, led by the Speaker, can tumble and jostle their way to the bar, the scene, except for the brilliant dresses and often beautiful faces in the ladies' galleries, is rather foolish. Elderly gentlemen accustomed to lounge in shooting-coats, or to be spruce in evening dress, appear very ill at ease in the scarlet robes of peers, from which the modern boot and trouser incongruously creep out. They look at each other with a sniggering, half-ashamed expression. They require a stage manager. A well drilled Venetian senate of supers in "Othello" is certainly far more dignified in bearing than the assembled peers of England in their robes.

After the Queen's speech is read the two Houses adjourn till their usual hour of evening session, then to take the speech into consideration, and to adopt an address in reply. When it is practicable the address is moved, in both Houses, by new members, to whom it gives a safe opportunity for a maiden speech. In the House of Commons the mover is always a county member, or knight of the shire, as he is called, and the seconder a member for a borough. The habit of old times, when members appeared in full dress and decorations, when Lord North was "the noble lord in the blue ribbon," has disappeared; the only survival of the practice is in the usage which requires that the mover and seconder of the address shall appear either in court dress or in any military, naval, or civil uniform to which they may be entitled. The two figures, side by side, looking as if they were singled out for some marked fate, have a fantastic air among the careless costumes of modern life. Usually the debate on the address is a mere form. The mover and seconder echo the terms of the royal speech; the leader of the Opposition says a few complimentary or civil words to them, keeping clear of serious political controversy; the Ministerial leader makes such reply as may be convenient and necessary, and the Houses adjourn. This session matters have been taken more gravely, and there has been a reversion to the practice common a quarter of a century ago but exceptional now. Lord Hartington in the House of Commons, and Lord Granville and the Duke of Argyll in the Lords, sharply challenged the policy of the Government, and were as sharply replied to. The excited feeling which prevails out of doors made itself felt in both Houses on the first night. The main debate has, however, been, as you know, upon Irish distress and the Irish land system. Irish members clamor for an Irish Parliament; but they are making the British Parliament into an Irish one. Irish topics and Irish eloquence are certainly predominant in it. The debate on Mr Shaw's vote of censure, imputing to the Government negligence in dealing with Irish distress, has already occupied two nights, and will extend at least over a third.

The first day of the session has a certain interest as being the only occasion now on which the three branches of Parliament, the Crown, the Lords, and the Commons, actually meet in the same chamber. It may be considered, perhaps, a relic of the time when the Peers and Commons deliberated together, and when the king, if he chose, was present at their deliberations. In the Lords, when the separation between the two chambers took place, he sat as in his hereditary council, and he occasionally came down to the Commons to rate them. "Although, however," as Canon Stubbs remarks, "a good deal of the business of the Lords was no doubt transacted in the king's presence, mediæval history affords no instance of his visiting the House of Commons whilst they were debating." Queen Anne was the last sovereign who attended the debates of the Lords. So far has the jealousy of the Commons extended of anything like royal influence, that when the Prince Consort showed himself in the gallery of the House in 1846, the repeal of the Corn Laws being then under discussion, Lord George Bentinck and Mr. Disraeli protested in open debate against his presence as calculated to sway the deliberations of the House, by indicating the bias of the Crown. In a note which the Queen has appended to the passage of Mr. Theodore Martin's 'Life of the Prince Consort' which narrates this incident the following explanation is given: "The Prince merely went, as the Prince of Wales and the Queen's other sons do, for once to hear a fine debate, which is so useful to all princes. But this he naturally felt unable to do again." But though the Queen is not present at the debates of Parliament, she does not depend upon newspaper reports for her knowledge of what takes place there. It is the practice of the Prime Minister, or the leader of the House of Commons if the Prime Minister happens to be in the Lords, to write confidential letters to the sovereign, describing the course of discussion, indicating the views of the speakers, and signalizing any remarkable feature characterizing it, such as the effective speech of a new member. There is a trace of these communications in the 'Life of Lord Althorp.' A note of King William IV.'s, acknowledging from Windsor Castle one of these ministerial letters, is there printed. Its concluding sentence makes it worth citing:

"WINDSOR CASTLE, June 4, 1833.

"The King has received Viscount Althorp's letter of yesterday, from which his Majesty has learnt, with much satisfaction, that Mr. Stanley's first resolution on the West India question has been carried unanimously. He rejoices that a young member has come forward in so promising a manner as Viscount Althorp states Mr. W. E. Gladstone to have done."

The practice of the Ministerial leader of the House of Commons to write to the sovereign letters of narration and comment with respect to the evening's proceedings remained in full force until the close of Mr. Gladstone's Administration. The Minister, who was supposed by lookers-on to be taking elaborate notes of an opponent's speech, was really "presenting his humble duty to her Majesty," and engaged in descriptive reporting for her benefit. When Mr. Disraeli came into office, in 1874, this system, with the Queen's approval, was modified. Viscount Barrington, M.P. for Eye and Vice-Chamberlain in the present Government, was authorized to send to the Queen a summary of the proceedings of each evening, consisting of an analytical account of the debate and of the part borne in it by the successive speakers. There is direct telegraphic communication between the House of Commons and the Queen's residences out of London, and these summaries are sent by wire up till half-past ten every evening to Balmoral, Osborne, or Windsor, as the case may be. They are understood to be perfectly impartial and colorless; the rarer and more confidential communications necessary, being kept within the hands of the Ministerial leader, reach the Queen the same evening. The arrangement enables her when she is at a distance to anticipate the morning papers. The function is a delicate one, but there is probably no one more capable of discharging it discreetly than Lord Barrington, who might probably have earned political distinction if he had not preferred, like many able men fonder of conversation than of debate, to cultivate the inner and social side of politics rather than to seek public prominence. † † †

Correspondence.

MR. SHERMAN'S FITNESS FOR THE PRESIDENCY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Does not this remark, in your yesterday's paper, indicate a departure from your usual judicial caution?

"The worst incident in Mr. Sherman's career is his officiating as a Visiting Statesman and whitewashing the Louisiana Returning Board."

I am not disposed to excuse or palliate this offence; and if the superlative which you used did not imply a comparison with other facts in that politician's history, I should not trouble you with this criticism. But I cannot forget, and, although the rest of the world seems to have forgotten, I should have thought the memory or pigeon-holes or scrap-book of the *Nation* would have kept at hand his extraordinary performances in the Senate at the time of the first serious attack on the public credit. The precise position which he then assumed could be stated accurately only by a reference to the *Congressional Record;* but it seems to me to be due to the cause of justice, and to the wide audience which you address, that you should recall the incident to which I refer, and reconsider your assignment of pre-eminence to the Louisiana exploit. For, really, there is something to be said by way of defence of the latter affair, however thin and feeble the defence may be; but I think the keenest sophist may be defied to invent one for the conduct of Senator Sherman on the earlier occasion. It was, in brief, an eager outrunning of what that too acute politician fancied to be a rising public sentiment in favor of a partial repudiation of the national obligations, by a forced exchange for obligations at a lower rate of interest, under the threat of payment by a flood

of depreciated greenbacks. What it was in terms and in detail will you not take an early day to set forth ?

For one, I should much prefer to regard Mr. Sherman as an endurable candidate for the Presidency, for I want to vote for a Republican, and the Republicans whom I can vote for are few enough at the best. But the intelligence and capacity which Secretary Sherman has shown in dealing with financial subjects preclude any excuse for him upon the ground which has served General Grant so often—that he meant well but did not know any better ; and I do not see but he must stand as an unscrupulous and not always sagacious politician, ready to anticipate the "civium ardor prava jubentium," by sacrificing his country's honor and welfare before the sacrifice is really demanded. T. B.

February 13, 1880.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : Referring to the article in the *Nation* of February 12 in regard to Mr. Sherman's "busily working the official machine, especially at the South, to increase his strength at the Convention," I beg leave to enclose an article from the Cincinnati *Commercial* of this date. I do not know the writer, but he seems to confine himself to facts, and to know what he is writing about.

I am not an office-seeker or holder, never have been, and never want to be, and am as much opposed to the "machine" as you are ; and if I thought John Sherman was "working the machine" to secure his nomination I would oppose him as strongly as I now favor him. It seems to me if you had substituted the word "charges" for the word "evidence" you would have come nearer the truth, and it is hardly fair for you to assume, as you do in said article, that he is "active in his own behalf." Mr. Sherman has repeatedly denied, through newspaper correspondents, that he is using his official power in any way to secure his nomination, and, so far as I know, no proof and no evidence has been adduced to show that he is so using it.

Would it not be as well to assume, in this case as in others, that a man is innocent until he is proved guilty, and to require the opponents of Mr. Sherman to "prove" their charges as well as "make" them ? You are a sincere civil-service reformer. Can you name any Secretary of the Treasury whose administration has been more efficient, honest, and economical than Mr. Sherman's ; who has attended more strictly to business ; who has more completely ignored claims of party ; whose department has been so free from all scandals and frauds ; who has been more devoted to the duties of his office, and whose private and public life for twenty-five years has been so free from all scandal and taint ? And is all this to weigh for nothing against the charges of unknown correspondents of newspapers, either Republican or Democratic, which do not want to see Mr. Sherman President of the United States ? This Administration may not have done all that the friends of civil-service reform desire, but it certainly has done more in that direction than any other ; and, if we are to judge by results, it seems to me John Sherman is entitled to as much credit as any other member.—Yours,

Zeph. Brown.

Cincinnati, February 15, 1880.

METHODISM AND "THE STRONG MAN."

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : In your issue of February 12 you have an article on "The Grant Movement Thought Out," in which you do the "Strong Man idea" more exact justice than you seem to do some whom you name as supporting it. After describing the results of a seizure, more or less forcible, of the Administration by a Presidential candidate, you say :

"It would become apparent long before his term had expired that it would be madness to nominate anybody else to succeed him ; that the public peace and safety required that he should stay in power as the only defence against anarchy; and that, in fact, he should use all the means at his disposal to secure his re-election—under the forms of law if possible; if not under the forms of law, somehow. All the best people would insist on this—the ministers of the Methodist Church, the most widely-circulated newspapers, the great bankers, the railroad men, and so on."

Considering how remote such a contingency must be from a people who surrendered the administration of the Government into the hands of a minority whose claim to it was enforced not by the military, but by the decision of a political majority of one in a commission mutually appointed for that purpose, it would be difficult beforehand to tell exactly what justification for revolutionary measures the circumstances attending the contingency might supply. But your assertion that the "ministers of the Methodist Church" would favor the revolution you describe is evidently based upon the assumption that they are now, as a fact, in favor of the Strong Man idea. Nor is your suspicion wholly destitute of foundation. The "official" press of the Methodist Church is usually much more diligent in circulating "reports" of bulldozing in the South and in arraigning the "record" of the Brigadiers in Congress than in the enforcement of the duty of obedience to law or of the principles of correct morals in national finance. Occasionally a bishop or some other dignitary gives expression to his "national" patriotism. Yet such things are far from meeting the approval of the "ministers of the Methodist Church" as a whole. From personal knowledge I assure you there is a large and increasing number of young Methodist ministers who are opposed to executive disregard of Constitutional guarantees even in the case of a "reconstructed" State; who denounce larceny even where the plunder is the electoral vote of a Southern State; and who are destined to make themselves felt in the pulpits, press, and policy of the denomination of their choice. George M. Fortune.

Waverly, Ill.

MR. BLISS'S FAILING MEMORY.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : In the *Nation* of February 12 occurs the following passage referring to some proceedings at Albany: "He issued his calls in the evening for primary meetings the next day at twelve, so that none but the forewarned faithful could get there in time—an old New York trick over which that disillusioned reformer, Mr. George Bliss, lately wept in General Arthur's bosom."

This is another instance of the *Nation's* conspicuous inexactness. The trick referred to may be a New York one. If it is, it is an old one, for since 1870, when the present Republican organization was formed, it has been impossible to call a primary except after four days' public notice, and none has been so called or attempted. This being so, Mr. Bliss has not wept in General Arthur's bosom or elsewhere over that trick. He has sought to change what exists, not what don't exist.—Yours, etc.,

George Bliss.

Union League Club, February 17, 1880.

[Mr. Bliss's recent political sorrows can hardly have impaired his memory to such a degree as to make him forget the following passage in his letter to General Arthur, dated November 12, and published in the New York *Times* of November 26, 1879. It is true the trick he here describes is practised with regard to the meetings of the district associations, and not the primaries, but what difference does that make? It was still a trick, and a trick practised by the very men who manage the primaries upon the men who compose the primaries, and the very same trick that was practised in Albany by Smyth and his friends, and that Mr. Bliss wept over in General Arthur's bosom. We fear some of Mr. Bliss's enemies will chuckle over his producing this point with triumph, as being "just like him."—Ed. Nation.]

"Elections in the [district] associations are in many cases—in most cases where there is any contest—conducted with conspicuous unfairness. It was in evidence before the Central Committee and not denied, that last December in one association no one was allowed to enter the place of meeting unless he had a postal card with a certain stamp on it, or something of that nature, and that the ingenious plan was adopted of mailing these cards to obnoxious members from a distant postal station an hour or two before the time of the election, so that it was impossible for them to reach the members till the next day. Yet the Central Committee affirmed the validity of an election held in that way, but as a salve to its conscience ordered the Executive Committee to investigate and report on that association within sixty days. This order was made last January or February, on, I think, your motion, certainly on your assurance that it must be done. Yet that Executive Committee has never reported, never investigated, never taken any steps to do so, and I may add that few who remembered how convenient a body the Executive Committee has proved itself for the burial of matters obnoxious to the controlling powers ever expected it to report. This is a specimen brick at once of the management of many of the associations, and of the care which the Central Committee takes to keep up the forms of fairness, and at the same time not to interfere with the acts of those who subserviently control these associations—'henchmen' I have heard them called."

STATISTICS OF THE HARVARD DIVINITY SCHOOL.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : I send you some statistics collected from the last Harvard Triennial, which are interesting for the light they throw upon the class of

men who seek to be taught "unsectarian theology." In order to understand them we must remember that a learned ministry is better than a half-educated one, and that a college degree is the only criterion by which the education of a large class of men like the ministry can be judged.

During the first twenty-five years (1817–41) of the school's existence, when it was clearly sectarian, 189 men graduated, all of whom but six had received a college degree. These six belonged to the classes 1829, 1830, 1831, 1832, 1833, and 1839. In the second period of twenty-five years (1842–66) there were 191 graduates, of whom 147 had received a degree.

The Triennial closes with the class of 1874. During these eight years (1837–74) 59 men came out from the school, of whom 20 had received a degree.

In the first period, then, the school may be said to have consisted entirely of college men. In the second, three men out of four had received a degree. During the last eight years we find that only one in every three has been through college. And that the proportion has grown even less appears from the statement of the President in his last report, that "the faculty has carried into practice the policy of refusing pecuniary aid to unpromising students."

About 1843 a change seems to have overtaken the school. Dividing the last thirty years (1845–74) into periods of five years each, I get the following results:

Years.	Graduates	Had received a College Degree.	Percentage.
1845–49.....	48	40	four-fifths.
1850–54.....	29	20	two-thirds.
1855–59.....	39	30	three-fourths.
1860–64.....	31	25	five-sixths.
1865–69.....	32	29 (of these, 11 belonged to the two classes 65 and 66.)	five-eighths.
1870–74.....	42	14	one-third.

In order to make still more plain the meaning of these figures, suppose that in each period of five years ten men had graduated; then the number of college men for each period would have been as follows: 1845–49, 8; 1850–54, 6¾; 1855–59, 7½; 1860–64, 8½; 1870–74, 3⅓.

The Rev. F. G. Peabody, in his rather curious report on the Divinity School to the Board of Overseers, reminds us "that Harvard College was originally founded for no other purpose than the training of Christian ministers." I wished to learn what proportion of the graduates became *ministers*, and found this assistance: "Nomina Theologiæ Professorum et Ecclesiarum Pastorum literis *Italicis* imprimuntur." I did not understand for some time whether this referred to those who now are pastors of churches, or who during any period of their life had been such; but my doubts vanished when I found among the class of 1847 this name in italics, *Thomas-Wentworth Higginson*, Harv., 1841.

During the first twenty-five years, when all were college men, only 22 out of 189 did not become pastors, being ⅛.

During the second period of twenty-five years, when there were 191 graduates, 33 never became pastors, being ⅙. Of these 33, 28 had received a degree from some college; so that, out of 147, 28, or about ⅕, have not become pastors; while of 44, only 5, or ⅛, failed to become such.

During the last eight years, out of 59 graduates, 11 were never settled over a parish, being nearly ⅕. Of these, six had been through college, so that out of 20, 6, or almost ⅓, never became pastors. While from 39, 5, or ⅛, simply studied theology without becoming ministers. H.

GLOUCESTER, February 19, 1880.

Notes.

THE death last week of Mr. James Lenox, in the eightieth year of his age, removes one of the most liberal of modern benefactors. For his charities alone he would be eminent, but he followed the example of Astor in founding a great public library to perpetuate his memory. That library is still sealed to the public, and it is not generally known what will be the ultimate conditions of its use; its title to rank among the foremost libraries of the world is well understood.——In the current *Library Journal* (for January), Prof. W. G. Sumner, of Yale, gives a summary critical list of books on political economy and political science "recommended for general reading, and for an introduction to special study."——We have received a well-devised little brochure called 'Suggestions for a Course of Reading, prepared for the Denver High-School.' "The work was undertaken with the belief that high-schools are largely responsible for the character of their graduates as readers." All the books recommended are in the Public School library.——What we said the other day of the originality and intrinsic beauty of *Le Livre* will apply very well to Mr. Edward Walford's *Antiquary*, of which J. W. Bouton is the American agent. The January number is beautifully printed, and is embellished both typographically and pictorially. Amidst a variety of interesting matter we shall mention an article showing the abuses of the English franking privilege, an account of the finding of an East Indian money-cowrie in a British barrow near Land's End, a malevolent enquiry on the part of Mr. F. J. Furnivall whether any one can disprove his interpretation of *Swinburne* by *Swine's brook*, and the announcement of an Antiquary Exchange, to be conducted at the office of the journal, 62 Paternoster Row.——A kindred publication, the *Folk-Lore Journal*, edited by the Working Committee of the South African Folk-Lore Society, can now be obtained of David Nutt, 270 Strand, London, at the moderate price of six shillings for one year's subscription It is published bi-monthly at Cape Town. The first five parts, containing one hundred and twenty-three pages, are before us; they will be found valuable not only to folk-lore students but also to philologists, for the translations in all cases are accompanied by the original text. The contents are as varied as possible, embracing tales, fables, proverbs, customs, superstitions, etc. One number is devoted to some customs of the Ovahereró—a useful contribution to the history of primitive culture. We trust the society may be encouraged in the laudable effort to preserve traditions which are already rapidly fading away before European civilization——We have more than once alluded to the instructive series of papers on wood-engraving which have been appearing in the *Magazine of Art* (Cassell, Petter & Galpin). No. 7, printed in the February number, concludes them, and the writer, Mr. Henry Haliday, gives four very interesting examples of the result of a hearty co-operation between the designer (himself) and the engraver, in an attempt to realize such a unity of conception and execution as Bewick pre-eminently typifies.——The first number of a fantastically named paper, *Belatrasco*, edited by the Academic Department and School of Design of the University of Cincinnati, is noticeable for two "process" reproductions of pen-and-ink sketches by ladies, members of the sculpture class. They are very creditable productions.——The United States Coast Survey's latest publication is a fine quarto volume, the 'Pacific Coast Pilot: Coasts and Islands of Alaska,' second series. It is the laborious compilation of Mr. Wm. H. Dall, and contains a summary of all the meteorological data relative to Alaska up to the year 1877. Of this portion of the work we may speak hereafter. More striking to the literary eye is the second half of the volume—a partial list of charts and maps relating to Alaska and the adjacent regions, compiled by Mr. Dall and Mr. Marcus Baker (57 pages), and a partial list of books, pamphlets, papers in serial journals, etc., on the same territory, by the same compilers (151 pages). The references to Congressional Documents alone fill 16 pages. Only modesty could have called this admirable performance "partial." It would be singular if in so surprisingly large a catalogue, derived from works in so many languages, there should not be slips in the proof-reading, but such as we have observed are insignificant. The Russian titles are given in Russian characters.——A letter from Captain Gorringe in the first number of the *Egyptian Gazette* (Alexandria, January 26), describes in detail the masonic symbols which he is confident he has discovered in the foundation of Cleopatra's Needle, below the pedestal. They consist of a piece of syenite granite, 42 inches square, with dressed sides and all its angles right angles, found immediately below the east angle of the pedestal, and laid in a peculiar mortar; a piece of pure soft limestone beneath, in the next layer, resting on another piece of syenite granite, also carefully squared; a third piece of the same granite peculiarly cut; and a trowel, perhaps left in place by accident. Some notches also are regarded as emblematic. All these things have been carefully noted, and can be fully studied on the re-erection of the Needle in this city.——B. Westermann & Co. send us the first number of the *Revue Égyptologique*, published by E. Leroux under the editorial conduct of MM. Brugsch, Chabas, and Revillout, of whom the first and last fill all the space.——George Routledge & Sons publish immediately 'Insects Abroad,' by the Rev. J. G. Wood. Of the 860 insects described, 600 have been figured, and engraved in view of the actual specimens.——D. Appleton & Co. announce 'Rodman the Keeper,' Southern sketches, by Constance Fenimore Woolson; and 'Recollections and Opinions of an Old Pioneer,' by Peter A. Burnett——Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends us some admirable specimens of his phototype (Albert-type) process, in the portraits of Miss Emma Thursby, Bayard Taylor, Emerson, and Henry Armitt Brown.——A second edition of Von Holtzendorff's 'Wesen und

Werth der öffentlichen Meinung' has been called for and is in the press (Munich: G. Himmer).

—Neither the *Atlantic* nor *Lippincott's* for March is remarkable, and the fiction of both is, perhaps, the best part of the contents. Mr. Howells's story gets well out of comedy and plunges into melodrama with a decision which leads one to suppose him more confident of the result than at this stage the reader can be. The success of "Adam and Eve" in *Lippincott's* is by this time pretty well assured, we should say; the present instalment serves noticeably to strengthen its picturesque quality. There are various short stories in both magazines, the best of those in the *Atlantic*, perhaps, being "Accidentally Overheard," by Mr. Horace E. Scudder, and of the other collection "A Mother's Vision," in spite of its very obvious moral; "Musk and Pennyroyal," by the author of 'Signor Monaldini's Niece,' being disappointing. Mr. Charles Dudley Warner contributes to the *Atlantic* a paper on "Washington Irving," which every one will perfectly agree with, we imagine, though it is difficult to account for its exciting cause; Mr. Grant White's "English in England" and an article by Mr. F. H. Underwood on "Egypt under the Pharaohs" are interesting and something more. The number is in great part given over to brief reviews of recent books. None of the illustrated articles in *Lippincott's* are important, but we should mention "Playing a Part: A Comedy for Amateur Acting," by Mr. J. Brander Matthews, which, though it rather goes to pieces at the end, is well conceived for its purpose, and, at the outset at any rate, is a far more finished piece of literary work than is ordinarily to be looked for between magazine covers.

—The Tile Club, to begin at the beginning of *Scribner's*, is more fortunate this year in its narrative than it was last. The artistic product, too, seems to us superior, and the original idea of a twenty days' trip in a canal-boat was well justified both on the score of comfort and recreation and of professional opportunities. On the whole, we give the palm to the subject nearest home—the tow, in its various aspects, some of which are caught in a masterly manner. Mr. Burroughs's "Notes of a Walker" treat of tree-toads, spring-birds, fox and hound, weeds, and air food. He makes also a short chapter of "typical facts," of which we quote the first half: "It is a fact in the natural history of the country that, in the South, birds run more to beak and claw, and in the West to tail, than they do in the North and East." Further extracts from the Journal of the late Henry J. Raymond throw still more light on the Fredericksburg campaign and its sequel, and the editor judiciously ekes them out as well as corrects them by introducing matter new and old, including Lincoln's letter to General Hooker, a most invigorating even if, from a military point of view, a most extraordinary document. The Journal has also much to say of an apprehended intervention by France, and of Mr. Greeley's mad threats and steps to bring it about. It closes with the report of a conversation with Mr. S. L. M. Barlow which clearly foreshadowed the July riots of that year (1863). An unnamed writer, using the Rémusat and Metternich memoirs, endeavors to discredit the one by means of the other; but it seems a little unreasonable to consider the Austrian's silence about the domestic scandals of the Bonaparte family a proof that Mme. de Rémusat (who was certainly better placed to hear of them) invented them out of the whole cloth. Nor can it be said, in a conflicting sense, that these writers give us "two views of Napoleon." The caricaturist Cham is worthily commemorated and illustrated by Mr. Richard Whiteing. Mrs Helen Jackson rehearses feelingly the wrongs of the Indians in her "Wards of the United States Government." They cannot be exaggerated; but, if they had never existed, there has not been a time from the foundation of the Republic when there was not an urgent necessity for an intelligent policy looking to the abolition of the tribal system and a fusion of the Indians, under proper safeguards, with the great body of citizens, black and white. This, more than lamenting the most recent infamy, seems to be the duty of the hour. The publishers of the magazine have prepared a surprise at the close—no less than a proposition to purchase pictures to order through their art-department, at a moderate commission.

—The greatest novelty in the March *Harper's* is the publication in the table of contents of the names of the several contributors. Much might be said in favor of the previous anonymous practice, but when once the publishers yielded to the fashion of revealing the names on the editorial extract-sheets the principle was sacrificed, and there seemed no longer any good reason for not taking the reader at once into confidence. The present number has no salient article in any other sense than comparative length. Mr. W. H. Gibson's "Winter Idyl" is the longest and artistically the most elaborate; a rhapsody in prose over the New England winter of the writer's boyhood, full of observation and sympathy, and illustrated by his own graceful designs, which dispute possession of the page with the text. Half a dozen artists furnish a theme for Mr. James Jackson Jarves, in his "New School of Italian Painting and Sculpture," and he has our thanks for the admirable illustrations of which he has been the cause. They are, speaking for ourselves, vastly more instructive than the flow of sentences like this, apropos of the color of Prof. Gaetano Chierici: "Ponderously realistic, in the most matter-of-fact sense, it has no subjective, æsthetic, subduing, or subtle choice to meet the finer senses of those whose acutest enjoyment of painting lies in the suggestive mysteries and diaphanous harmonies of warm-toned colors interblending into one beautiful whole." The Far West receives the homage of three articles—Mr. Hayes's "Vacation Aspects of Colorado"; Mr. C. C. Coffin's "Wheatfields of Dakota," which offers timely confirmation of our remarks last week about the obstacles to attendance on agricultural schools; and Lieutenant Lemly's "Among the Arrapahoes," a clever character sketch, with excellent portraits after photographs. "'Pinafore's' Predecessor" is the title of a paper by Mr. J. Brander Matthews, but it really treats of two English comic operas, Gay's "Beggar's Opera" and Sheridan's "Duenna," and distinguishes them at the outset as being ballad-operas, or musical plays, in which the music was secondary to the prose dialogue. Mr. Matthews thinks their reproduction with the original music might be a good venture, and he gives a sample score from the "Duenna," as well as an outline of the plot. We may mention also as pleasant reading Miss Cloud's "Irish Wake"; and, as instructive, Mr. E H. Derby's "Transportation by Railway and Canal." Dr. Samuel Sexton describes clearly the mechanism of the ear, and tells how to preserve the hearing. The poetical feature of the number is "a folk-song," "The Sifting of Peter," by Mr. Longfellow, which may be recommended to our composers. Mr. Paul Hayne's "Snow-Messengers" contains a remarkable tribute, coming from a Southern man, to Whittier.

—Three articles, comprising one-half of the *International Review* for March, deal with political subjects of present interest to Americans. The timeliest, in the sense that a short period may change the situation, is Mr. F. W. Whitridge's "A Brake on the Machine." Mr. Whitridge is a "young Scratcher," and speaks with authority, we presume; he not only admits the necessity of political organization in itself, but seeks through this means protection for those whose rights are ignored by existing machines, or, in his own words, "the mobilization of the independent vote within the ranks of the Republican party." The argument for preserving and increasing this "undeliverable" vote and using it at the polls to defeat bad nominations and so secure better ones next time, is familiar to our readers. Mr. Whitridge, however, goes further than this, and after saying that the Scratchers expect no direct representation in Conventions, seems to advise a *nominating* conference "*prior* to the National Conventions" in order to avert bad regular nominations; which appears to abandon the "reform within the party" notion. Mr. Jay's second paper on "The Roman Catholic Question" contains an excellent comparison of the public schools with the Roman Catholic, somewhat obscured by an unsympathetic, not to say prejudiced, view of the confessional and what it involves. Mr. Wm. Henry Trescott, in discussing "The Administration of Our Foreign Affairs," suggests that Congress should make a definite appropriation for the diplomatic service, and leave the details of its application to the Secretary of State, who should be held responsible for the efficiency of the service. Dr. Wm. A. Hammond's paper "On the Treatment of the Insane" maintains that we are "behind other civilized nations" in our methods of dealing with lunatics. The literary articles are a review of Dickens's Letters by Mr. John T. Morse, jr., and the first of two or more papers on Chateaubriand by M. Auguste Laugel, partly biographical and partly critical, and thoroughly charming in both style and substance.

—Mr. Joseffy, whom a sore finger had prevented from appearing in public for more than six weeks, met with a very enthusiastic welcome at the Philharmonic concert on Saturday. He had selected Chopin's Concerto in F minor, Op. 21, which he has only played here once before, and which afforded him an opportunity of displaying his best qualities to the fullest advantage. Grandeur of conception and power of execution are not Mr. Joseffy's strongest points; he is most at home in the lyric and romantic style of the modern school, and in the Chopin concerto there is lyric and romance to overflowing. It was particularly in the second and third movement that the warm and sympathetic touch, the thoroughly artistic phrasing, the absolutely faultless technique of the Hungarian virtuoso were most strikingly displayed. The immense difficulties of the

last movement were rendered with an ease and grace, with a comfortable confidence in the performer's own powers, that were truly admirable. Mr. Joseffy was recalled five or six times, and in response to the unceasing applause he played Liszt's Hungarian Fantaisie, a composition of such length and difficulties that many an ambitious artist has set it down as the *pièce de résistance* of his repertory. Mr. Joseffy played it on Saturday, after the exhaustive Chopin concerto, as if it were some pretty drawing-room composition. Altogether he obtained the most complete success he has had since his arrival in New York. The orchestral numbers were an adagio and fugue in C minor, by Mozart, originally written for string quartet, but most effectively adapted for a string orchestra and admirably rendered by Mr. Thomas; Beethoven's Fourth Symphony, in B flat; and lastly Wagner's mighty Introduction to "Tristan und Isolde," which was of wonderful effect, with its ponderous Teutonic phrases, after the graceful melodies and harmonies of Liszt and Chopin. All these orchestral numbers have been played again and again under Mr. Thomas's direction, and it is sufficient to say that they were given on Saturday with characteristic vigor and purity of taste.

—Within the past few months the German Government has obtained possession of a treasure so great that we can only see in it, as suggested by a German writer, a free gift of the Olympian gods in return for four years of disinterested excavation at Olympia. Some time since a number of massive reliefs, partly lying under ground, partly built into a wall for the defence of the city, were discovered at Pergamus. Through Herr Humann, a German engineer established at Smyrna, several specimens were sent to the German Government; Professor Conze visited the spot, and the Pasha was induced for less than the price of one modern statue to part with the right of excavation. The pieces of sculpture are at present in the east wing of the Berlin Museum, where twice a week they are open to inspection. Some of the Pergamus reliefs are still in the boxes in which they were packed, and from which the covers alone have been removed; most, however, are lying upon the floor. All are dirty and embrowned, and look more like coarse stone than like marble, except where the workmen with brush and delicate chisel have removed the mould of ages, and the pure marble shines through like the dawn. Everywhere are gods and goddesses, giants and winged dæmons. Of these giants, some stand armed with uprooted trees, others are hurling masses of rock; an eagle and a serpent are in mortal combat; assisted by a great hound, a goddess has overthrown a dæmon; in the midst a woman of grand proportions seems rising from the earth.

—Pergamus was one of the wealthiest cities of Asia Minor. Into the hands of its royal dynasty fell the treasure amassed by Lysimachus, one of Alexander's generals. To Horace, two hundred years later, the name of Attalus, King of Pergamus, was synonymous with wealth. This Attalus turned to art for the commemoration of his victories. Pliny ('Naturalis Historia,' 34, 84) says that several sculptors, among them Isigonus, Pyromachus, Stratonicus, and Antigonus executed his and Eumenes's battles against the Gauls. Further, Pausanias (1, 25) saw on the Acropolis of Athens a memorial dedicated by this same Attalus in gratitude for this great victory. It consisted of four groups of statues—the victory of the gods over the giants, Theseus's defeat of the Amazons, the battle at Marathon, and Attalus's slaughter of the Gauls. The base, or probably a portion of the base of this memorial, fifty feet long by sixteen broad, was discovered by Böttticher on the south side of the Acropolis, and a number of the separate figures, supposed to have belonged to these groups, have been found in different collections in Europe; among them a series of prostrate or dying Gauls, remarkable for the admirable, realistic manner in which the barbarian traits and features are rendered. The "Dying Gladiator," as well as the so-called "Arria and Pætus," in the Villa Ludovici, have both been proved to be the works of Pergamene artists. Up to the date of the recent German excavations this was all that was known of the school German research has failed to discover more than one *locum classicum* bearing upon these sculptures. Ampelius, an obscure writer of the third century after Christ, in his 'Liber Memorialis,' while enumerating the wonders of the world, mentions at Pergamus a marble altar forty feet high, on which was sculptured a battle of giants. The Pergamus frieze undoubtedly answers to this description, and was probably executed in the time of Attalus, between 240 and 197 B.C. The collective sculptures represent the giants storming Olympus. Each of the groups portrays a moment in the struggle. Of one of the best preserved groups Zeus forms the centre; his mantle thrown over one shoulder leaves bare the upper part of his body, which is treated with the utmost nobleness. An eagle is bringing him a thunderbolt to replace the one with which he has just overthrown a prostrate giant, while two more are struggling forward. In his left hand he holds the ægis. Upon a second block a goddess struggles with a giant, while directly behind her, facing in the opposite direction, another goddess armed with a torch carries on a similar contest. Athena with the ægis forms the centre of a third group. She has overthrown a winged dæmon, while another, whose face greatly resembles that of the Laocoön, sinks at her feet in the coils of her serpent. A third giant is attacking her, but Nice, the goddess of victory, is already reaching her the crown. The female form rising from the ground is Ge, Earth, mourning over the destruction of the giants, her children. Many of these giants are wild men with animal heads; some, except for superhuman force, are sculptured like men armed with weapons; yet others have trees and masses of rock; and a fourth kind are portrayed as winged beings. The heads of Zeus, Apollo, Athena, and Artemis are as yet most unfortunately missing. The German Government proposes to clean and reconstruct the entire frieze, which is now lying in single disconnected blocks. The cleaning proceeds under the eyes of the visitor; the tables and floors are piled with unsorted fragments—among them a beautiful woman's head of finer marble than the rest, with an ineffable smile on the finely-chiselled lips. It is hoped that the two best preserved groups—those of Zeus and Athena—will be ready for exhibition in February.

—The year 1879 was not rich in historical literature, although it produced some works of permanent value. In ancient history we have Froude's 'Cæsar,' the fifth volume of Ihne's 'Römische Geschichte,' reaching the close of Sulla's career, and the sixth volume of Duruy's 'Histoire de Rome,' coming down to the reign of Diocletian. Busolt's 'Die Lakedaimonier und ihre Bundesgenossen,' of which the first volume extends to the establishment of the naval hegemony of Athens, is pronounced a work of substantial value. Beesly's 'Gracchi, Marius, and Sulla' deserves notice as a work of original and independent power. Mommsen has also issued a second volume of his 'Römische Forschungen.' In mediæval history there have been several valuable publications. Perrens's 'History of Florence' has a fourth volume embracing the period from 1313 to 1358. Sigmund Riezler, author of the admirable 'Literarische Widersacher der Päpste,' has published the first volume of a history of Bavaria in the Heeren, Ukert, and Giesebrecht series, coming down to the year 1180. The Danish historian, Steenstrup, whose history of the Normans attracted a good deal of attention two years ago, has issued a second volume upon the expeditions of the vikings in the ninth century. The publication of the French mediæval historians has been resumed in Paris, and M. Paulin Paris has undertaken to edit William of Tyre and his continuators. We may mention also the 'Early Chroniclers of Europe,' published by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, of which France, by Gustave Masson, and England, by James Gairdner, have already been published. Mr. Bigelow's 'Placita Anglo-Normannica,' dealing primarily with the history of law, contains much valuable material for constitutional history. The new volume of Freeman's 'Historical Essays' belongs to the early middle ages, as does 'Deutsche Urzeit,' by Arnold, the historian of the German municipal constitution.

—In modern history the veteran Ranke has published, as the forty-second volume of his collected works, 'Zur venezianischen Geschichte,' consisting largely of new matter. The third volume of Gindely's 'Geschichte des dreissigjährigen Kriegs' completes the so-called "Bohemian War"; this is a contribution of the first importance to the history of that period. Baird's 'Rise of the Huguenots' is almost the only American history of independent merit published during the year. The translation of Rambaud's 'History of Russia' is a welcome addition to our libraries; it is to be wished that a competent translator would undertake Vulliemin's 'Histoire de Suisse.' For the history of the present century Treitschke's 'Deutsche Geschichte im neunzehnten Jahrhundert' (vol. i., reaching to November, 1815), and Hillebrand's 'France' (vol. ii., covering the period of parliamentary monarchy from 1837 to 1848), both belonging to the series of 'Staatengeschichte der neuesten Zeit,' are the most important. Seeley's 'Life of Stein' also belongs here, as do the 'Memoirs of Madame de Rémusat.' In American history the translation of the second volume of Von Holst's 'Constitutional History' is perhaps the only work of high importance. Hearn's 'Aryan Family' is a significant contribution to the history of primitive institutions, and Tourmagne's 'Histoire du Servage' and Inama-Sternegg's 'Deutsche Wirthschaftsgeschichte' to industrial history.

—No one of the great modern writers is so little known personally as the author of 'The Betrothed.' This is partly due to his uneventful life

and partly to an almost morbid shrinking from publicity, which, among other things, has deprived his friends of any satisfactory portrait of him. Since Manzoni's death a host of biographies has appeared, most of them in the form of memorial addresses, and but few possessed of any lasting value. When Professor Angelo de Gubernatis was invited to deliver a course of lectures in the Taylorian Institution at Oxford, in May, 1878, in selecting as his subject Manzoni he chose a theme more novel than it seemed. These lectures have since been amplified and published under the title: 'Alessandro Manzoni: Studio biografico' (Florence. 1879). The work is a careful study of Manzoni's literary development, patiently traced through his works, edited and inedited, until his activity as an author practically ceased with the publication of the 'Promessi Sposi' in 1825. There is but little new material in the volume, and we catch only a slight glimpse of Manzoni in his social and family relations. That slight glimpse, however, is very attractive, and makes us regret the secluded life which his diffidence and the political condition of his country caused him to lead so long. It is to be hoped that Professor De Gubernatis's sketch will lead the way to a fuller biography, and revive in England and this country the interest in Manzoni, whose greatness as a poet, novelist, and man will grow the more thoroughly he is studied and known.

SEWALL'S DIARY.*

SEWALL'S 'Diary' increases in interest as it proceeds. Indeed, taking into consideration the writer's field of observation, its remoteness from the world's great theatres of action, its smallness and its intense provincialism—taking these things into consideration, if there is anything better in their peculiar line than these volumes we have yet to meet it. They do not, it is true, deal with great historical personages or events; Gov. Joseph Dudley does not fill the place of Charles II.; nor was "Boston's greatest Fire," whereby on November 27, 1676, "about fifty Landlords were despoyled of their Housing. N.B. The House of the Man of God, Mr. Mather, and Gods House were burnt with fire"—not even this conflagration was at all equal in interest to the London fire of September ten years previous; nor are the futile expeditions of Queen Anne's War like the naval engagements of Van Tromp and De Ruyter. This, however, is merely saying that Boston of 1710 was not London of 1666, and that Judge Sewall did not have the incidents to describe which fell in the way of Secretary Pepys. So far, however, as glimpses of life and manners are concerned—the revival of a buried past, with its lights and its shadows—Sewall is hardly inferior to Pepys. It is the touch of nature again; and, though the nature and social existence revealed may not be very inviting, it is none the less genuine. It is like an engraving of Hogarth or a chapter of Fielding.

The present volume covers the period from 1699 to 1714, and from the forty-seventh to the sixty second year of the diarist's life. In a public point of view it includes the whole of Queen Anne's War, marked as it was for New England by a succession of bloody Indian forays upon the unprotected settlements of the northern frontier, and the abortive retaliatory expeditions against Canada. During this time, and until his death in March, 1701, the Earl of Bellomont was governor of the province. He, in 1702, was succeeded by Sewall's connection by marriage, the able, versatile, and choleric Joseph Dudley.

Turning, however, at once from the historical to the social side of the diary, it must be conceded that the life of Puritan New England depicted in it is far from inviting. Indeed, it is not too much to say that it is repellent to the last degree. It is all shadow. Without literature, without art, without gaiety even, it seems to have been made up of toil and theology and funerals. It was the stern, hard existence of a peculiar people, intent on two things—religion and thrift. Struggling as they did unceasingly with a barren soil and a rugged climate, it was with them one long, hard fight, and it probably required exactly such a people as they were to face that fight and to achieve out of it the magnificent intellectual and material success they did. These volumes, however, open the workshop to us, and reveal the joyless existence of those days of little things. We have just said that the life seems to have been made up of toil, theology, and funerals. How shut off it was from the whole outer world may be realized from the fact that when Lord Bellomont was appointed governor he was some five months crossing the Atlantic, having ventured upon a winter passage. He died in New York on the 5th of March, 1701, and this entry of Sewall's shows how rapidly and by what means state news of the first importance passed between the two cities:

"Saturday, March 15 [170⁰⁄₁]. The town is fill'd with the News of my Ld. Bellomont's death, last Wednesday was sennight. The Thursday after, a Sloop set sail from N. York to Say-Brook; Mr. Clark, a magistrate, carries it to New-London; from thence Mr. Southmayd brought it by Land last night, Capt. Belchar acquainted Mr. Secretary with it about 9 aclock last night."

Such were the means of communication between Boston and New York. Those between Boston and the neighboring towns of Cambridge and Charlestown seem to have been hardly better, and by no means devoid of danger. The following incident, which happened to the wife and children of the vice-president of the college, should give to modern Cambridge professors a realizing sense of the combined comfort and safety of even street-railway travel:

"February 22 [170²⁄₃]. Mrs Willard and several of her children had like to have been cast away coming from Cambridge by Water, wind was so very high; put ashore at last on Muddy River Marsh: Got to the Govrs by that time twas dark."

Mrs. Willard was Governor Dudley's sister, and it was not long before his Excellency himself had an experience of the dangers of land (to offset his sister's of water) travel, between the two places:

"January 19, 170⁴⁄₅. The Govr coming to Town, the way being difficult by Banks of Snow, his Slay was turn'd upon one side against the Fence next Cambridge, and all in it thrown out, Governour's Wigg thrown off, his head had some hurt: and my Son's Elbow. The Horses went away with the foundation and left the Superstructure of the Slay and the Riders behind."

Meanwhile the following little episode of travel had, only a single week before, enlivened a trip of the Governor's from Charlestown across to Boston:

"Thorsday, Jany 11 [170⁴⁄₅]. The Govr and his Lady essaying to come from Charlestown to Boston in their Slay, 4 Horses, two Troopers riding before them, First the Troopers fell into the water, and then the Govr making a stand, his four Horses fell in, and the Two Horses behind were drown'd, the Slay pressing them down . . . Tis a wonderfull mercy that the Govr, his Lady, Driver, Postilion, Troopers escaped all safe."

Secluded from the great outer world and buried beneath the ice and snow of a New England winter, it was small wonder that a kindhearted man like Sewall hailed with delight and recorded every indication of the approach of even the bleak and fitful spring peculiar to that region. There is something quite touching in such records as these:

"March 16 170⁴⁄₅. Though all things look horribly winterly by reason of a great storm of Snow, hardly yet over, and much on the Ground: yet the Robbins cheerfully utter their Notes this morn. So should we patiently and cheerfully sing the Praises of God, and hope in his Mercys, though Storm'd by the last efforts of Antichrist."

"Feb. 24 [170⁴⁄₅]. Singing of Birds is come"

"Febr. 10 [170⁷⁄₇]. A pleasant, Serene, sun-shiny Day; sweet singing of Birds."

"Sixth-day, April 11 [1712] I saw Six Swallows together flying and chipering very rapturously."

The first of these records affords a very good illustration of those religious lessons, or morals, which the Puritan never failed to draw from every event, even the most ordinary. Everywhere and in all things he saw the immediate finger of the Lord, or a reminder of His written word. The following instance of this occurred in the first volume of the Diary, and is too delightfully characteristic not to be quoted. The child referred to in it as "seeking to shadow and hide himself" was his son Joseph, then aged four years and two months:

"Nov. 6 [1692]. Joseph threw a knop of Brass and hit his Sister Betty on the forhead so as to make it bleed and swell; upon which, and for his playing at Prayer-time, and eating when Return Thanks, I whipd him pretty smartly. When I first went in (call'd by his Grandmother) he sought to shadow and hide himself from me behind the head of the Cradle: which gave me the sorrowfull remembrance of Adam's carriage."

The most thoroughly characteristic incident of this sort, however—and, indeed, it may fairly be said the most characteristic incident of the whole publication—the editors have thought proper to omit, as being "unsuitable for publication" (p. 157). Considering what every reader meets as a matter of course not only in the sacred writings, but in the unexpurgated editions of nearly every classic writer, and Shakspere particularly, this would seem to be, in the case of a work published more especially for students of history, a somewhat unnecessary degree of delicacy.

We have remarked that the Puritan life was made up largely of theology and funerals. To the reader of the present day these volumes, as will presently appear, are made ghastly by the writer's frequent attend-

* 'Diary of Samuel Sewall. 1674–1729. Vol ii. 1699–1700–1714.' Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Vol. vi. Fifth Series. [See *Nation*, Nos. 696 and 697.]

ance at the latter, while as to theology the glimpses we get at the Judge's library are such as would make a resort to a volume of Coke or Hailes a positive relaxation. The work he mentions with most affection as one which he had "enjoy'd one and Thirty years" is Pole's 'Synopsis Criticorum.' Then we have mention of Calvin's 'Exposition,' choice excerpts from which, and from Caryl's 'Exposition of Job,' he painfully copies out and sends to sick neighbors to comfort their dying moments; while he makes a present of Dr. Mather's 'Treatise on Tithes' to a lad who comes to notify him of a funeral, bringing the usual mourning gloves. Then we have Rivet's works, and Cotton Mather's 'Theopolis Americana,' while copies of Mr. Higginson's Election Sermon and of a work called 'Greek Churches' he kept on hand and distributed as presents among his female acquaintance. Of but one familiar name among the profane writers whom posterity has seen fit to remember, while for ever forgetting Pole and Rivet and Caryl, do we get even a glimpse; but then his note bursts in upon us with all the effect of a gleam of sunshine through December's gloom. It happened thus: The Judge was on his way to Narragansett and stopped to dine at a tavern; picking up a chance volume, and being himself in Puritanic way something of a poet, what he there saw seems to have pleased him so much that he copied it in his diary:

"Sept. 16 [1706]. . . . While Diñer was getting ready I read in Ben Johnson, a Folio:

'Wake, our Mirth begins to dye:
Quicken it with Tunes and Wine.
Raise your Notes; you'r out; fie, fie,
This drowsiness is an ill sign.
We banish him the Quire of Gods
That droops agen:
Then all are men,
For here's not one but nods.'"

Naturally church going, the Sabbath-day and private meeting are prominent features in the Diary and constant matters of record. We get, also, glimpses of all the eminent New England divines of that day; as a whole a devout and conscientious race, though long-winded in discourse and prayer to a degree which the present generation would find it hard to endure silently. For instance, frequent mention is made of the venerable Samuel Torrey, of Weymouth, and Eliot is our authority for saying that this divine "had such a gift in prayer that he was always chosen, as Mr. Prince tells us, 'to bring up the rear of their religious exercises.' Upon a publick fast in the year 1696, he prayed two hours after all the other exercises were over . . ." Nor was Judge Sewall himself behindhand in respect to this gift, and he himself has recorded that once in his younger days, while his calling was yet undecided, he held forth to the Newbury congregation, and "being afraid to look on the [hour] glass: ignorantly and unwillingly I stood two hours and a half" (vol. i. p. 1). As he grew older his power in prayer, at least, would seem to have in no way diminished, if we may judge by an entry in the present volume recording one of his self-imposed, private fast-days. It is somewhat long, but it is instructive and well worth reading, as showing the real living depth and strength of that Puritan faith which has made Massachusetts what she is. A more comprehensive petition, including, as it does, "Asia, Africa, Europe, and America," could hardly be offered up:

"The Apointment of a Judge for the Super. Court being to be made upon next Fifth day, Febr. 12, I pray'd God to Accept me in keeping a privat day of Prayer with Fasting for That and other Important Matters: I kept it upon the Third day Febr. 10. 170⅞ in the uper Chamber at the North-East end of the House, fastening the Shutters next the Street.——Perfect what is lacking in my Faith, and in the faith of my dear Yokefellow. Convert my children; especially Samuel and Hañah; Provide Rest and Settlement for Hañah: Recover Mary, Save Judith, Elizabeth and Joseph: Requite the Labour of Love of my Kinswoman Jane Tappin, Give her health, find out Rest for her. Make David a man after thy own heart, Let Susan live and be baptised with the Holy Ghost, and with fire. Relations. Steer the Government in this difficult time, when the Governour and many others are at so much Variance: Direct, incline, overrule on the Council-day fifth-day, Febr. 12. as to the special Work of it in filling the Super. Court with Justices; or any other thing of like nature; as Plim° infer Court. Bless the Company for propagation of the Gospel, especiall Gov^r Ashurst &c. Revive the Business of Religion at Natick, and accept and bless John Neesnumin who went thither last week for that end. Mr. Rawson at Nantucket. Bless the South Church in preserving and spiriting our Pastor; in directing unto suitable Supply, and making the Church unanimous: Save the Town, College; Province from Invasion of Enemies, open, Secret, and from false Brethren: Defend the Purity of Worship. Save Connecticut, bless their New Governour: Save the Reformation under N. York Governmt. Reform all the European Plantations in America; Spanish, Portuguese, English, French, Dutch; Save this New World, that where Sin hath abounded, Grace may Superabound; that CHRIST who is stronger, would bind the strong man and spoil his house; and order the Word to be given, Babylon is fallen.——Save our Queen, lengthen out her Life and Reign. Save France, make the Proud helper stoop [Job. IX. 13], Save all Europe; Save Asia, Africa, Europe and America. These were gen^l heads of my Meditation and prayer; and through the bounteous Grace of GOD, I had a very Comfortable day of it. The reading of Mr. Tho Horton's Sermon upon a Monethly Fast, before the House of Lords xr. 30 1646. was a great furtherance of me, which was hapily put into my hand by Major Walley the latter end of last Moneth"

DOWDEN'S SOUTHEY*

THERE have been few English men of letters the difference between whose contemporary and posthumous fame is so great as it is in the case of Southey. He was not, indeed, idolized by his time, and his works have not, to be sure, fallen into complete oblivion, though they avoid that fate by the narrowest of margins, we suspect. Macaulay said of them that he had great doubts whether they would be read "fifty years hence," but none at all that, if read, they would be admired; but the truth is that they are not read now because it has been discovered that they are not upon the whole admirable. "In the combat between Time and Thalaba I suspect the former destroyer has conquered; Kehama's curse frightens very few readers now," said Thackeray, twenty years ago. They are in truth hard reading, as any one may prove to his thorough satisfaction by turning to them; and they are hard reading not because the present generation has its own standards, very different from those of the Georgian era, but because they are in themselves quite lifeless, and, from an intellectual point of view, absolutely artificial. But to have told any of his contemporaries that Southey would so soon cease to be a classic, or, better, that he never would become one, would have been to invite certain ridicule. Wordsworth and Coleridge and Lamb sang his praises; Pitt sat up nights to read his blank verse; Landor thought him a literary giant; the *Quarterly* was almost as much identified with him as it was with Gifford; the best men of his time thought themselves honored by his approval. Even Byron, who devoted to him some of the most remembrable of the lines in his earliest satire—

"But if, in spite of all the world can say,
Thou still wilt verseward plod thy weary way,
. . . . . .
The babe unborn thy dread intent may rue:
'God help thee,' Southey, and thy readers too"—

and who remarked, "To have that poet's head and shoulders I would almost have written his Sapphics," called him "the only existing entire man of letters," pronounced his prose "perfect" and certain passages of his poetry "equal to anything." All of which sounds curiously now, but is worth calling to mind for its illustration of the condition of literary criticism in England in the epoch immediately preceding our own. The eighteenth century had performed its work of "the formation of English prose," as a distinguished critic has pointed out; periodical literature of a high order was beginning its career; the nation had a heritage of poetry unrivalled by that of any other country; Byron, Keats, Shelley, Wordsworth, and Coleridge were writing or about to write; and yet so strongly did the spirit of what Matthew Arnold calls "our provincial and second-rate literature of the eighteenth century" pervade the great literary outpouring at the beginning of our own era, that in criticism stock notions and traditionary habits of thought went wholly unrevised by either acute analysis or a broad culture. As late as when Macaulay wrote it was the audacity of his paradoxes that surprised his readers and created his audience, whereas now we presume it would be safe to say that what offends nine people out of ten in him is the arrogant elaborateness with which he argues what is elementary. To the first readers of the essay on Milton we suspect what sound criticism it contains came like a revelation; if it sounds like platitude now it is perhaps because we are farther away from Johnson's "Surely no man could have fancied that he read 'Lycidas' with pleasure had he not known the author" than were the subscribers to the *Edinburgh Review* in 1825.

Farther back than this, criticism was proportionately more superficial. An ardent disciple of Wordsworth, to whom Wordsworth was "a great critic," notes the vital fact concerning the poetry of both Wordsworth and Byron in saying that much of it had its source "in a great movement of feeling, not in a great movement of mind." *A fortiori*, this applies to the criticism in vogue at the time when Southey succeeded to the laureateship left vacant by the lamented Pye. It does not so much matter that much of it was mere polemics, that a

* 'English Men of Letters. Edited by John Morley. Southey. By Edward Dowden.' London: Macmillan & Co.; New York: Harper & Brothers. 1880.

Whig author was certain to be damned by the *Quarterly* and lauded by the *Edinburgh*, that the century of Pope had fixed canons by which Keats was to be judged, that Jeffrey's judgment of 'The Excursion' was overruled by better judges, who ended by convincing every one that it "*would* do," as that the whole literary movement, in so far as it was national, was more or less artificial, and in so far as it was purely literary was local and, as French critics are never tired of saying, insular. It certainly did not lack erudition. Southey's learning was prodigious, not to mention Coleridge. But it felt so much more than it reflected, its natural force was so far too great for its intelligence, that, like the society that surrounded it, it lay quite outside of the current of ideas as such; it is questionable if Wordsworth would not have belittled Goethe all the same even if he had read him.

Nothing, as we have said, could better illustrate a very interesting literary problem such as the one we have barely suggested, than a study of Southey, who, in many respects, exactly typifies the time of which he was "the only existing entire man of letters." Mr. Dowden has preferred to ignore any such examination. Of 197 pages he devotes barely ten to "Southey's Work in Literature." His estimate is, in the main, just enough, it seems to us; it could hardly go wrong, since at this date the most enthusiastic of biographers must feel that Southey's work in literature was neither brilliant nor enduring upon the whole; it reverses one detail of most former judgments, by the way, and places Southey's prose above his poetry, which is certainly right, considering how much of the latter was rhymed prose, and hence naturally less satisfactory than professed prose. But it stops here and has nothing to say upon the point which alone can be interesting in a criticism of Southey, and which must occur to every one who now takes up a book about him—namely, why his vogue was once so great and why it has now disappeared. Even if it were in and for itself that his work is interesting we should have looked for a more detailed consideration than is here given it, and for a fuller exposition, since the series in which the book appears is designed "with a view both to stirring and satisfying an interest in literature and its great topics in the minds of those who have to run as they read." How many of the readers thus specified know, for example, what 'Thalaba' or 'The Curse of Kehama' is all about? All others must be content with learning from Mr. Dowden that the former is an Arabian and the other an Indian epic.

Nevertheless it is of course Southey's life rather than his works which in itself has any lesson or interest for us. "We have left his old political landmarks miles and miles behind," to quote Thackeray again; "we protest against his dogmatism; nay, we begin to forget it and his politics; but I hope his life will not be forgotten, for it is sublime in its simplicity, its energy, its honor, its affection," and so on, as was Thackeray's wont when he had a man of letters of Southey's sort with whom to contrast a prince of the stripe of George IV. This is the view Mr. Dowden has taken; he would probably agree that "Southey's private letters are worth piles of epics," and he is not only never tired of singing the praises of Southey's sterling qualities, but is so full of appreciation for them that his utterance is at times awkward and embarrassed by an apparent distrust of his power of adequate expression. The difficulty with a literary biography of such a subject is that it is apt to be monotonous and somewhat tame. Fortunately there are good men in other walks of life, but their goodness does not lead to biographies of 200 pages; and where that is a man's sole title, or, since criticism has grown so frank, we may add even his main title, to a "life," it is soon told. "Had he been a worse or a weaker man," his present biographer acknowledges, "we might look to find mysteries, picturesque vices, or engaging follies; as it is, everything is plain, straightforward, substantial." But this circumstance does not prevent Mr. Dowden from trying to clothe this "plain, straightforward, substantial" life with the charms of poetry and sentiment, which is the chief vice of his book. Southey's pillow was "wet with tears before he fell asleep" on his first night at school, which, as is justly observed, "is usually not a time of mirth"; but he went to Westminster with "an imagination stored with the marvels and the beauty of old romance," and among other things he read Gibbon, and "viewed for the first time the sweep, the splendor, the coils, the mighty movement of the stream of human affairs," and even "caught some of Voltaire's manner of poignant irony." Though he was at Oxford an enthusiastic young republican and disciple of Rousseau, it is mentioned that "never was his life emptied of truth and meaning, and made in the deepest degree phantasmal by a secret shame lurking under a fair show." He fell in with Epictetus, and "now was heard the voice of a conscience speaking to a conscience; the manner of speech was grave, unfigured, calm," etc. In June, 1794, "the shuttles of the fates now began to fly faster, and the threads to twist and twine," which means that Coleridge and Southey met. "One or two friends he chose and grappled to his heart." Then we hear plenty about Pantisocracy, which soon comes, however, to "look faint and far," and in its stead "by love and by poetry, by Edith Fricker and by Joan of Arc, Southey's life was being shaped." He "was drawing a long breath before uttering himself in some thousands of blank verses." As to Joan of Arc, "in six weeks his epic had been written; its revision occupied six months." Southey's departure for Lisbon leads to the enquiry, "Who has not experienced, when first he has touched a foreign soil, how nature purges the visual nerve with lucky euphrasy?" Mr. Dowden continues in this vein until, as "Skiddaw gloomed solemnly overhead," he lays Southey to rest in the Crosthwaite churchyard His own style, the reader will have perceived, is anything but "simple and straightforward," and in a book about Robert Southey it seems curiously out of place. Southey was certainly, intellectually speaking, as commonplace a man of letters as ever lived; though he was a thorough sentimentalist, he never went beyond the bounds of wholesomeness; though he was at one time an ardent radical, a very few years sufficed to make a Tory Churchman of him; he never had any doubt that posterity would reward him for what he thought contemporary neglect, but his self-confidence was of a placid sort and wholly different from the conceit of genius; "Mr. Southey," says Hazlitt, "missed his way in Utopia; he has found it at old Sarum." To write about such a man in a heightened and heroic style is to intensify rather than diminish the obvious slightness of material which would in a measure handicap the best biographer of Southey. Mr. Dowden has evidently had 'The Life of Sterling' in mind; but there are not two such books as that written in a generation, and he not only lacks the genius to elevate a commonplace theme but he does not here prove himself skilful in the ordinary journeyman work of biography. Either he conceived his task as far more tremendous than in truth it was, or he was not content to adjust his pace to the slow and somewhat lumbering movement of his subject.

ADAMS'S 'RAILWAY ACCIDENTS.'*

BY this very attractive little volume Mr. Adams has increased the obligations the public owes him for the many aids he has furnished to the comprehension of railway problems. The stories of railway accidents are in themselves fascinating in a terrible way, and when they are not only graphically told, but grouped with reference to the causes and the cure, the reader feels that he is assisting at a scientific consultation on a subject which affects the safety of himself and his neighbors. The thrilling interest of the strange incidents of train disasters has added to it the zest of a worthy intellectual exercise of investigation, and what might be sensational reading if the narratives stood alone is dignified by the clear purpose of humanity and progress with which the book is written, so that we have the attractiveness of a novel with the value of a work of science. It ought to be universally read, for its general reading would fix public sentiment so firmly in regard to the more necessary and feasible additions to the safety of railway travel that these would be hastened, and not have to await the lesson of human destruction which has uniformly been the inseparable antecedent of such progress hitherto. The sad moral of this group of true stories is that nothing but a terrible train-wreck, with a long list of killed and maimed, has proved enough to overcome the inertia of mechanical habits of constructing and operating trains, the "practical man's" scorn of theoretic improvements, and the penny-wise dread of expensive changes.

Mr. Adams wisely illustrates the achieved successes before demonstrating the need of others which must follow. The old horrors of "telescoping," which led to the introduction of the Miller platform and coupler; the slaughters like the terrible one at Revere, Mass., which led to the abandonment of the old habit of "running by schedule"; and the long list of accidents by reason of the inefficiency of the means of stopping trains quickly, which forced the adoption of the automatic train-brakes, on the Westinghouse and similar plans, are skilfully arrayed to show that inventive talent is equal to the demand upon it, and that the way to still greater perfection of the wonderful machine of modern travel is perfectly open, if only the will to have it is created. The "battle of the brakes" is still going on in England; but in this country it has been decided, and

* 'Notes on Railway Accidents. By Charles Francis Adams, Jr.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 12mo, pp. 271.

the victory won for the simple yet admirable system which puts the control of the brakes on every truck of the longest train completely in the hand of the engineer upon the locomotive, and we have to reflect a little to recall the time before the days of the Miller coupler, when our passenger trains were jerked by the "taking up the slack" of the old coupling-links as only freight-trains now are.

The reduction in the number of deaths and injuries to travellers by these improvements is strongly brought out in the book before us, and is made the text for unanswerable arguments in favor of the steps in progress which lie next before us. These are the interlocking and the electric-signal systems. Interlocking means the bringing together the switch-levers and signals at one point in the railway station, so that all switching may be done by one will and one intelligent direction, whilst the mechanical connection of the apparatus is such that the signals of safety or danger shall be automatically connected with the proper or improper position of the switches. Everybody knows that one of the common causes of railway accidents is the misplaced switch, but everybody has not had the opportunity to study the confusing movement of trains, especially at night, in a busy railway "yard" near a great station. The switching or shunting of freight-cars from one track to another in the "making up" of trains or the "setting out" of particular cars, the dodging about of the "pony" engines, the swinging of the colored lamps at the arms of the semaphores, the glow-worm motion of the switchmen going from point to point, the flashing in and out of passenger trains, all combine to produce a complication utterly bewildering to the inexperienced observer.

Mr. Adams makes use of the interlocking system as operated at the great Cannon Street station in London as proof of the practicability and the safety of this plan. There the business amounts to the astonishing total of over six hundred and fifty trains received and despatched in twenty-four hours, and as most of these are despatched in a few hours in the morning and evening, they often number one per minute. All these are managed from a gallery like that of the bridge on a steamship, and with a success and freedom from accident which is certainly most convincing. But it is not only at great stations that interlocking is necessary and useful. One of the most common and simple instances of a railway junction is that of two double-track roads connecting in one main line. The fact is pointed out that in this case there must be two switch-levers and four signal-levers which would admit of sixty-four possible combinations. Of these sixty-four combinations only thirteen are safe, and the rest are such as might lure an engine-driver to destruction. It needs no argument that an automatic interlocking arrangement would even in this case add greatly to the safety of the public.

The electric-signal system is intended to notify approaching trains of the condition of switches and of connections in time to avoid danger, and to notify the public, at points where common highways cross the track, of the approach of trains. In regard to both of these improvements we have the old story of the "practical man" objecting to the delicacy and complication of the apparatus, to its trustworthiness, to all automatic action, exactly as in the cases of the train-brakes and the telegraphic handling of trains. Mr. Adams sums up the arguments in a very effective way, and shows, as we think, very satisfactorily that the time has come when this new step in advance should be taken. When this shall have been done, and the block system also adopted, by which but one train is allowed upon given sections of the track at one time, the dangers from the working of the machine as a whole will perhaps be reduced to the minimum. There will still remain those dangers which grow out of lack of discipline among employees and from criminal negligence or malice, which transcend the bounds of systematic prevention. But even as the system stands, it is a cheering and reassuring thing to read the chapter on the railway death-rate, in which it is proved, from the most trustworthy of the domestic and foreign statistics, that scarce any occupation in life shows so small a percentage of hazard to the individual, from causes beyond his control, as travelling on a first-class railway train. A comparison, no less forcible for being half comical, is made between the whole number of deaths in the community from various causes. The number of human beings killed on the rail is less than those killed from falling down-stairs, from falling out of windows, from being scalded to death, from being run over by teams in the streets, from coasting on sleds, from clothing catching fire, or from playing cricket!

One of the most interesting features of the book is the comparison between accidents occurring in this country and in Europe, and the management of railways on the respective sides of the ocean. Its examples are drawn liberally from English and French experience as well as American, and are full of valuable information not easily reached by the American reader in the original sources. It does not, however, profess to be an exhaustive treatise on the prevention of railway accidents, and is limited to those things of widest influence on the safety of passengers, which may be systematized and cared for in a few definite methods. We need a similar work upon accidents to the employees of railroads, especially those to which the conductors and brakemen of freight-trains are most liable. The possible application of the train-brake to freight-trains and the adoption of a reliable self-coupler for freight-cars are among the further improvements of railway appliances to which we hope Mr. Adams may at some future time contribute as powerfully as this excellent volume has done to the spread of sound views on the topics he has so well handled in it.

Tennyson's Songs with Music. Edited by W. G. Cusins. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1880.)—The table of contents of this elegant volume offers an apparently choice collection of Tennyson's songs, and the names of composers like Hatton, Pinsuti, Macfarren, Leslie, Sir Julius Benedict, Blumenthal, Arthur Sullivan, Randegger, Cowen, Tours, and other well-known English writers, and of Raff, Liszt, Henschel, Joachim, Saint-Saëns, Gounod, Scharwenka, and Massenet justify the reader in expecting a rich treat. The book opens with "The Sea Fairies," a long two-part song by Barnett, well written and pleasing. This is followed by "Love that hath us in the net," to a rather mechanical and meaningless setting by Hatton. "The Death of the Old Year," a simple song and chorus, by Jackson, fails to hold the attention, and we pass on to an unnatural and uninspired four-part song by the editor Cusins, to the words "Of old sat Freedom" On the other hand, Pinsuti's setting of the "Miller's Daughter" is fresh and pretty, though reminding one of Schumann's "Nussbaum" and "Das Wiegenlied" of Richard Wagner. Walter Macfarren's "All along the valley" is musicianly, but somewhat mechanical and dry. Let the reader compare this song with Op. 86, No. 6 of Mendelssohn. Of "Merlin's Song," by Joachim, it is difficult to speak; there may be a few singers who could enjoy it. The four-part song, "The Golden Year," is a good and characteristic composition from the pen of Henry Leslie. The piece is well worked out and has a very effective ending. "The Sailor-Boy," which follows, is a doleful ditty by Cusins, relieved somewhat by the strange and effectively-written song by Sir Julius Benedict, entitled "A Farewell." Henschel next gives us a setting to the familiar "Break, break, break," and it is fine. One of the few good songs of the book, "The Poet's Song," by Parry, attracts by its tender sentiment and musical conception. Next comes the "Milkmaid's Song," by Stanford. This is a well-written production, which could be made effective if carefully sung, but it lacks the simplicity and naïveté which the poem bespeaks. There is something very disturbing in the second line of the first and second stanzas. The well-known poem of "The Brook," with the music by Cusins, is a disappointment. Compare this song with No. 2 of the "Schöne Müllerin" of Franz Schubert. Cusins also furnishes the music to the male part-song which follows next in order—"The Song of King Arthur's Knights." This composition has bright effects and a good ending, but is also harsh in places.

Many of the songs already noticed are either sad or suggestive of sadness, and the tendency becomes more and more prominent as we go on. In this vein is "Vivien's Song," by Emily Troup, followed by "The Lute Song" of Stanford in empty chords of D minor. The sadness grows apace. And now comes Blumenthal with every other stanza crying "Let me die, let me die!" in the characteristic and most conventional strains of this popular writer. One sighs for a bar or two of fresh melody. But no! Again the editor himself joins the dismal procession with a monotonous and doleful setting of the words "As through the land at eve we went," and a first-rate song by Barnby is well nigh robbed of its effect by its unfortunate juxtaposition. However, the "Sleep, Ellen Aubrey," which follows, is a sweet, simple song by Goldschmidt, and at the sight of the really charming rendering of "Sweet and low" by Harold Thomas the reader draws a long breath of relief. The song is natural and spontaneous, in refreshing contrast to most of the overwrought attempts thus far. After a simple, pretty, and unoriginal cradle song by Manns, we are plunged again into the waves of despair. "Tears, idle tears" has two settings from Raff. Though in their breadth of treatment often suggesting the orchestra, these two songs—especially the first—are dolorous to the last degree. We find no relief in the "Bugle Song" of Sir Herbert Oakley, because it says nothing; neither is the martial song of Berger, "Thy voice is heard through rolling drums," sufficient to rally us from the mood to which the dejected strains of "Ask me no more," by Florence Marshall, are appropriate. Cowen's

setting of "O swallow, swallow, flying south!" fortunately comes to the rescue with its bright, fresh, pretty melody and accompaniment, but why Franz Liszt should have thus treated "Go not, happy day" it is difficult to tell. And what a pity Cummings could not have hit upon some other selection than the sad "Edith's Song," and greater pity that his song should lead to such a vanishing point both of meaning and expression! Next comes John Hullah with a funereal "Come not when I am dead"; then Randegger with "Home they brought her warrior dead"—a finely-written song, which cannot, however, possibly be appreciated among so many other gloomy compositions. A bit of sunshine is let in by Gounod's characteristic "Ring out, wild bells." Then follows the "St. Agnes Eve" of Arthur Sullivan, a warm, spontaneous composition, but withal somewhat conventional in construction. It has very effective vocal points and a nice descriptive accompaniment. Such an exquisite poem as "Now sleeps the crimson petal" deserves something better than a prosy setting by Hueffner. The song by Massenet to the words "Come into the garden, Maud" is, if not the best song in the book, one of the best. The well-known ditty by Balfe should now be shelved. Massenet's setting is fresh and piquant, and there is a charming suggestiveness in his selecting the first, second, and fourth stanzas of this rather long poem. We should have been grateful to the editor if he had omitted just here his own heavy song, placed directly between Massenet and an interesting composition by Scharwenka. A capital song, indeed the best of the songs by English composers, is "O sun that wakenest!" by Fred. Corder. The manly ring and genuine sentiment of this song stand in refreshing contrast to the excessive sentimentality of the generality of English writers. The form of Corder's song, too, is excellent. Saint-Saëns contributes a most interesting song, "A Voice of the Cedar-tree," a thoroughly graceful composition with which it would have been well to end the book. At least the doleful, expressionless "Edward Gray" of Sullivan is wholly out of place. But "Enid's Song," by Silas, is bright and pretty; and the closing song of the book, "Our enemies have fallen," is ingeniously worked out by Berthold Tours, though we do not know what could induce anybody to sing it. In fact, most of the composers in this work are notably and unfortunately not at their best.

In conclusion, we cannot think the idea a happy one which suggested to Mr. Cusins a musical compilation of so many of Tennyson's poems. The poet does not gain anything, to say the least, by this grouping of them, while most of the composers seem to have written under some subtle constraint. In any event, the permanent impression left by a careful perusal of this work is the reverse of cheering—a result which seems to defeat the very object and mission of music.

Camp and Cabin: Sketches of Life and Travel in the West. By Rossiter W. Raymond. (New York: Fords, Howard & Hurlbert.)—Of these sketches all have been printed in various periodicals within the past eight or nine years; three are descriptions of the Yellowstone country and other Western "scenery," and the preface asks the reader to bear in mind the date at which they first appeared in order to allow for their "fresh enthusiasm"; and the remaining three are short stories, one being of New England and the other two of Western life. The volume altogether is a 16mo of 243 pages, of which the stories at least will be found a good deal more entertaining than most of their sort. They have the one necessary qualification of short stories, interest namely, in an eminent degree; but they are also cleverly done and are of some real value as portraiture of the types and life they attempt to depict. That entitled "Agamemnon" is very much the best, and it is admirable; the O'Ballyhan is in idea almost as good as Thackeray's Costigan, though, of course, his delineation is slight and shadowy in comparison; and the hero is charmingly unique, and not much the less real withal. "Thanksgiving Joe" is more distinctly sentimental, and "The Widow Baker" rather mechanical; so that both lose in force. The defect which the three share, and which we imagine would be inseparable from anything Mr. Raymond should write, and would thus weight any attempt of his to produce something ambitious and important, is a persistent optimism which operates fatally to verisimilitude. This is a great pity, but it is nothing new, and to blink it, as the evident merits of his work tempt one to do, is only to lose sight of the wide difference between serious fiction and agreeable romancing. Mr. Raymond is evidently one of those who believe in reforming Sunday-school literature, rendering it less "unwholesome"; substituting some fidelity of local color for its sickly imaginings, and introducing a blast of fresh air to dissipate its vapors. Nevertheless after all this tonic treatment it still remains Sunday-school literature in the hands of such writers as Mr. Raymond; it is just as false as if it had not lost its moral. Thanksgiving Joe is altogether too good to be believed in, as are most of his fellow-miners, and as are nearly all the personages of the other stories. The circumstance that the dialect is excellent and natural, the incidents probable, and the narrative simply told, is only an added aggravation to any one who believes it to be the province of fiction to deal with life as it is. Writers who so deal with it are by this time, we may hope, no longer called cynics; and writers who do not are justly suspected of a sentimentality which may be of a good or a bad sort but which is born of an *arrière-pensée* of some kind or other, or of an inability to observe deeply and clearly and free themselves of any responsibility in the matter. Bret Harte, for example, whom Mr. Raymond's stories recall, sins in this respect; his moral, that morality is independent of conventions, always lies near the surface; and we could not select a better instance to illustrate our meaning. Mr. Raymond's pictures are very agreeable, but they should not be mistaken for portraits.

History and Poetry of Finger Rings. By Chas. Edwards, Counsellor-at-Law. (New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1880. 12mo, 234 pp.)—The title of this book would seem to indicate that it was the history of ornament, but it is something more than that. It commences with the announcement that the time when a ring was first fashioned and worn cannot be ascertained, and the reader is cautioned against mistaking "rings" for "ring money," which was used by the Egyptians and ancient Britons. The mythology of the subject is first treated, and then classical illustrations are given of a most interesting kind, which prove that the man with the gold ring was not always the one, even in classical times, who occupied the enviable position. There is scarcely any substance of which rings have not been made. Some of the oldest were of iron, and at first were worn by conquerors only. Gold was, however, one of the first metals used for this purpose, and was preferred to silver. Rings made wholly of stone without any metal, such as the carnelian rings that are found among Egyptian remains, were used by the higher classes, while the common people wore rings of blue porcelain and bone. The Romans were for a very long time content with iron. At length they became so common that bushels of them were taken in the spoils of Cannæ. Their first use was as signets; such an Egyptian ring is mentioned, the value of the gold contained in which was £20 sterling. Among the Romans they were used only as signets, and were not at first adorned with stones. They were worn by them on either hand, but when stones were employed it was considered foppery to wear them on the right. The Hebrews, however, wore their rings on the right hand only. The Greeks and Romans, according to Aulus Gellius, wore them on the fourth finger of the left hand, because this finger was supposed to have a nerve leading directly to the heart, but other authors who were less romantic say that they were so worn because the left hand was less used than the right, and the stones of the ring were on this account less likely to be broken. At first the Romans wore only one ring, then one on each finger, and then several, at least one on each joint of the finger. The practice of wearing a ring on the fourth finger is supposed to have originated from the fact of this finger being called the "medicus," because the old physicians used to stir their potions with it, supposing that no venom could stick to it. They were in the habit of wearing rings on this finger containing certain essential oils as charms. The Egyptian priests, on account of the belief of its having a nerve leading directly to the heart, used to anoint this finger with precious oils before the altar.

At the present day in Persia the authenticity of documents of all kinds depends upon the signet. This makes the occupation of a seal-cutter a very responsible one. He is obliged to keep a record of every ring he makes, and the alarm of an Oriental whenever he loses his signet-ring can be imagined, since the use of it is equivalent to the use of the signature with us. The language of rings must have been a very costly luxury, but little is left of it at the present time, and this consists mostly of the use of rings on certain fingers to indicate engaged or married ladies. The ring has always been an emblem of power. Pharaoh gave his to Joseph as a sign of authority. From very ancient times rings were buried on the hands of royal personages to indicate their rank. In ancient Rome even senators were not at first allowed to wear them. They have always been used, however, among Christian nations in the consecration of bishops as a symbol of the spiritual authority conferred on them at that time. They were very early used as amulets and charms, either with engravings of cabalistic power or set with gems, to which all kinds of virtues were

attached. Such rings were frequently worn by royal persons to counteract the effects of poison which might be administered to them. They were more frequently worn as charms against disease, and this superstition is still extant.

The fourth chapter of the book is full of historical incidents. Every one knows of the ring given by Elizabeth to Essex. Few rings have such a romantic place in history, but there are many other historical narratives related here about which just as much romance could easily be woven. The author closes his dactylotheca with the rings of love, affection, and friendship. The references with which the work abounds will enable those who wish to make a more careful study of the subject to do so at their leisure. A complete index makes a reference to any part of the treatise easy. It is pleasantly written, and cannot fail both to amuse and instruct any one who will spend upon it the few hours required to read it.

Glints from over the Water. By P. B. Cogswell. (Concord, New Hampshire: Published by the Author. 1880.)—The thing which most struck this traveller wherever he cast his eyes in Great Britain, France, Germany, Greece, the East, or in Egypt was the superiority of his own country: no lake is equal to Winnipiseogee, no business thrift or ability is equal to the Yankee's, and so on; he even says boldly he did "not covet Leo XIII. his pontifical chair, and would not exchange situations with him if he would give as boot all Satan offered Christ on the mountain." But, notwithstanding this somewhat obtrusive boasting, the volume is a good gauge of the observing powers of most Americans who go abroad, and a fair indication of what knowledge and experience they bring back with them. The author went to the Paris Exposition and wrote letters from there and from the other countries he visited during his year's tour to a Concord newspaper, and it is these letters which he has revised and gathered into this large volume. The revision might have been more thorough, for there are many things worth saying in a letter to a New Hampshire newspaper which are not worth repeating in a book; indeed, the larger part of this volume might have been omitted without loss. There are some errors, too, which have escaped his notice: the statement that in France "there are no farms apparently owned by the peasantry" is surprising even in a newspaper reader, if we remember the amount of attention peasant proprietorship in France has received in this country; so, too, the laying the destruction of the Parthenon to the account of Turkish shells is wrong, and the location of the Olympian games within less than a mile of the Acropolis of Athens is novel; in general the author is unsafe on archæological ground. In artistic matters, too, he occasionally stumbles, and although he tries hard to respect the old masters it seems to go against the grain. The sight of the pictures in the Doge's Palace at Venice, for example, leads him to point out a "peculiarity about the pictures painted by many Italian artists from the fourteenth century down, and that is the similarity of subjects selected, and those confined principally to a few Scriptural subjects, the best of them counted by the ten fingers. It shows how little of original genius most of those artists possessed, except in varying details." He has the characteristic American regard for admirable things, but the conviction that he ought to worship conflicts with the knowledge that he doesn't, and the result is often a remarkable attempt at humor, especially when he is at places made memorable by literary associations. Thus, at Avignon he remembers the romance of Petrarch and Laura, but the reflection which rises to his mind is that if all attachments were so lasting there would be fewer divorce cases.

But if Mr. Cogswell occasionally leaves something to be desired in archæology, history, art, and humor, he had more success in dealing with the practical concerns of the countries he visited, and he has written a few instructive pages about them; these are the most valuable portion of the book, and, although the information in them is to be found elsewhere perhaps more easily, they will be useful to whoever has patience to hunt for them through four hundred and fifty octavo pages. The one conclusion which may be safely drawn from the book is that Americans possessing Mr. Cogswell's intellectual equipment are distinctly injured by European travel. They are far more valuable and interesting men before they start than after they get back.

The Genealogist's Guide to Printed Pedigrees: Being a general search through genealogical, topographical, and biographical works relating to the United Kingdom, together with references to family histories, peerage claims, etc. By George W. Marshall, LL.D., of the Middle Temple, barrister-at-law. (London: George Bell & Sons. 1879. 8vo, pp. 514.)—The title fully describes this very useful index to such English genealogies as are in print. Moule's 'Bibliotheca Heraldica' was perhaps the earliest descriptive list of such works; but since the date of its issue, 1822, family histories have multiplied exceedingly. Of his other predecessors, such as Bridger, Coleman, Marshall, and Sims, the author writes: "Their collective contents will be found in these pages, together with more than double the number of references they contain. The late Mr. Bridger, indeed, whose work is the largest of them all, estimated, in his preface, his references at sixteen thousand; those in this volume are estimated at nearly three times that number." It would be useless to try to give examples of the thoroughness of the work. The names are arranged alphabetically, with the references under each. These references seem to comprise all the standard county histories, Burke's 'Commoners,' and similar books, leaving out, however, peerages and baronetages. Very few American genealogies are cited, those used, indeed, being selected on some occult system which we cannot understand. Thus, the elaborate work on the Brights of Suffolk is not cited, although it is almost entirely devoted to the English family; yet on the preceding page the Briggs genealogy is quoted, which is distinctively American. Probably the author's good-nature led him to insert such titles as his own notes or library supplied. Doubtless there will be found some errors or omissions, but a book of this kind is of the greatest possible assistance to the antiquary. Every item represents so many minutes or hours of useless search saved to the investigator. Mr. Marshall is favorably known as the editor of the *Genealogist*, the only magazine devoted to the subject in England; the publication of this 'Guide' will increase his reputation at home and in this country.

Studies on Fermentation: the Diseases of Beer, their causes and the means of preventing them. By L. Pasteur. Translated by Frank Faulkner and D. Constable Robb, B.A. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.)—The original of this work ('Études sur la Bière') appeared some three years ago, containing the last results of many years of laborious research, and was at once a valuable contribution to our knowledge of fermentation and a hand-book for the intelligent brewer. For a quarter of a century this illustrious chemist has been one of the most brilliant experimenters in this department of science, and his numerous papers read before the French Academy have kept his name prominently before the scientific world, but his 'Études sur le Vin,' published in 1866, 'Études sur le Vinaigre,' a little later, his 'Études sur la Pébrine,' or silkworm disease, and other papers of immediate practical import, have given him perhaps even greater fame in the industrial world.

The causes and nature of fermentation have probably—save the dogma of evolution—been the subject of more sharp discussion and bitter controversy than any other question under modern scientific investigation. It has a biological and a chemical side, each involving a group of abstruse questions only to be solved by the most ingenious and exact experiment. Moreover, the practical and economical questions related to it are particularly numerous and varied, from the making of "our daily bread" to the foundation of great industries like brewing and the canning of foods; then, too, it has its relations to diseases, and to great chemical processes in nature, all of which give an especial importance to the study of its phenomena. The work before us is concerned primarily with a purely practical question in the arts, the solution of which involves principles of far wider application. Every one who makes bread, be it housewife or professional baker, knows that good bread is not and cannot be made at every trial, no amount of care or skill or empyrical knowledge being sufficient to secure uniformity of excellence. This is even more true of beer than of bread, and this uncertainty of result is of vastly greater pecuniary importance than is even dreamed of by any one not acquainted with the facts and figures. An English authority says: "Probably no industry—saving agriculture—employs so large an amount of capital as that of brewing and the various industries supported by it." The income of all this investment has heretofore had an element of uncertainty because of the "diseases" to which beer is subject in the brewing. In spite of the greatest care and skill, some brewings would become diseased and the quality impaired. This accident was liable to happen in the best regulated breweries, and with it came a loss, direct or indirect, to the manufacturer. No other great industry is subject to an uncertainty of this kind, and most of the changes which have lately been introduced into brewing at an expense of very many millions of dollars, and which have practically revolutionized the methods of manufacture within the last few years, have aimed at increasing the uniformity of result rather than im-

proving the quality or cheapening the production of good beer, as represented by the best brewings.

Before this special investigation there was no philosophical explanation of the causes of sick beer, and no way of entirely averting the loss to the manufacturer. The researches but prove the fact which the astute experimenter had before suspected and suggested—that the "diseases" are produced by the presence of special disease-ferments during the process of brewing. The substance of his conclusions is that "every unhealthy change in the quality of beer coincides with a development of microscopic germs which are alien to the pure ferment of beer," and the converse that "the absence of change in wort and beer coincides with the absence of foreign organisms." To the scientific man and the general reader the direct practical question, the solution of which M. Pasteur was seeking, is of far less interest than what is incidental to it in this volume—the ingenious methods by which the facts were proved, the different phases and conditions of fermentation studied, the light thrown on other related phenomena, and the suggestiveness of many of his experiments and conclusions. The question of the origin of ferment organisms is again discussed, and the hypothesis of the spontaneous generation (so called) of septic ferments again receives the hard blows of the author. He tells us in his preface that "our misfortunes inspired me with the idea of these researches," which were undertaken just after the disastrous Franco-German war of 1870, and he determined that French brewing should not only be put on an equality with that of Germany, but should surpass it in uniformity of excellence. But science is cosmopolitan, and already the microscope for the determination of disease-ferments has become as common in the German and English breweries as in those of France.

This English edition is more than a mere translation. It is revised and brought down to date, and a number of new original illustrations are added to those reproduced from the French. The publishers have left little to complain of in the matter of printing or illustrations.

The World's Paradises. Sketches of Life, Scenery, and Climate in Noted Sanitaria. By S. G. W. Benjamin. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880. 18mo, pp. 228.)—Mr. Benjamin's style is nothing if not popular, and in this little "handy volume" one may find pleasant talk about a score of places more or less well known, from Damascus to Honolulu. Most of them Mr. Benjamin has himself visited; and from several of them he has brought away anecdotes and local touches which are new. The ground of his pleasant volume upon the Atlantic Islands is touched again, but not repetitiously—touched rather than trodden upon; and there are interesting chapters upon the Bosphorus and other Eastern localities with which Mr. Benjamin is familiar by residence. For the rest, one could wish that he had given ampler space to personal reminiscences. For the fastidious reader the fault of the book is that it leads one somewhat too persistently over the well-beaten tracks of description; but it was not written for the fastidious reader.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Amos (Prof. S.), Fifty Years of the British Constitution	(Little, Brown & Co.) $3 00
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Scharf (J. T.), History of Maryland, 3 vols	(John B. Piet)
Schiern (Prof. F.), Life of James Hepburn, Earl of Bothwell	(David Douglas)
Shaw (W. J.), Solomon's Story	(Peter G. Thomson) 1 75
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The Nation.

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The Week.

THE Republican Convention was held on the 25th ult. in due course at Utica. Mr. Conkling was present and took charge of the proceedings. Mr. Chas. E. Smith, the late editor of the Albany *Evening Journal* and a leading actor in the troubles arising out of the Smyth trick about holding the primary meetings at Albany, was made both temporary and permanent chairman. A more conspicuous and effective mode both of countenancing Smyth and expressing contempt for the malcontent Albany Republicans, could hardly have been devised. The protest of the malcontents was summarily laid on the table. The delegates to the Convention were not instructed to vote for Grant as a unit, but were "called upon and instructed to use their most earnest and united efforts to secure his nomination at Chicago." The preamble of the platform gave a dismal account of the state of the country, alleging that "the safety of the nation was again imperilled by the virulent and unlawful efforts of the Democratic party to overawe and subvert State governments, . . . thereby intending to secure control of the General Government by deeds of violence and fraud." The resolutions were entirely devoted to laudation of General Grant, but the reading of them was interrupted by loud cheering for Blaine, who appears to have been the favorite of the galleries. They were passed by a vote of 217 to 180.

Mr. Conkling made a speech in which he revealed the exact nature of the danger against which General Grant is to provide. If a flaw is discovered in the returns from a single State, and the Democratic House and Senate refuse to count it, this will throw the election into the House of Representatives, which will vote by States, and by States the Republicans have a majority. This majority will, however, be got rid of by depriving Mr. Washburn, of Minnesota, and Mr. Orth, of Indiana, of their seats, because they hold the casting vote of their delegations. This done, the Democrats will have the majority by States also, and will elect their man. The way to meet this crisis is to nominate "the man who is most certain to be elected, and most certain to be lawfully and peaceably seated after he is elected"—viz., General Grant. This idea was unfortunately not worked out in detail. Mr. Washburn and Mr. Orth, if unseated, will be unseated long before the election. The Democrats will then have a majority in the House by States. Are we to understand that if Grant should seem to be elected the House and Senate will be so afraid of him that they will not venture to reject any State certificate which gives him a majority, or that if they do reject such a certificate the House will be afraid, voting by States, to elect anybody but him? If so, what will they be afraid of? What is it that is to make him more terrible to the majority in Congress than any other American citizen in a similar position? Also, suppose that they are not afraid, and do carry out the above programme, what will happen if General Grant is not satisfied? How will he "lawfully and peaceably" seat himself? It seems to us that the public is entitled to full particulars on these points. General Grant does not expect to get into the Presidency by supernatural agency. Now, if, as is always possible, the majority in Congress should, always acting under the forms of law, do what Mr. Conkling considers their worst, how will General Grant get into the Presidency?

The effort to get Smyth confirmed in the Senate at Albany was continued after the Convention with greater vigor than ever. The nomination was doubtless made as a reward for his efforts in "fixing" the primaries, and the conspicuous approval of them given at the Convention by putting Mr. Charles E. Smith, one of his confederates, in the chairmanship of course made it more incumbent than ever on the Governor to get him the place if he could. But on Tuesday success was plainly impossible, and he withdrew his name. In the meantime Mr. Charles E. Smith, who moves to Pennsylvania, it is reported, to take charge of the Philadelphia *Press*, has begun a lawsuit with the proprietors of his old organ, the Albany *Evening Journal*, who expelled him from the editorship, and asks for a receiver of the property, so that the fight waxes warmer every day. Mr. Smith is one of the happily diminishing class of amphibious editors, one-third journalist, two-thirds "worker," who consult with the Bosses in hotels all over the State about "fixing things," draw fustian platforms for State conventions, embody the Boss view of the nation and the world in "editorials," and supply the pure milk of the word to local committees and henchmen, and "make it hot" for the Democrats during the canvass.

M. de Lesseps has "done" New York pretty thoroughly during the week, and has been received with a consideration which must be gratifying to him, but which some of the papers are a little anxious that he should not misinterpret. He made very much the same speech at the American Society of Engineers' and the Geographical Society's receptions, and at the Lotos Club's and the merchants' dinners. He had come here to enlighten the American public upon the Panama canal; should in a few days see the President and attempt to interest him in the scheme; assured his hearers that it was practicable and would pay, and was the only plan that would; poohpoohed rival routes, and expressed a confident conviction that after the canal should be opened it would only be a matter of time how soon America would be the mistress of the seas. So far as we can see, he has in the course of his enlightenment of the American people, descended into none of the details which the Paris Conference left everybody of any seriousness whatever anxious for. Perhaps in the eminently appropriate interchange of so much courtesy the amenities of the several occasions have prevented M. de Lesseps from answering, and indeed his hosts from enquiring, too curiously. The editor of the *Commercial Bulletin* has, therefore, offered him the use of his columns to answer certain questions about the contemplated cost of the canal—questions which may properly take precedence of the vitality and applicability of the Monroe doctrine.

The Rives mandamus decision of the Supreme Court is important, though not unexpected. The case, it will be remembered, was that of two negroes indicted in the State of Virginia for murder. Judge Rives removed all the proceedings into the United States District Court under the section of the Revised Statutes providing for such removals in case of the denial of civil rights (R. S. U. S. §641). He based his action on the ground that the jury which convicted the prisoners was composed of whites, and that it ought to have been a mixed jury. The Supreme Court decide, *first*, that the object of the Civil Rights Act (R. S. U. S. §§ 1977 and 1978) and the Fourteenth Amendment was to place the two races on precisely the same footing; *second*, that the Fourteenth Amendment is directed against *State* action; *third*, that, as a State may act either by its legislature, its executive, or its judiciary, the prohibitions of the amendment extend to all acts of the State denying equal protection of the laws, whether it be by one of these agencies or another. *Fourth*, Congress, however, has not carried its authority in this matter as far as it is authorized to do by the Fourteenth Amendment, for the removal act referred to above only contemplates a removal *before a trial or final hearing*. It is obvious from this that Congress in passing it never intended to provide against *judicial* infractions or denials of civil rights, although it might have done so had it pleased. *Fifth*, The sort of denial which the removal act was intended to provide against, therefore, must have been legislative. But, *sixth*, the constitution and laws of Virginia do not exclude negroes from service on juries, and consequently a case

for removal was not presented by the facts. *Seventh*, the demand for a mixed jury was without foundation. A negro is not entitled to anything more than a jury from which there shall be no exclusion on account of race or color. In another case (Strauder *vs.* the State of West Virginia), in which an act of the West Virginia legislature excluded negroes from juries, the Court decided, following the same line of reasoning, that the act was unconstitutional. Judges Clifford and Field dissented.

A kindred opinion disposes of the case of Judge Coles, indicted in the United States Court for the Western District of Virginia, on the charge of excluding negroes from juries on account of their race, color, and previous condition of servitude, and in violation of the act of March 4, 1875, providing for punishment of officers guilty of this offence. The Supreme Court holds the act constitutional; that the Fourteenth Amendment means that no agent of the State, through whom its powers are exercised, shall deny the equal protection of the laws; and that the act of any agent who does so is the act of the State itself. Otherwise the constitutional prohibition has no meaning. Legislation to carry it into execution must act not upon the abstract thing known as the State, but upon *persons*, and the statute of March 4, 1875, is legislation of this kind. The act of Judge Coles in selecting a jury was a ministerial, not a judicial act, and, although he derived his authority from the State, he was bound to obey the Federal Constitution. Judges Field and Clifford again dissented in this case, mainly on the ground that the act of 1875 was unconstitutional, and that the view of its meaning taken by the majority of the Court involved a complete subversion of the admitted rights of States as a co-ordinate part of the Government.

The case of the State of Tennessee *vs.* Davis sets at rest all doubts as to the jurisdiction of the United States Courts over indictments of revenue officers for acts done in discharge of their duty. Davis was a revenue officer, and on being indicted in a Tennessee Court for the murder of Haynes, a citizen of Tennessee, filed a petition for the removal of the case from the State to the Federal court. The Supreme Court holds that the defendant had a right to this removal, on the ground that the case involved United States law. Dissenting opinions were read in this case also by Judges Clifford and Field. The gravity of the conclusions reached by the Court with regard to the scope of the Fourteenth Amendment will be seen at a glance. We may recur to this matter on a future occasion.

Mr. Edmunds has furnished during the week a salutary example of a legislator who does not leave his post to manipulate his State Convention, and who steadily applies himself to the duty of his office. He did well to oppose a special act for removing disabilities growing out of the rebellion, whether he did well or ill afterwards to oppose the general repeal of these disabilities, so far at least as they related to the admission of Confederate soldiers into the Federal army. He performed a great public service when he exposed, with equal keenness, learning, and wit, the raid upon the Treasury contemplated by the Five Per Cent. Bill (as it was called for short), which provided for paying five per cent. of the value of military bounty lands located in some eighteen of the newer States, when by statute they were entitled only to so much of the net proceeds of the public lands *sold* in their respective limit. Mr. Edmunds showed that this movement was begun by Iowa as early as 1858, and he succeeded in having the bill postponed till the next session. On Monday Senator Hoar renewed the attempt to confuse the public mind on the subject of the Geneva Award, asserting that a payment made on an understanding which expressly excluded indirect damages was general and not specific in its application, and might be pocketed as England's penalty for acts which would have justified war with her "long before the *Shenandoah* left Melbourne." Senator Randolph began the debate on the bill to reinstate Gen. Fitz-John Porter, and had an audience remarkable for the number of high Confederate and Federal officers, who were partly there as judges and partly as curious spectators. Perhaps no one had a deeper interest in the result than General Garfield, a member of the original court-martial. Gen. Logan replied on Tuesday. On the same day the House adopted its new rules.

The passage of the Riddleberger bill by the Virginia Legislature on Monday need occasion no particular alarm to the creditors of the State, we are inclined to think. It is, of course, a most inexcusable and dishonorable measure, providing as it does for the reduction of the principal of the State debt from $33,000,000 to $20,000,000 by eliminating the capitalized war and reconstruction interest; fixing the rate of interest at 3 per cent.; making the coupons non-receivable for taxes, but the bonds taxable; and instructing county treasurers not to receive coupons of the present consols and ten-forties for taxes. It is difficult to understand why any man or party of men who could bring themselves to go so far as this should go no farther. The truth is, we suspect, that the "Readjusters" bark far beyond their biting capacity, and that no one knows this better than themselves. Under the lead of a popular but unscrupulous demagogue they made a dash for the control of the State government, one of the chief railway lines of the State, and the United States Senatorship; finding "readjustment" a popular means to those ends they used it with great success. Now that they have, by breaking the power of the Conservatives, gained what they wanted, it is hardly to be supposed that a party of non-taxpayers will concern itself very earnestly about fulfilling election promises made to the negroes. The Governor is sure to veto the Riddleberger bill, and it cannot be passed over his veto. Before a new Legislature can be elected the question will probably be settled by the Court of Appeals. The fact that most of the Republicans voted with the repudiators, however, is a really discouraging thing. It contradicts the inference drawn by every one at the time of the election, that the color-line was broken: and they appear to have got nothing of any account in exchange for their adherence to what is probably as disreputable an organization as now exists in this country.

The state of things in San Francisco during the past week has been tolerably humiliating for the more respectable portion of the population. A few thousands of the "unemployed" (there is plenty of work offered them a few miles away) have taken to holding meetings in "the Sand Lots," where they are addressed by Kearney, to walking in procession through the streets, and to making calls on persons employing Chinamen, and requesting them to discharge them, and threatening them with death. What has started the agitation afresh is a resolution of the Board of Health declaring the Chinese quarter, or Chinatown, as it is called, a nuisance, which we presume it is from a sanitary point of view. The Kearneyites interpret this as a legal direction, not only to purify the Chinese dwellings, but to drive out the inhabitants, and the demonstration is intended to force the authorities into action. Subscriptions have been collected for the erection of a permanent gallows in one of the Sand Lots; and Kearney, who pretends of late to fear assassination, has announced that he will leave a list of persons to be "guillotined" after his decease as a peace-offering to his manes. The situation is complicated by the fact that Kalloch, the mayor, and the sheriff sympathize with the Kearneyites, and in a measure encourage them by their speeches. The mob is still further irritated by the refusal of the corporations to obey the law recently passed, which forbids them to employ Chinese labor. They have carried the question of its constitutionality before the United States Circuit Court, and pending its decision keep the Chinamen; but Kearney says he will not recognize any decision but that of "the people." The police and the militia appear to be ready and even anxious to try conclusions with him and his followers, and the business people seem of late to wish matters to come to a crisis, but he is either very cunning or very timid, for he seems to be the most peaceable demagogue that ever mounted a stump; and his followers, while threatening slaughter on a vast scale, both in speeches and resolutions, refrain from hurting anybody.

In the meantime there appears to be little doubt that the new constitution is working disastrously for the business of the

State. Its provisions are of course evaded in all sorts of ways, but business carried on in evasion of the law is not apt to be flourishing or enterprising. There are many signs of the withdrawal of capital from the State, such as the decline in the bank deposits, the diminished value of real estate, a migration of capitalists to this city, and the establishment of a mining bank and exchange here. San Francisco cannot but become much less attractive as a place of abode under the operations of the mob, even if they do not commit overt acts of violence. The liability to be "waited on" by Kearneyite deputations and requested to change his servants, and afterwards to hear the propriety of putting him to death discussed by a large crowd outside his own door, does not make any man cheerful in his business or in his domestic life. There is, however, something very comic in the use of the bloodthirsty talk of the French Reds by the very timid and harmless Reds of our cities. At a Communist meeting in this city the other day one of the leaders was asked what should be done to a woman (Queen Victoria) who drew £470,000 for "her household expenses," while the people were dying of hunger. The answer was prompt: She should be tried in front of her palace by a jury of Irish paupers and decapitated on the spot. The retention of the jury trial in the proceeding when conviction was already determined on is characteristic and droll. A Frenchman would have insisted on execution by simple "decree."

General Boynton's application for a court-martial to try General Sherman for libel has been very properly refused by the War Department, but not before it had been referred to General Sherman, who put on it a somewhat scurrilous endorsement, repeating his charge of professional slander against General Boynton. General Sherman also announces that he is ready to meet General Boynton in the civil courts of the District, and has retained Senator Carpenter's services for the occasion. The trial would be an interesting one, though probably enormously expensive. But we do not see how the defendant could ever prove that the plaintiff would libel his mother for the sum of one thousand dollars, and feel sure that the General of the Army engaged in such an attempt would not be a very edifying spectacle.

The rate for discounts in London advanced during the week to about 3 per cent., and it was thought that the Bank of England would put its discount rate above that figure. Accordingly the rate for short-date bills on London advanced here, but as the Bank of England rate was unchanged the market here for sterling was not so strong at the close. The New York money market was more active, and the rate for demand loans advanced to full 6 per cent. Notwithstanding the purchase of $14,600,000 U. S. bonds for the sinking fund during February, and payments of several millions for pensions, the loan market was kept no more than steady, so large were the payments into the Treasury for duties on imports and for internal taxes, and so heavy were the shipments of currency to New England and the West on account of the enlarged volume of business. The Treasury took in during February for duties on imports and internal taxes about $28,000,000, against $19,500,000 in February, 1879; the principal gain—about $6,000,000—was in the form of duties on imports, the foreign goods imported in February having been valued at $33,800,000, against $25,400,000 in the same month last year. The public-debt statement shows a decrease during February of $5,672,000, which brings the reduction for the current fiscal year up to about $32,500,000. It is notable that of the coin-balance held by the Treasury the gold is steadily falling, while the silver is increasing. The Treasury now has about $42,000,000 of silver. The Stock Exchange markets were what the brokers call "feverish" during the week, and there is considerable apprehension respecting the course of the money market during this month, as so much depends upon it, while it in turn is very much in the hands of the Secretary of the Treasury. If he buys a large amount of bonds the rate for loans may not rise above 6 per cent.; if not, then a stringent loan-market may be expected. The price of silver in London fell to 51¼*d.* per ounce; and the bullion value here of the "buzzard dollar" fell to 87 cents—$0.87001.

No new light, at least none that has been made public, has been thrown on the origin of the explosion in the Winter Palace in St. Petersburg. The extradition of a man named Hartmann, supposed to have been connected with it and now in Paris, has been asked for from the French Government, but it is so violently opposed by the Radicals—on the ground that his offence, if ever committed, was political—that it will probably not be persisted in. The revelations about the population of the Palace are, however, interesting as showing how very Oriental the habits of the Russian monarchy still continue to be. It appears that about five thousand persons live in the Winter Palace, the occupation of a very large proportion of these being unknown. In fact, owing to its exemption from police visitation or surveillance, it seems to have become, to a certain extent, a sort of asylum for persons for whom the world outside had become too hot, and who had friends in the Imperial domestic service. General Melikoff has been appointed supreme governor of St. Petersburg, with military powers over everybody, and he has thoroughly purged the palace service. There has been some expectation that the Czar would make concessions to the discontented on the twenty-fifth anniversary of his accession, in the shape of some approach to representative government, but this has not been realized.

In France the condition of the political world is unusually dull. The Jules Ferry Educational Bill is before the Senate, and the famous Seventh Section, which forbids the religious orders to keep school without certificated teachers, is under debate, but it does not seem exciting. The question of legal divorce, of which it is now proposed to give France its first experience—all divorces under the Code being simply separations—is attracting more attention than anything else. This attention is stimulated by a very long pastoral from the Pope against civil marriages and in defence of the sacramental view, and by a new play of Sardou's which attempts to show up the freethinkers and bring civil marriage into disrepute by producing it on the stage with illustrations of its evil consequences. The clergy have begun to lecture on it, too. Father Hyacinthe, who has made a sort of specialty of marriage, has been discoursing on it from the Protestant standpoint before large audiences, but his offering himself as an illustration of the possibility of prolonged chastity seems to have called forth interruptions on the part of the irreverent and profane among his audience.

In England since the Liverpool and Southwark elections there have been many signs that the Tories, ascribing these victories to the effect of supposed Liberal dalliance with the Home-Rulers, were preparing to dissolve Parliament and go to the country with the cry that their opponents were ready to join the Irish in breaking up the Empire. This plan, if ever entertained, has, however, been frustrated by the prompt support given by the Liberals in the House of Commons to the new rules for putting down obstruction, and by the very damaging revelations made by Mr. A. M. Sullivan, the Home-Rule member from Dundalk, as to Tory participation or complicity in the Home-Rule movement by prominent men before they got into office in 1874. There appears to be no doubt at all that they did go much further in the way of dalliance than the Liberals have ever done in order to get into power. In fact, the Home-Rulers appear to be playing somewhat the same part in British politics that the Greenbackers have been playing in politics here. Each party would, owing to their numbers in English boroughs, like to catch their votes if they could do so without burning their fingers. The new rules, which have been adopted by overwhelming majorities, will reduce the Home-Rule element to nothingness in the House of Commons. Mr. Parnell, in particular, will find his occupation gone when he gets home, for if the Speaker censures him he will be reduced to silence for the rest of the day, or be dragged out by the sergeant-at-arms.

MR. BAYARD'S IMPEDIMENT.

IT would be idle to pretend that the publication of Senator Bayard's so-called "secession" speech in 1861 has not considerably affected his availability as a Presidential candidate. The only argument for the nomination of Mr. Bayard which has seemed to attract any attention from Democratic politicians has been the probability that he would draw off Republican votes enough to carry one or two doubtful Northern States. All the other reasons for nominating him—that he is a man of high character and strong sense, a thorough master of current political questions, and besides all this capable of just that independence of thought and action which is the most marked want of the politicians of the day—have attracted but little attention, possibly because in "political circles" these are regarded rather as objections than as recommendations—qualities which, however valuable they may be in other departments of human activity, make a man in politics dangerous and untrustworthy. It was only when the Democratic leaders discovered that there was a large body of Republican voters who desired to have an opportunity of voting for such a candidate, that they began to consider seriously whether this unexpected kind of availability did not offset the objections to such an idealist programme as the nomination of a man of pronounced convictions from a small State like Delaware seemed to be. Probably even now few Democrats understand why the Independent Republicans want such a man, and in their secret hearts suspect that the desire of "reform" among them is mainly the result of that hypocritical affectation of virtue which every true Democrat believes to be at the bottom of Republican reform movements. Of the fact, however, that large numbers of Republicans demand such qualities as Mr. Bayard possesses there is no room for doubt, and in the eyes of Democratic politicians this consequently constitutes pretty much his entire availability. But if he has a bad "war record" of course this availability is much weakened, and as an "opening gun" in his campaign his Dover speech is not the sort of oration that is likely to get him Republican votes. If it had been made before the outbreak of the war it would have been of less consequence. But it was actually made in June, 1861, and it is clear to the most careless reader of it that at that time Mr. Bayard's sympathies were enlisted on the side of the South, that he regarded the war as brought on by Lincoln and his Cabinet, and the Union forces as an invading army, and that, while disapproving of secession, he thought a peaceable separation preferable to all the evils which he clearly foresaw a war would entail. Now, although it would be extremely irrational to argue that these opinions held by a young Southerner nineteen years ago showed any moral obliquity, there is no denying that his words have a tendency to recall memories of the past which are very bitter, and to breed a feeling of distrust in the minds of people who on every other topic are perfectly in sympathy with him. It is quite true that in the next four years there is not the remotest possibility that any of the questions touched upon in Mr. Bayard's speech will come up in such a way as to require even an expression of opinion from a President; but votes are determined to a very large extent by sentimental considerations, and no doubt if the question were put to the average Republican voter—as it would be put during a campaign between say Grant and Bayard—"Will you vote for the hero of Appomattox or for a Southern sympathizer?" large numbers even of those who did not like him would find little difficulty in voting for Grant.

That the removal of Mr. Bayard from the list of candidates to whom Independents could turn as a refuge from Grantism would be a great misfortune we freely admit; but, on the other hand, the danger of it is perhaps more than counterbalanced by the rapid decline of the Grant movement. The means by which his friends have sought to push his nomination in Pennsylvania and New York have proved a distinct failure. In fact, the kind of candidate he was represented to be at the outset could not but be damaged by such operations as those at Harrisburg and Utica. The spontaneity of the movement and its thoroughly popular character were its earliest and best recommendation, but this has been ruined by the pains taken to pack the two State Conventions which were first to put him formally in the field. The refusal of the Illinois Republicans to play their part in the programme by calling their Convention now, and their postponement of it until May, have, in fact, disarranged the whole scheme, and it is not oversanguine to look for its abandonment before June.

In addition to this, the arguments of its promoters would ruin any scheme. In the first place, there was always an absurdity in proposing the re-election of General Grant as a remedy for the presence of a Democratic majority in Congress, that majority having been created during his Administration and as a consequence of his Administration. This has always made his candidacy, in the character of "a Strong Man" of whom the Democrats were afraid, something which could not be discussed in private conversation, or discussed in any place in which its advocates could be replied to on the spot. It was a good theme for set speeches and newspaper and review articles, but not for actual debate. No one has the face as yet to maintain in oral discussion that the homœopathic rule, *similia similibus*, applies to political problems, and that the man who has worked a given piece of mischief is just the man to remedy it and prevent its recurrence. Nonsense of this sort can only be produced by a speaker or writer who is secured against interruption and has unlimited command of rhetoric, and it may be affirmed safely that a candidate who cannot be readily turned over in private talk is a weak candidate, and is likely to grow weaker every day he remains in the field. Having begun with this absurdity, it was quite natural that his supporters should venture on others—such as the assertion that General Grant's two years' pleasure trip in Europe had been a means of valuable political education, and would enable him to avoid the errors of his past administration. He has himself disposed of this very effectually in the authorized report of his conversations which we noticed two weeks ago. Nevertheless, this did not prevent the New York *Times*, which has made the great mistake of taking him up at the eleventh hour, from declaring on Sunday last that "the fears entertained by some Republicans about the probable character of General Grant's administration were entirely misplaced." The reason, however, why some people fear that General Grant would not administer well is that they have seen him administer badly. The materials for inferring the kind of President he would be are, in fact, more abundant in his case than in the case of any previous candidate for the Presidency, and telling people that they must not mind them sounds like a quotation from the "Grande Duchesse."

A similar air of simplicity surrounds the argument that there is no use in opposing his nomination, because "if the people want him they will have him." It cannot be ascertained until the election whether the people want him or not. In fact, the election will be held to get an answer to this question. In the meantime the articles and speeches of the supporters of "the boom" have the weight due to the opinions of individual men of various degrees of honesty and perspicacity—no more and no less. They are at present trying to get the people to "want him," which is a perfectly legitimate enterprise; but the labors of those who are trying to persuade the people *not* to want him are also legitimate, and thus far seem much more fruitful than those of their opponents. Any one who recommends a democracy to choose a particular man for its chief officer in time of profound peace as a measure of safety, and because the machinery of the government will not work well without him, is fatally weighted in his argument. The more he talks and the more vehement he grows the worse off the orator is apt to be, because he cannot long conceal his belief that his audience are unfit to govern themselves. This is sure to leak out as he warms to his subject. The consequence is, in the present case, that the more the friends of a third term have declaimed about its harmlessness the more opposed to the idea people have grown; nay, they have now got to the point of saying that, even if a third term be harmless, they object to the bestowal of it on the particular person for whom it is proposed. In fact, the objections to a third term have already begun

to be lost sight of in the objections to a third term for General Grant. This contingency the gentlemen who have declaimed on the subject in the *North American Review* do not seem to have foreseen. All that they say in opposition to the notion that a third term is *per se* objectionable in a government like ours may be true, and yet that would never prevent the decision in any particular case turning eventually on the merits of the particular claimant of the honor. A third term, like various articles of food and drink, may be good for some people and not for others. A third term for a Lincoln may be a national blessing; a third term for a soldier in a time of profound peace as a "saviour of society," with a large band of scheming adventurers at his back, is not desirable; and yet the third term might be a good thing for a nation to have in store.

REFORM ORGANIZATIONS.

WE shall offer no excuse for reprinting the documents given below. The first is a circular emanating from the Independent Republican Committee of this city, which was sent to every member of the recent convention at Utica. The last is the announcement of a similar organization in Philadelphia, whose promoters are among the ablest and weightiest of her reflecting citizens. Both furnish rallying-points in their respective States for all those who are resolute in opposing the prostitution of the party machinery in the interest of Grantism, and who desire both before the nomination at Chicago and after it to save the country from the disgrace of political reaction. The enemies of reform palliate every triumph of the Machine by reproaching the helpless minority with failure to organize—meaning for the control of the primaries, etc., and "within the party." That this failure honorably precludes all other concerted action is a doctrine which no longer imposes on thinking men, as was shown at the last election in this State. We believe it to be of the highest importance that the independent voters of every section should make their numbers and intentions manifest before the party conventions meet in June.

"INDEPENDENT REPUBLICAN COMMITTEE,
"BOX 1827, NEW YORK CITY.

"You are herewith furnished with the Report of the work of this Committee during the last campaign. We call your attention to the fact that 19,686 Republicans voted who did not vote for Mr. Cornell, and to the fact also that these votes are essential to Republican success in the Presidential campaign. The immediate object of that campaign is to elect the Republican candidate. That candidate should, therefore, be chosen who may most certainly be elected. There are two prominent aspirants for the candidacy whom many Republicans deem unfit, and whose election would be doubtful. Their nomination is therefore inexpedient. Those candidates are Gen. Grant and James G. Blaine.

"Many Republicans recognize in Gen. Grant one of the foremost men of our time. They honor him, but they do not want him for President. His renomination would be a departure from wise precedents, and a confession of civil weakness, which ought not to be made. The cry for him as a Strong Man is unrepublican. It is the expression of an emasculated desire to be governed, unworthy of communities not yet wearied of self-government. His candidacy would be further weakened by his past administrations. Those administrations are indelibly associated with scandals which came home to thousands of Republicans with the sting of a personal disgrace. They have not forgotten those scandals. They remember that Gen. Grant seemed unable to distinguish between good men and bad men. They recall that under his administrations six Northern and eight Southern States were lost to the Republican party, and that its majority in the House of Representatives was extinguished. They believe that a popular demand for him does not exist, and that a step toward his nomination is a step toward defeat.

"Many Republicans recognize in Mr. Blaine the type of the 'statesmen' found upon the surface after the war, who have great reputations, but have established no claim to the respect of this generation. Their triumphs are registered in the caucus, not upon the statute-books. They have neither advocated nor been identified with any great measure. Their cleverness and great vehemence is devoted wholly to the acquisition and retention of office, and, after years of legislative employment, they can point to no permanent or conspicuous service which they have rendered to the public. Independent Republicans believe that no such man should be nominated. That feeling in Mr. Blaine's case, coupled with the suspicion that his official career is tainted with dishonesty, would cost the party thousands of votes should he be chosen as its candidate.

"Independent Republicans desire the election of a Republican President; they believe the party contains many fit men who can be elected; and that while this is the case, no man should be nominated who cannot poll the full Republican vote."

"NATIONAL REPUBLICAN LEAGUE,
"ROOMS OF EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, 913 WALNUT STREET,
"PHILADELPHIA, February 25, 1880.

"The objects of this association may be briefly stated:

"We intend to use every effort in our power to defeat the third-term project.

"We propose to labor for the overthrow of the ignoble tyranny in this State whereby a few politicians constitute themselves dictators of our platforms and of our candidates, demand obedience to their edicts, and treat with undisguised contempt the will of the people and the declared principles of the party.

"We will seek to secure the nomination for the Presidency of some statesman of capacity, integrity, and courage, who will labor earnestly for the improvement of our public life, and who will secure the support not only of zealous Republicans, but also of thoughtful and independent voters.

"Our demands are moderate: no third term, a party without a master, and a candidate without a stain.

"In pursuing these aims we are wholly in the spirit of the honored founders of the party, and are endeavoring to rescue it from degradation and impending disaster. We intend, therefore, to maintain and enlarge our organization, and to co-operate cordially with associations or individuals desiring like objects.

"Wherever the party organization can be utilized to advance these ends it ought to be promptly and vigorously used. Wherever the organization is improperly or despotically controlled, self-respecting Republicans ought to join in frankly expressing their opinions. If at any place a sufficient number of such men cannot be found to act together, we will be glad to accept as non-resident members of our association any persons wishing to join us."

THE SOCIALISTIC LEGISLATION IN GERMANY.

THE proposal which Prussia has handed in to the Federal Council, that the law against the Socialist-Democrats be retained in force for five years more—that is, till March, 1886, has naturally again turned public attention in Germany to Socialism. The reasons assigned for this proposal are that the agitation has been suppressed only on the surface; to which it is very naturally replied that measures like the Socialist law never can do more than suppress the mere symptoms of discontent, and that eight years of police tyranny will not reach the root of Social-Democracy more than the three already past have done. In the present state of parties, however, the prolongation will certainly be granted, though perhaps not for the whole of the five years asked for. But with the meeting of the Reichstag much has also been heard of the other form of Socialism which has direct practical importance for our time, of that professorial Socialism which has made so much noise in the world in the last few years. Time and again we hear the assertion made that Germany is now tending toward the Socialist ideal, and the Liberal papers are fond of hinting—they do not quite dare to say it outright—that Bismarck himself is the greatest living Socialist. In the debates in the Austrian Parliament last December one of the arguments adduced against the military law then passed was the tendency of the military system to state Socialism, Germany being pointed at as a warning example. Probably the same argument will be used—we may add, used with as little effect as in Austria—in the German Reichstag, if, indeed, arguments directed against the military system in general will not seem altogether irrelevant in the present state of Germany. But it is not uninteresting to take a look at the relations between the political state of Germany and the theories of the school of Katheder-Socialists.

The essence of the doctrines of this school, like that of all

Socialism, lies in the endeavor to raise the social condition of the lower classes, to destroy or mitigate as much as possible such inequalities in wealth as are not due to differences of ability or exertion. The means proposed—and it is, perhaps, not unnecessary to insist that they are only means—are twofold. On the one hand, the state is directly to take charge of and conduct industrial undertakings wherever competition results in combination, in monopoly, and in the growth of huge corporations that form a state within the state; where direct assumption is not advisable for technical reasons, state regulation at least is to set in. The end appears more distinctly in the second class of means—in the use of taxation. Taxes are to be levied, not from the merely financial, but from the social-political point of view. The "unearned increase" is of course to be taxed, the progressive income-tax to be introduced, gains like those from stock-exchange speculation to be specially taxed, and so on. After all, this school, which pretends to represent the latest and most original development of political economy, is only Mill carried to the extreme, or the rabid Socialism of Marx very much softened down. Its importance lies in the fact that it attempts to define the extent to which Socialistic ideas can be carried into practice at the present day, and it is worth while to notice how far it is true that these ideas are being realized in the present condition and policy of Germany.

In regard to the kind of means exemplified by the progressive income-tax, recent legislation has been to a certain extent in a line with the proposals sketched above, but only to a certain extent. The *Klassen-steuer*, on which the representation in the Prussian Landtag is based, is an income-tax increasing from one-half to two and three-quarters per cent. as the incomes rise. Among the taxes proposed for the present session of the Reichstag is one on stock-exchange transactions. Indirect taxes on articles in general use, in the condemnation of which German Socialists and free-traders for once unite, are not so extensive in Prussia as in England, France, or Austria, though in this respect the tariff legislation of last year has deprived Germany of much of her advantage (if such it be) in this respect. We need only instance grain and petroleum. It is noteworthy, too, that the taxation of inheritances and legacies is by no means carried as far in Prussia as in any of the countries named above. In fact, whatever distinct current against the rich can be observed in the policy of Bismarck, is directed against the commercial rich, and proceeds, if we may be allowed the expression, not from Socialistic but from social motives. It has been called the struggle of immovable against movable capital, of land against money. Its character is clearly indicated by the tax on stock-exchange transactions which, as we have just mentioned, will be laid before the Reichstag at the coming session; another proposed tax of the same kind, also to be laid before the Reichstag, is that on all acknowledgments of payments received. The commercial rich, the manufacturers and traders and bankers, are a bugbear to the Conservatives. Apart from social considerations, whose importance in Germany is not to be lightly estimated, the weight of their influence is usually thrown in favor of the Liberals, and Bismarck and the Conservatives are only too glad to have professorial authority on their side in attacking them. The policy of the Government in this case, as in the Jew question (with which, indeed, it is in many cases closely connected), happens to chime in with the Socialist ideas, but only from political and, with many of the Conservatives, from social motives. It much resembles the policy by which the English Tories led by Bolingbroke sought in Anne's reign to maintain the ascendency of the "landed interest" and keep down the rising "moneyed interest." How little their policy is directed by any real regard for the poor man is shown by the detestable law concerning fields and woods recently proposed by the Conservatives in the Landtag and carried with inconsiderable changes. By this law the peasant who gathers wild berries must have a permit from the owner of the land; if he has none, or even fails to carry one with him, he is liable to imprisonment; the proceeding is criminal, not a civil action for trespass, but as a special grace the prosecution is undertaken only at the request of the landowner. The latter may refuse a permit except where the peasant can prove a right by prescription (thirty years' use in Prussian law); and when a peasant dies his prescriptive right shall in future die with him, and not go over to his children.

If we examine the other part of the programme of the Katheder-Socialists, the part which is summed up in the word "Verstaatlichung," the result is still more meagre. The Socialist programme would have the state take charge of all branches of transportation, including post, telegraph, railroads, even horse-cars; of all branches of insurance, life, property, income; the supply of municipal needs like water and gas, warehouses, markets; of banks in their regular routine business. It can hardly be said that this programme is being carried out in Germany to a much greater degree than in other countries. The recent purchase of railroads by Prussia, which will lead in a short time to the system of exclusive state-ownership in Prussia and even in all Germany, has often been pointed out as a movement towards state Socialism. Perhaps it is so, but such a movement is hardly peculiar to Germany. The railroad problem seems not only in Germany, but all over the world, to be veering toward the solution of state interference to a greater or less degree. Considering the bureaucratic tendency of the German mind, the policy of state-ownership seems there almost a matter of course, when in a country as essentially non-bureaucratic as the United States commissions for the supervision (to however limited an extent) of the railroads are organized, as is the case in Massachusetts and probably soon will be the case in New York. It seems a distortion of the facts to ascribe to the recent purchase of the railroads by Prussia any peculiar Socialist bearing; the motives for that purchase, as is well known, were mainly political and, to no small degree, of a military character. Still, it is impossible to deny the existence in professorial and official circles in Germany of a hostility to the results of what is called "Smithianism"—a use of the name of Adam Smith that would cause that worthy to turn in his grave could he hear it. One sign of this hostility is seen in the disfavor to the joint-stock-company principle. Among the many laws and proposals which are talked of for the present session of the Reichstag one of the most important and significant is that for a reform of the laws relating to stock companies. Another sign of this feeling is to be found in the favor to a return to usury laws shown by jurists and economists. In truth the position of Germany in modern industrial development is peculiar. Probably no country has in the last generation made such a comparatively prodigious advance in wealth and industry as Germany. This development occurred in the midst of a population in the main of a decidedly provincial character, accustomed to simple routine lives, not possessed of the independence of judgment, the versatility of resource, the energy tempered with caution, in fact, of the ability to look out for themselves, which are called for in the modern struggle for life. Consequently it is in Germany that the modern system of capitalistic industry has shown its worst side. In the hot-house atmosphere produced by the five milliards the extreme of gambling speculation was seen before, the extreme of relapse and ruin after, the crash of 1873. To these circumstances the more or less complete leaning to Socialist ideas now prevalent, especially in professorial circles, is probably to be in very great degree ascribed.

But not very much of all this is to be distinctly noticed in the policy of Prince Bismarck; for when we speak of the policy of the Prussian or German Government we mean, of course, that of the Chancellor. Prince Bismarck is and has always been an essentially political leader and thinker. He is in a way narrow-minded. He has never shown any great knowledge or comprehension of economic science, nor has his practical activity in economic fields brought him much glory. He probably neither understands nor cares for the logic by which the professorial Socialists try to prove the necessity of extending the sphere of action of the state. His utterances on economic and financial subjects have frequently been marked by ignorance or fallacy—as, for instance, in regard to the method of applying the income-tax to the incomes of state employees. The disorganization of trade and industry caused by

his management of the disbursement of the five milliards will not soon be forgotten in or out of Germany. The introduction of the protective tariff last year was to him far more a political and financial measure than an economic one. Still less can it be said that he has ever given evidence of any humanitarian sentiment for the lower classes, any great insight into the social problem, which is, after all, the great problem of the day. The present law against the Social-Democrats proves this abundantly. In fact, if it were not, on the one hand, for the peculiar internal condition of the German Empire, with the nationality question still far from being a thing of the past; and, on the other hand, for the external relations of Germany and the disturbed and threatening conditions of European politics, Prince Bismarck would probably by this time have outlived his greatness and usefulness. He is still indispensable to maintain the results of his own achievements. That he is so is an ominous sign for Germany and for Europe, for he is and remains the man of "blood and iron."

MASQUERADING IN NEW YORK.

THE annual *Arion* and *Liederkranz* masquerades constitute the chief and most conspicuous tribute paid by the inhabitants of the principal city of the United States to revelry pure and simple. There are numerous other public balls during the winter, but none of them approach in importance the two we have named, and these are now always so successful that each year adds to the means of provision for future entertainments, so that we may probably look forward to a long succession of them, steadily increasing in elaborateness. Of the two the *Liederkranz* has the reputation of being the more "select," and in the sense which that much-abused word has in New York this is probably true. The tickets for the *Liederkranz* cost two or three times as much as tickets for the *Arion*, and in a society in which there is absolutely no test of respectability but wealth, the presumption is that a ball to which it costs ten or fifteen dollars to gain admittance will be more marked by all those desirable qualities of breeding, taste, and manner included in the idea of respectability, than a ball where the paltry sum of five dollars opens the doors. But for those who, like ourselves, enjoy public spectacles for their distinct character, rather than for the opportunity they may afford of meeting persons whom we already meet only too often elsewhere, the *Arion* is the better ball of the two. It comes nearer to having a character of its own than any other entertainment of the kind in the United States. If there is an amusement in the world for which the Anglo-Saxon race has no sort of taste or aptitude it is masquerading; and if there is any branch of that great race which has less taste and aptitude for it than another, it is beyond doubt our own. Hence it is by no means accidental that the pastime in the United States should have fallen wholly into the hands of foreigners. In New Orleans, where the population is half French, they have annual French or Creole masquerading. In New York, where the population is one-third German, the duty falls upon the Germans. At the *Arion* ball you do undoubtedly see out of the twenty thousand persons who go a few hundred English-speaking pleasure-seekers. But they are a drop in the bucket. The ball is a German ball. As a German ball it is a great success. It brings together an enormous and heterogeneous crowd—very much such a crowd as may be seen on the piazzas of the Coney Island hotels on a summer afternoon, excepting the dominoes and costumes. It is, moreover, a thoroughly well-behaved crowd, and it has a curious effect to see during the early part of the evening a large number of children walking about outside the space reserved for the masquerade proper with their contented-looking fathers and mothers—very much as they may be seen at a matinée performance of a pantomime.

There is nothing more German about it than the conscientious thoroughness with which the work of preparation for it is carried out. The great feature of the night is the opening of the ball by a sort of carnival procession (it is not the less a mark of its German origin, by the way, that this New York substitute for a carnival should take place in Lent), made up of a series of *tableaux vivants* illustrating the history of the country, the progress of science and art, or anything else that occurs to the managers. A year or two since there was a praiseworthy attempt by somebody who thought that there was "money in it" to have an open-air carnival procession through the streets of New York, and any one who remembers the result will gain a very good idea of the *Arion* procession round the interior of the Madison Square Garden, bearing in mind the cramped character of the roadway in the Garden, and the fact that the horses, instead of caracoling through the streets, have to be carefully guided over a planked floor. Wherever there are two or three Germans gathered together there is sure to be some humor. No critic, we believe, has ever suspected German humor of being wit, and we must be permitted to say that to attempt to introduce humor into *tableaux vivants* is a risky business. With an ordinary joke the jester has the advantage of surprise; but it cannot be too constantly enforced upon the minds of those who undertake to provide jests for the public that novelty is an essential condition of their success. The managers of the Arion ball seem to labor under the erroneous impression that the true secret of humor is repetition, and that familiarity with even a poor joke will guarantee it against failure. To quarrel with the Germans for holding this view as an abstract proposition would, of course, be absurd; it is only when it is carried into practice that resentment becomes justifiable. It must be observed, however, that as the humor provided at the Arion ball is by Germans, so also it is for Germans, and that to the German appreciation of a German joke a certain continuity and permanence of impression may be necessary. These reflections were suggested to us by the humorous Wine-cooler, with the continuous popping of corks from titanic, unstable champagne bottles, and the street-sweeping machine directed by Captain Williams in the procession. The idea that a new broom sweeps clean expresses a truth which does not admit of dispute, and it is consequently one that hardly requires spectacular proof.

The procession goes twice round the Garden and disappears. It is almost pathetic to think that this laboriously-prepared exhibition, gazed at once a year for twenty minutes by an apathetic crowd, is all that has survived to us sombre and unpleasure-loving denizens of a new continent of the gaiety and revelry and reckless riot that our pagan progenitors once mingled with religion, and part of which, preserved in the festivities of the carnival, have in Europe, even after twenty centuries, remained as a connecting link between the joyous youth and the saddened age of the world. The carnival is said of late years to have fallen in a decadence; but a carnival within the limits of a circus-ring, for which the enterprising management has to "hire a hall," is a sort of social survival or transplantation which has something melancholy about its meagreness. Pleasure is such a neglected branch of human activity in America! This carnival, provided at so much a head by an enterprising foreign society in an old railroad-depot, reminds one so strongly how all the forces of society in the United States seem to contend against gayety or the successful pursuit of enjoyment. Masked balls will, we fancy, always remain an exotic in American life. Pleasure is an art like any other. There is no more reason to expect a people who have been monotonously devoted to money-getting for generations, and who have been strongly impregnated with religious notions which involve the idea that enjoyment cannot be innocent, suddenly to become gifted with the art of amusing themselves, than there is to expect a sudden outbreak of loquacity in a deaf and dumb asylum. Of all the forms of human enjoyment there is probably none that requires more natural gaiety and gives scope for more intellectual expertness than a masked ball. It is a challenge to a delicate encounter of wits, and it is nothing at all unless this challenge is taken up. Successful masquerading is only possible in a highly-cultivated society, in which women are trained to use their wits in conversation, and have a great fund of audacity and intellectual resource. None of these conditions exist in any modern Anglo-Saxon society, least of all in the United States. Conversational wit among English and American people is an extreme rarity—such a rarity that any one who has a trace of talent for it almost always is put down as "very foreign," and the art of talking is, as a branch of education, almost wholly neglected here, as we believe it is more and more getting to be in England. In American homes there is, as a rule, very little general conversation, and hosts of young girls make their début in society without ever having heard anything more like it than remarks about the weather or discussions between their brothers as to the price of stocks. General conversation even at dinners is almost never attempted, and, indeed, the modern custom of making a dinner-party as large as possible renders everything but *tête-à-têtes* out of the question. In fact, all that society generally exacts is a certain amount of commonplace talk, and no one who has been much about in it can fail to have observed that in certain quarters there has been of late years an effort to do away with much of this as a needless formality, interfering, particularly at dinner, with other duties. It is obvious that masquerading is no sort of amusement for such a society as this. The interest of carrying on a conversation with a

person whose face you cannot see consists, in the first place, of a pleasure derived from conversation for its own sake; and if this does not exist there is, of course, far less amusement to be got from talking to a person in a mask than from talking to a person without one.

LESSONS FROM THE PRUSSIAN CIVIL SERVICE.

II.

IF Prussia pays little respect to the uneducated and unsteady will of "the people" in the choice of executive officials, it is almost as free from the caprice of ministerial or royal favor. This is a most important distinction. In the United States the President, or, as in practice it commonly results, a Senator or a Representative, can select some friend of approved party or personal fidelity and make him collector of a great port, with the control of its revenues and thereby a vast influence on its trade and prosperity. But such a discretion would amaze a king of Prussia. The King of Prussia has his favorites and likes to reward them; yet it will be admitted that that is not a very serious partiality which cannot relieve even the president of a province from the obligation of eight years' study at a gymnasium, three or four years at a university, a year or two of unpaid service at the bottom of the official ladder, and a score of years climbing to reach the top.

At this point the objection will perhaps be made—in fact we have heard it from at least one ingenuous critic—that it is impossible in practice to throw the service open to a whole people. What is to prevent overcrowding? they will enquire. To all such objectors one may reply that they probably have in view the two thousand applications lately filed at Washington for the single, or eventually the first, vacant consulate, or the general system of office-seeking in the United States; but failed to extend the comparison to the qualifications for office respectively exacted in the two countries. How many of those two thousand applicants could satisfy the conditions required for the German consular service? If the appointee to a vacant consulate were required to show a diploma from Harvard or Yale, to know something of law in a technical sense, to pass a year or more as an attaché learning his duties but drawing no pay, and then to climb the intermediate steps of consular clerk, vice-consul, etc., would there not be a dearth rather than a glut in the market? Would not the Department of State have to invite reluctant candidates, instead of rejecting a mass of superfluous applications? It seems to us that this is perfectly clear. But one may reply that the last extreme is worse than the first; that from an abundance of material the Government can select what it needs, while an insufficient supply may gravely impair the interests of the state. This is no less clear, and in fact the Prussian conditions are only intended to secure quality and capacity. The just balance between demand and supply is obtained in the long run with great accuracy by means of a scale of compensation which takes account of all the conditions of the labor market, and thus equalizes the pecuniary and personal attractions of the civil service to those of the learned and other professions. No one will deny, however, that there are not many states in which this system could be successfully applied. It is possible only in a country where fluctuations of the labor market are slight and rare; where the facilities of higher education are abundant and the influence of the cultivated classes is very great; and where the traditions of the service are little disturbed by the vicissitudes of public opinion and political parties.

This reflection does not, however, lessen the importance of the chief point on which we wish to insist, namely: the democratic character of the Prussian system. For to show that a foreign institution, whether recommended for adoption or only for study, is not a vile instrument of kings and aristocrats but is highly popular and democratic, cuts the ground from under the clamorous demagogue who will have no reform at any cost, and reassures the honest but timid citizen who fears lest reform be at the cost of the people. Against both classes it is useful to insist that civil-service reform aims not at taking the offices away from the people, but the contrary. It takes from the few, but only that it may render to the many; from Mr. Butler and Mr. Blaine and Mr. John Kelly, in order to restore to the people of Essex, of Maine, of New York Any one who honestly studies and fairly masters it will see that the Prussian system is the really democratic, and that our own is by comparison aristocratic or oligarchic. In Prussia, Schmidt, who aspires to a career in the Government service, makes his studies according to a general law, and then has a right to adoption into the judiciary, diplomacy, or other department, as the case may be. In this country Smith must first acquire the favor of Jones, and Jones must have influence with Brown and White, and these with still higher dignitaries, till the appointing power is reached. But it is evident that under this system the number of citizens who have any chance of obtaining office, even as a privilege, is exceedingly small, while not one can claim office as a right. What constitutes the right to office? One of two things: either hereditary authority, which Mr. Conkling would indignantly reject; or character and capacity, which are rejected in practice. For although the appointing power always affects, and sometimes sincerely means, to make the best selections, it must fail in a great number of cases. Human nature is weak, and human judgment is fallible; and it is to support the feeble faculties of the individual that Prussia adopts the system of preliminary education, and England that of competitive examinations, for the civil service. In the vast majority of cases these systems procure the best men.

It is true there is a school of American critics, of a sincerity not to be questioned, who will say that this reasoning mistakes the object of the reform desired in our administration. A civil service organized and conducted like an army would be impossible with us, they say; and would not be advisable even if possible. We should not improve the service by keeping politics out of it, but we should improve our politics by keeping officials out of the conventions. This is the logic of the President's famous order. It seems to us to revolve in a vicious circle, as we shall undertake to show.

In Prussia, happily, the caucus and convention are unknown, and in the election of deputies some degree of spontaneity is still left to the popular choice. No occasion exists, therefore, for an order like that of the President. But even if the occasion were present no order would be necessary, and for two reasons: First, in a positive sense, the officials would be repelled from rather than drawn to such gatherings by their tastes, their feelings, and the spirit of the class to which they belong. In a negative sense, they would have no special interest above their private fellow-citizens in the candidates themselves. Beyond these we know of no prescription, much less a positive rule, which interdicts their participation like other men in political movements. The laws and the constitution rather encourage such participation. Almost any official may be elected to the Diet or to local office; and in any elective capacity which they may owe to their fellow-citizens we have not heard much complaint of their want of independence. Now, it must be clear that the contemptuous neglect of the low intrigues of politics which they practise on the one hand, and the intellectual freedom which they bring to higher political work on the other, are possible only to officials whose tenure is independent of partisan favor, and in a great measure of executive preference. Any other explanation would make human nature in Prussia different from what it is elsewhere. But if, on the contrary, the "collector" of Berlin were appointed on the recommendation, say, of Herr Lasker, and were likely to be dismissed as soon as his patron ceased to have a vote in the Diet, he would exhibit the liveliest interest in the regular re-election of that deputy. He would be a busy worker at ward meetings. He would faithfully attend the sessions of the "Vertrauens-Männer" of Herr Lasker's party in his district: and he would know how to secure the right degree of loyalty in the persons of the other members.

This result would not only be natural, it would be inevitable. No executive prohibition would affect it. How much more unreasonable it was, then, to expect any good result from the President's method, in a country where respect for the central authority, or for any authority, is so very slight; where the Congressional patron is likely to survive the remote President; and where, above all, the Senate divides the power, as it ought to divide the responsibility, of the executive? Mr. Conkling is a concrete person and a very permanent Senator. His friendship is a calculable quantity, like his support; but what assurance can be given that if an official forfeits that support in pursuance of the policy of to-day, the President of to-morrow may not reverse that policy, and dismiss its innocent supporters? All the measures taken, as yet, by the Administration fall far short of solving this problem. They begin the reform where it ought to end; or rather they propose as the leading object what ought to be only an incidental, however desirable, result.

The example of Prussia brings reformers back into the region of the practical—examination, competitive or not, but in either case by impartial, non-partisan boards, who are forbidden to apply other tests than those of character and capacity. This relieves both the appointing power and the candidates from serious temptations. Security of tenure, without the possibility of removal, except for cause, will make the service stable, and its members independent of improper influence from without or above. Promotion in the order of merit or of seniority, which, in nine

cases out of ten, will be the same thing, and retirement at the proper age with a fair pension, are the two remaining features of such a civil service as we have in view. If now any one supposes that men whose official position is guaranteed by such safeguards would be enthusiastic at primaries, or would be running off to "work" for this man or that, he has an extremely low opinion of human nature. Everybody knows that the party zeal of office-holders is largely factitious. They are active in the cause because that sort of activity got them their offices, and because at present it is the best way to keep them. Put their official tenure on a different basis, and they will need no executive order to keep them at home and at their legitimate duties.

This is, at least, the lesson from Prussia's experience, and we trust it will not be considered romantic or extravagant. If the President had succeeded in his way he would have deserved the thanks of every good citizen. His intentions were doubtless above reproach. But neither he nor any other man can succeed in what we call civil-service reform so long as appointments are made directly to the very highest offices; so long as the service does not offer young men a career, like the army or the navy or the learned professions; so long, in short, as human nature remains as it is, and good men even in the White House can be tempted by Satan. The efforts of true reformers ought not to rest on the good intentions of any man. Not the ability to resist temptation, which one President may have and another not, will save us, but freedom from exposure to temptation; and this can be secured only by reducing to a minimum the possibility of caprice and favoritism in appointments.

A FRENCH VIEW OF METTERNICH.—I.

PARIS, Feb. 5, 1880.

THE 'Memoirs of Prince Metternich' are almost an event. We find in them the shadow not of coming events, but of past events; and the world which reads with a feverish interest the 'Memoirs of Madame de Rémusat' cannot be insensible to these 'Memoirs,' which show us the great Cæsar of our age in contact not with an amiable and frivolous lady-in-waiting, but with a real statesman.

Our time had almost forgotten Metternich; he was not much more than a name for the new generation. His system had fallen with him in 1848, and we have little indulgence for the past, even when it has not been a failure. I have heard it said that M. Guizot met Metternich in London after 1848; they were both fleeing before the Revolution. Metternich had been anything but amiable to the Government of July and to M. Guizot while the latter was in power; he had always looked upon the Government of 1830 with distrust and fear. However, now they were both in exile. Metternich said proudly to Guizot during a conversation on the recent events: "I have no regrets; error never approached me." "I am happier than you," answered Guizot; "I have made some errors in my life, and I was always so fortunate as to perceive it." In the same conversation Metternich uttered a word worth remembering. Guizot said to him: "You, who have governed Austria so long—." Metternich interrupted him: "I beg your pardon, I have sometimes governed Europe; I have never governed Austria."

The Metternich of 1848 is the only Metternich who has left an impression on our time; but the true Metternich must be found in the 'Memoirs' now published by his son, Prince Richard Metternich. He was a type. He had a clearness of view and a strength of character which gave him the means of resisting, and of resisting successfully, the greatest military and political genius of our age—I mean Napoleon I. Metternich was born in Coblentz in 1773; he was sent in 1788 to Strasbourg, where he finished his studies in the French University, which had preserved a semi-German character and always received many German students. A year afterwards the French Revolution broke out. Young Metternich did not drink of its cup; he was not inebriated by the famous "principles." His father was ambassador of Austria to the Bund; he was born a conservative. He left Strasbourg for Mayence, where he studied law, but his studies were interrupted by the war. It is the opinion of Metternich that if the Duke of Brunswick had marched boldly on Paris after his first successes in Champagne he would have entered the French capital almost without meeting with any resistance. The time had not come; "the evil," says he, "had made too much progress to be stopped by mere military operations, and Europe nursed too many illusions about the Revolution to make it possible to use at the same time moral remedies and the force of arms." Metternich joined his father in Brussels, and spent the winter of 1793 in the Low Countries. His father represented the Austrian Government at that court, and he himself watched the military operations with the keenest interest. He accompanied to London the treasurer of the Low Countries, and made the acquaintance of William Pitt, of Fox, of Burke, of Sheridan. In his fervor against the crimes of the Revolution he composed a "project of an appeal to the imperial and royal army, written in the ardor of my youth in 1793." This manuscript is now published for the first time; it is pompous and sentimental, but it shows that Metternich was always the same man, and he could write in his 'Memoirs'—"From my earliest youth to the thirty-sixth year of a laborious ministry I have never lived an hour for myself."

On his return to Vienna he married, the 27th of September, 1795, at Austerlitz, the granddaughter of the famous Chancellor Kaunitz, and in 1801 he was named Minister to Dresden. In 1803 he was sent to Berlin; and the Courts of Vienna and St. Petersburg having entered, in the month of November, 1804, into an offensive and defensive alliance, it became the duty of Metternich to try to persuade Prussia to enter it also. The difficulties were great, the King was weak, Hardenberg was afraid and undecided. The Czar was very angry with Frederic William III., and warned him, through Prince Dolgoruki, that if he was not an ally, he would be treated as an enemy. Still, Metternich could obtain nothing, and the King of Prussia had just dismissed Dolgoruki when he heard that Napoleon, in order to turn the Austrian army at Ulm, had violated the Prussian territory near Anspach. The King of Prussia now became very angry with Napoleon, and on the 3d of November entered into the treaty of alliance. It was too late; the Prussian army was not ready; the battle of Austerlitz was fought, and Berlin was obliged to become very humble towards Napoleon. Metternich says in his memoirs that the treaty of November was communicated at once to France; and by whom? By the Prussian Minister Haugwitz. "Political crimes," he observes, "are like all crimes; time, which tears away every veil, discovers them sooner or later, and they never remain unpunished." . . . The French Minister in Vienna was M. de Laforest; as soon as Haugwitz had made his treaty with Austria and Russia, he went to Laforest and read it to him. Laforest reproached him, and Haugwitz told him, "We could not do otherwise, and you see that I have stipulated everything so vaguely, and kept so much latitude, that we are bound to nothing. You may assure the Emperor that it is all 'un jeu,' and that we are and will remain the best friends." The end of this "jeu" was Jena.

After the disastrous treaty of Presburg, which tore from Austria the fifth part of her possessions—Venice, Istria, Friuli, Dalmatia, Tyrol, the Vorarlberg, the Breisgau, the city of Constance—Metternich was sent as ambassador to Paris. He arrived there the 4th of August, 1806, and from that day began, it may be said, his great and long duel with Napoleon. The peace in reality could be only a truce; and it became the duty of Metternich to watch every movement of his enemy, and to take advantage of all his mistakes. He began to study him as a moralist, knowing well that man has no worse enemy than his own passions, especially when he is armed with supreme power. This was the state of Paris when Metternich arrived at the French capital:

"Paris was in a state of torpor, which resulted from the sense of oppression felt by every class of society. With the exception of the *agents provocateurs* [the police agents of the secret service] not a person would have dared openly to express an opinion unfavorable to the Government. . . . The impression which the news of a victory by Napoleon produced on the Parisian public was not so much joy as the satisfaction of having escaped the consequences of a defeat, and of seeing that the internal peace was not in danger of being altered by the consequences of such a defeat. The Emperor could well say then: 'La France c'est moi.' The revolutionary elements were only sleeping. In Europe France had not a single friend; there was always a feeling of inquietude mixed with the pleasure caused by a victory of the French army; for everybody knew that these victories made new victories necessary. . . . With very few exceptions the French nation would have willingly exchanged glory for security. Under the Restoration the appeal to glory became the arm of the Bonapartist and Revolutionary Opposition."

Metternich was well placed in order to see that all the plans which Napoleon made for Germany were purely selfish plans; the latter once told him: "All I want of the Bund is men and money." Napoleon's cynicism was such that a man of heart and of honor could not long tolerate him. Metternich always considered a new war with Napoleon as an absolute necessity; the 15th of April, 1809, he received his passports; in his opinion, Austria had not waited long enough and Germany was not quite ready. He was right; the campaign of 1809 ended disastrously for Austria, even more disastrously than the campaign of 1805. Metternich was named in July minister of foreign affairs; he became the executor of the ignominious peace of Vienna. The task was a painful one; he made this programme for himself:

"I gave the first place to the preservation of the nucleus which, after our unhappy campaign, still formed the Empire of Austria. Led away by the desire to assure to himself the definitive domination of the European continent, Napoleon had passed the limit of the *possible;* this was not doubtful to me. I foresaw that he and his enterprises could not escape a sudden ruin. The *how* and the *when* were enigmas for me. So my conscience traced for me the way; I had not to stop the natural march of events, and I was to preserve for Austria the chances of rising which the first of all forces, the force of things, kept in reserve sooner or later for her heroic sovereign."

To tie the remaining provinces of Austria round the dynasty; to save them from invasion and preserve them neutral during the commotions of the nation, and to be ready to enter a European coalition as soon as this coalition should be strong enough—such was the Metternichian policy. It explains at the same time his apparent complacence for a while, the facilities even which he gave at times to Napoleon, and the relentless ardor and obstinacy of the later days, when he was able to bring his arch-enemy to bay. An archduchess was the first sacrifice made to Napoleon by Austria, and the dynastic preoccupations of the French Emperor became a powerful weapon in the hands of Metternich. He bound Napoleon to Austria by means of the archduchess, but he did not feel bound himself, nor was the Emperor of Austria tied in any way. Human sacrifices are not abolished in politics; poor Maria-Louisa herself knew that she was sent to the Minotaur as a victim; she perfectly understood her part; she knew that her sacrifice would give a little breathing-space. When Metternich received the first overtures of Napoleon about the marriage with an archduchess he called on the Emperor and said to him: "Your majesty is a sovereign and a father; it behoves your majesty only to consult the duties of a father and of an emperor." The princess, when she was consulted, said: "I only wish what my duty commands me to wish; when the interests of the Empire are at stake, you must consult them and not me. Tell my father to obey only his duties as a sovereign, and not to subordinate these duties to my personal interests." When Metternich transmitted these words to the Emperor, "What you say," he rejoined, "does not surprise me; I know my daughter too well not to have expected such an answer. . . . My consent to this marriage will assure the monarchy a few years of peace, during which I will try to heal its wounds. I owe myself to my peoples. I cannot hesitate. Send a courier to Paris and say that I will accede to the demands of the Emperor of the French." And thus the young archduchess was sent to France. I have a small portrait of her at that period. She wears a white muslin gown; her head and dress are adorned with roses. She has a good, quiet German face, without any beauty, but with much simplicity—blue eyes, as blue as a forget-me-not; her blonde hair was put up in curls on the top of her head, after the fashion of the time. This blonde-and-white little princess was sent as a peace-offering to the dark, bilious, and restless Corsican. But she only postponed for a short time the inevitable struggle, which we have next to recall.

Correspondence.

MORE (AND FINAL) STATISTICS OF THE HARVARD DIVINITY SCHOOL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the issue of the *Nation* for February 26 your correspondent 'H.' points out the rapid decline in the proportion of college-educated men attending the Harvard Divinity School since 1845. By his showing the proportion has decreased from 8 out of every 10 holding a college degree to 3½ out of every 10, averaging periods of five years.

I presume his figures are correct, but they are limited by the source of his information, viz., the triennial catalogue, which reaches only down to the year 1874. By consulting the *annual* catalogues since that date I have discovered the following facts, which ought to be subjoined to his statements if the whole truth on this subject *down to the present moment* is to be given. I find in the

Year.	Students.	College Degree.	Out of Ten.
1875-6	12	8	6 and 2-3
1876-7	17	10	5 and 4-5
1877-8	17	11	6 and 2-5
1878-9	22	18	8 and 1-5
1879-80	19	14	7 and 2-5
	87	61	7

Seven college graduates in every 10 students; certainly an astonishing jump from the 3½ of the preceding semi-decade! What is the explanation?

I have given the figures in detail that you might see that the change is due to no accidental influx of college men for a year or two, but that it indicates a steady and persistent movement which, if I am not mistaken, will be continued in the future. Any one acquainted with the history of the Divinity School knows that for several years back, submitting to popular pressure, it has admitted and sheltered a grade of students not inferior, indeed, to those present in its sister schools—the Episcopal at Cambridge, for instance—but yet inferior in training and ability to what the community has a right to demand of its future religious instructors. Hereafter the school proposes to offer every inducement to those who wish to study theology in a free and catholic spirit, provided they come properly equipped for that task, but *not* otherwise. In short, the standard is being raised in this department of the University, as it has already been raised in the Medical and Law Schools; let us hope with the like happy result. S.

Newburyport, March 1.

CONCERNING A CHARGE OF PLAGIARISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of February 12 a paragraph appeared charging the writer of an article in the *International Review* for February entitled "Universal Suffrage in New York" with stealing his article from the Report of the New York Municipal Commission of 1877. As we were warned in the paragraph against Mr. Mills, the writer of the article in question, we wish to say that we have compared the article and the Report with the greatest care, and can find no justification whatever for the charge made by the *Nation*.

We may add also that when Mr. Mills forwarded to us the Report for comparison with his article, he stated that, although, like everybody else who took any interest in such subjects, he was familiar with the scheme proposed by the Report, he had never read the Report itself. In this connection we should like to call your attention to the fact that the note to the article which drew out the attack of the *Nation* and which criticised the work of the Commission, referred only to the scheme proposed and said nothing of the Report.

Very truly yours,

John T. Morse, Jr.,
H. C. Lodge,
Editors International Review.

February 28, 1880.

[We did not accuse Mr. Mills of "stealing his article from the Report of the Municipal Commission." This conveys the idea of textual copying. What we said was that he "reproduced the description [too strong an expression, we admit] of a distinction and the reasons of it" contained in the Report, and that, "having adopted the arguments of the Commission, he adopted their plan," but added that this "convicted him of nothing disreputable"; that what made it disreputable in our eyes was a foot-note in which he treated the plan of the Commission with great contempt, as if he had examined the Report and found nothing in it. As it now appears that he had actually not read the Report when he wrote his article, of course we did him gross injustice, because a man cannot steal what he never saw, and we are thus saved the trouble of contending with his editors. But the inconveniences and dangers of writing an article for a Review without looking at the more conspicuous and recent contributions to the literature of the subject are very obvious. Not the least of them is the risk the writer runs of being suspected of borrowing what he has really himself laboriously conceived. The criticism in the note which the editors of the *International* recall did *not* "refer only to the scheme proposed and say nothing of the Report." The editors have overlooked the passage in which the omniscient author says: "The gentlemen who framed the scheme thought they had guarded against such a capture [that of the machinery by politicians] by restricting the constituency to tax and rent-payers; but any practical politician could have told them," etc. What "the gentlemen thought" about their scheme could only be found in the Report; and the gentleman who wrote this note without reading the Report we must still continue, therefore, to consider a writer against whom editors of Reviews may not improperly be warned.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

BY a new fac-simile process "which dispenses entirely with retouching," the 356 plates constituting the complete works of Rembrandt have been reproduced "in absolute perfection," according to M. Charles Blanc, who describes, annotates, and chronologically catalogues them in a work of which Mr. J. W. Bouton is the American agent. It will form 3 vols. royal folio, besides a portfolio for the larger pieces, and the minimum price will be $150.——D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, announce for early publication an illustrated 'Concord Guide-Book.' They have ready a 'Fireside Library' of 100 "carefully selected volumes in uniform bindings," intended for the use of parents in the training of their children. ——Dodd, Mead & Co. will shortly publish 'Adventures in Patagonia: a Missionary's Tour of Exploration [in 1833],' by the Rev. Titus Coan; a work on Alaska, by the Rev. Sheldon Jackson; and 'Success with Small Fruits,' from *Scribner's Monthly*, by the Rev. E. P. Roe.—— The current issue of the *Magazine of American History* (for February) is again a "Washington number." It is embellished with engravings on one sheet of the Peale (1772), Houdon (1785), Trumbull (1792), and Stuart (1796) portraits on canvass or in marble; a larger engraving from the authentic St.-Mémin crayon in profile (about 1798); and woodcuts and fac-similes. Some interesting particulars about Houdon's plaster cast and statue are given in an article on the "National Standard for a Likeness of Washington," by Mr. William F. Hubbard.——In December last began the publication of monthly Johns Hopkins University Circulars (4to, pp. 8, 12, 16), containing the calendar and other information necessary for students, but also recording briefly the doings of the several societies of which a list is given on p. 13. They are: the Scientific Association, of which Prof. Sylvester is President; the Philological, Prof. Gildersleeve, President; the History and Political Science Association, President Gilman; the Metaphysical Club, Mr. C. S. Peirce, President; and the Biological Association, which meets in the Laboratory. We do not know what other university or college can show similar and so useful organizations.——The original work done in the Physiological Laboratory of the Harvard Medical School during the past seven years is fairly represented in the volume of collected papers just made up for private circulation. Two of the eleven papers relate to the digestive process, two to the respirative, and the rest to the action of the heart, the function of the epiglottis, the physiology of the cortex cerebri, a new form of inductive apparatus, etc. These papers were originally printed in divers periodicals.——We have received Part I. of a Catalogue of the Library of the U. S. Naval Observatory, 'Astronomical Bibliography,' by Prof. E. S. Holden. It contains a list not to be found elsewhere "of all the indexes to scientific periodicals relating to Astronomy, Geodesy, Optics, and Mathematics" which are in the library just mentioned, "together with a list of such works on scientific bibliography as are of constant use in the conduct of researches in these subjects." As this is a preliminary list, merely, we may remark some typographical lapses in the printing of foreign titles, both as regards the use of capitals and correctness of spelling and accent.——Recent English announcements include 'Ilios; the City and Country of the Trojans,' by Dr. Schliemann; 'A Short History of India,' by J. Talboys Wheeler; 'Japan: its History, Traditions, and Religions,' by E. J. Reed, M.P.; 'Unbeaten Tracks in Japan,' by Isabella Bird (of which G. P. Putnam's Sons will be the American publishers); 'The Great Desert of the Sahara,' by Donald Mackenzie; 'Matabele Land and the Victoria Falls,' from the Journal of the late Frank Oates; 'Portugal, Old and New,' by Oswald Crawfurd; 'Bulgaria and the Bulgarians,' by the Marquis of Bath; 'Historical Geography of Europe,' by Edward A. Freeman; 'A Cavalier's Note-Book—William Blundell, of Crosby, Lancashire'; 'Introduction to English History,' by S. R. Gardiner and J. B. Mullinger; 'Life of Lord Beaconsfield,' by Georg Brandes; 'Life and Correspondence of Richard Cobden,' by John Morley; 'John Keats,' a study, by F. M. Owen; 'Victorian Generals,' by C. R. Low; 'Life of Lt. Gen. Sir James Outram,' by Maj. Gen. Goldsmid; 'Origin of the Zulu War,' by Miss Colenso and Lt. Col. Durnford; 'Our Future Highway,' by Commander Cameron; 'Life and Philosophy of Spinoza,' by Frederick Pollock; 'Six Lectures on the History and Prominent Features of German Thought from 1750 to 1850,' by Karl Hillebrand; 'Memoir of Francis Deák'; 'Memoirs of the Duke of Saldanha'; Locke's 'Thoughts on Education,' with introduction and notes by the Rev. R. H. Quick; 'Thalassius,' and other poems, by A. C. Swinburne; 'A Selection of English Poetry,' in four volumes, by T. H. Ward; 'Hodge and his Master,' by Richard Jefferies, author of 'The Gamekeeper at Home,' etc. ——To those who like to read about the inner life of the stage and its people no more entertaining book can be recommended than the 'Scènes de la vie de théâtre' of M. Abraham Dreyfus. The author is one of the most promising of the younger French dramatists, and this book is as bright and as clever as the best of French work. It gives at once a more amusing and a far juster view of the subject than M. Zola's 'Nana.'——A new monthly periodical, *L'Ordre Social*, comes to us from Zürich (Paris: Auguste Ghio). Its scope does not exclude the natural sciences, philosophy, statistics, criticism, or literature. Its aim is distinctly Socialistic. ——Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, has published, as vol. iii. of 'Contributions to the History of African Exploration,' the diary of Dr. Paul Pogge, who, in the service of the German Society for the Exploration of Equatorial Africa, survived the ill-starred expedition of 1874–75, and here reports his experiences, more especially from the easternmost Portuguese station, Kimbundo, to the domain of Muata Jamwo. His route lay somewhat north of Cameron's last journeys. Interesting lithographs and woodcuts, and a comparative map of travel in the southern part of the Congo valley, add to the value of this unpretentious volume.

—The Trustees of the Metropolitan Museum make the welcome announcement that they will open the new building in Central Park on Tuesday, March 30. One of the four picture-galleries will be filled with paintings already owned by the Museum; in the other three it is desired "to bring together not only choice specimens of foreign art, but a representative collection of the works of American artists." A loan collection of art objects, for which suitable cases have been provided, is also contemplated. Persons willing to loan either paintings or art objects are requested to communicate at once with the Secretary of the Special Committee on Loans, Mr. S. P. Avery, 86 Fifth Avenue, as delivery must take place not later than March 20.

—Congress is being showered with petitions to reduce the duties on printing-paper and types, and the newspapers of the West especially are joining in the cry with all the fervor of self-interest. We have no disposition to oppose the movement, but we should be glad to observe a unanimity among editors as to the necessity of a scientific revision of the tariff. It may be all very well to put quinine on the free-list one day, and types and paper six months later, and so on; but if these changes would have no serious effect upon the revenue, so would not a vast number of others, and there is no reason for a hand-to-mouth procedure when a methodical and rational enquiry is possible touching the whole round of absurdities and inconsistencies. But the duties on paper and type are a tax on intelligence. So is the duty on books, with its twenty-year limit, and the law is so obscure that no one can tell exactly what is meant by this limit. One of the best-known and most highly-respected of London dealers is at this moment a defendant in our courts on a charge of smuggling, the ground being that he put a new title-page as publisher to books published beyond the limit—"remainder" editions as they are known to the trade—without altering the original date. It remains to be seen whether this comes under the exemption allowed by the Secretary of the Treasury, March 5, 1872, for old books rebound and repaired. If it does not we shall expect our esteemed contemporaries to make their voices heard in favor of clarifying and civilizing the statute.

—Brazil has met with great difficulty in procuring European labor for its agriculture, which is its only industry. Besides other causes, the institution of slavery has driven away white laborers, so that the Government has been compelled to look elsewhere with a view to supplying the coffee and sugar-cane planters with hands. The present Premier, Sr. Sinimbú, who is himself a large planter, favors the importation of Chinese, and, in order to spread detailed information in regard to this people, commissioned the Brazilian Consul-General in this city, Sr. Salvador de Mendonça, to write a book on Chinese immigration to the United States. The report of Sr. Mendonça is now printed, under the title 'Trabalhadores Asiaticos,' in a 12mo of 280 pages (New York, 1879). After giving a well-compiled review of the history, geography, customs, government, etc., of China, the consul shows the past and present condition of the foreign relations of that country, principally with the United States, and then dwells on the experiment of Chinese labor in the Indian Archipelago, British Guiana, and California, and reaches the conclusion that, considering the actual needs of Brazil, the employment of Chinese in the Empire is essential as a stepping-stone between the present and undesirable African and the European labor. A current of Chinese immigration once directed to Brazil, he thinks, would have the immediate effect of lowering the price of the slaves, and would thus hasten complete emancipation. That it may have this effect we are willing to admit. The dan-

ger of such immigration is, however, in the virtual enslaving of the Chinese themselves, and it is doubtful whether public opinion in Brazil is enlightened enough to discourage any such attempts. At any rate, the elaborate report of Sr. Mendonça will no doubt prove a valuable contribution to the discussion of the question in Brazil.

—Byron's "Chawles, or A Fool and his Money," now having what promises to be a successful run at the Park Theatre, is neither a very good nor a very bad play, but it is decidedly entertaining throughout. The idea of a servant suddenly made a wealthy man is a legitimate comic subject, and if Mr. Byron does not make much of it, it is because contrast of character, and indeed character itself, are by no means his *forte*. He has a tolerable idea of dramatic construction and is very good at dialogue —though his fondness for plays upon words at times degenerates into a vice—but he labors under the defect of a fundamental inability to conceive a dramatic character. *Charles Liquorpound* is by far the nearest approach to it that he has made; a thoroughly good comic actor could easily create a character out of the part. Mr. Lewis, however, is not a comedian in the true sense of the word. He never will put into a part anything more than the author provided for it. His strength lies in a farcical appearance and manner. His deficiency of dramatic power is shown in a thousand little things, not much in themselves but quite sufficient to prove this. For instance, in the first act, in order to impress upon the audience his position in the *Ransome* household, he repeatedly touches an imaginary hat, a gesture of course impossible and absurd in a confidential valet. In the second and third acts, too, after he has come into the property, he is simply a vulgar *nouveau riche*, but there is none of that conflict of characters between the valet and the landed proprietor which Byron no doubt had in view, and which it is essential to bring out in order to make the part lifelike. *Mary Draper* (very well played by Miss Ada Gilman) is a conventional dramatic type, as are also *Percival Ransome* and *Mr. Pentland*. *Brabazon Vandaleur* is a peculiar creation of Mr. Byron's, which we can imagine made very entertaining by competent acting. Mr. W. J. Ferguson does it as well as he knows how, but, though he makes it absurd, does not make it real. It is almost a farce character as it is, so that it is hardly necessary to burlesque it. In addition to the puns which are scattered through the play, "Chawles," in virtue of his position, is gifted with a wonderful facility of confounding like-sounding but unfamiliar words with one another. His pathetic description of his feelings with regard to a "momentum" in the first act, and his joy over the "momentum" when it is at last discovered, are very amusing. His linguistic confusion, too, is not accidental. It is of just the kind to be expected from a person in his position. In other words, it is what a good deal of the play is not—in character.

—The month of March promises to be of unusual interest in musical matters. Besides the regular concerts of the season given by the Philharmonic, Oratorio, and Symphony Societies, we have a spring season of Italian opera, and Mr. Joseffy is advertised to play in seven orchestral and four chamber-music concerts. The first of these orchestral concerts took place on Monday night and was entirely devoted to Chopin. Chickering Hall was crowded, and the artist rendered the three numbers of his programme, the two Pianoforte Concertos in E minor and F minor and the Andante Spianato and Polonaise, with his usual mastery. Mr. Mapleson opened his short spring season of Italian Opera on Monday evening with every mark of public favor. "Lucia" was the opera selected for the opening night, and introduced Mlle. Marimon for the first time in the leading part. She failed, however, to make a strong impersonation. Her acting in the highly dramatic scenes of the first and second acts was lacking in warmth and spirit. She showed to greatest advantage in the third act, where her superb school and her beautiful voice came out with wonderful brilliancy. The remaining principal parts were in the hands of old favorites, Signori Campanini and Galassi, whose excellent acting and singing again excited general and hearty admiration.

—Mr. Carlberg's long-advertised symphony concert on Saturday evening was not a success. The performance itself was good enough, as it could hardly fail to be, for Mr. Carlberg, who is an experienced conductor, had selected his forces from among the best artists of the Philharmonic and Symphony Societies. But the programme was singularly devoid of interest, and had nothing to recommend it but the doubtful merit of novelty. Ulrich's "Symphonie Triomphale" is a shallow, uninteresting composition of commonplace themes, which lack even the merit of being cleverly put together. The instrumentation is at times brilliant and effective, but that is all. There is hardly an original idea in any of the four movements, and what the composer has not borrowed from Schubert, Schumann, and Mendelssohn is hardly worth listening to. Meyerbeer's music to "Struensee" is characteristic of the clever, experienced musician who wrote it. It is full of instrumental and sensational effects that strike the common ear, but make no impression on a cultivated mind. The twelve long numbers are particularly devoid of ideas, and, with their endless repetitions, wearisome in the extreme. The lady who played Mozart's Concerto in D is said to be an amateur; her performance gave abundant proof of this.

—The following criticisms, made by an aboriginal Hawaiian, of a recent article in the *Nation* ("The Decay of the Polynesian," in No. 734), are extracted from the private letter which contains them by permission of its recipient, a resident of this city. Their interest will not be lessened by the circumstance that their writer is the present King of the Hawaiian Islands, whose visit to the United States in 1875 will be freshly remembered. Kalakaua was born (Nov. 16, 1836) of pure Polynesian parents, and represents an older line of chiefs than the Kamehamehas, his predecessors. He was educated in Honolulu; in February, 1874, he was elected the sovereign of Hawaii—not the least interesting, though perhaps the smallest, of the many kingdoms enumerated in the *Almanach de Gotha*. His amiable personal qualities have made Kalakaua a very popular king. Of the quality of his thought the reader will judge by the following extracts; while they will appeal to his intellectual curiosity by affording the rare opportunity of a clear glimpse into a foreign and completely non-Aryan mind—rare, whether by reason of an insufficient knowledge, on either part, of the alien language, or, when that barrier does not exist, as in the case of some highly cultivated Chinaman or Hindoo, then by reason of a politic reserve in the comparison of opinions. We should say that in transcribing this interesting letter we have made but the slightest verbal changes, the Hawaiian "king's English" being, except for the few *nuances* of expression which the reader will notice, nearly the same as our own:

"Honolulu, November 17, 1879.

"The only comment I have to make upon the article in the *Nation*, which the writer was kind enough to send me, regarding the decrease of the Hawaiian race, is the continual flinging of writers at the oppression of the chiefs upon the people as being one of the chief causes of the depopulation. I allude to Dibble, Ellis, Bingham; and it has been taken up by the *Nation*. The writer is silent as to how the oppression was done. Our people were more healthy and prolific under their chiefs than under the present condition of things. If you examine into the system of labor that the people had to undergo under their chiefs you will find that their labor was comparatively light. Four days in the month at the change of every moon is only what the chief was entitled to impose upon the people, leaving twenty-six out of thirty days in each month. That was again divided—twelve days for the people and fourteen days for the gods, or prayer-days. The oppression of the people, then, really came from the side of religion. It was out of these fourteen days of work at day and prayer at night that the priests succeeded to build their *heiaus* and temples. In every land and clime where religion has a deep hold on the masses you will find the preponderance of oppression has come from the side of priestcraft. All our human sacrifices and taboos and oppressions can be traced to no other source. The chiefs were kind to the people; they instituted a *puuhonua*, or place of refuge, where victims fleeing from the wrath of the priest could find an asylum, a haven of life. If one chief had a cause of complaint against a man he would fly to another chief's house for safety, but not to the priest's; there would be instant death.

"With all due charity and acknowledgment of the missionaries' great work, I must lay a charge against them. They taught their pupils from English books translated into the vernacular, and among the most important of the studies was anatomy. But chemistry and medicine, none. Why were these studies omitted? The Seminary turned out physicians for the soul, but, alas! none for the body. With every missionary church there ought to have been connected, besides the dispensaries at their disposal, a small convenient hospital or nursery. But none! The one great object of the work of the instructors of our pupils was to save their souls from perdition; they left the human clay to rot. The error, if you may call it so, seems to put a blot upon the whole good that has been done by the missionaries. They have done good in certain things, no one can deny, but 'they have left undone those things which they ought to have done.' The real cause of the decrease of our race, when coming in contact and assimilating with a foreign element, is *neglect*. We have learned now, at the cost of dear experience, if not too late, our folly. The great drama of nations will soon repeat its history in our case if we allow the chance of recuperation to pass by. I do not despair. I feel confident that with the general prosperity of the islands since the treaty of reciprocity came into effect; by the establishment of hospitals, nurseries, schools in medicine, arts, and science; and by the amalgamation of races, Hawaii will emerge from its decadence to a brighter future.

"You wrote that it seemed to you that we should 'soon be overrun with the Chinese,' and that 'the [reciprocity] treaty is a money-making business, but a sledge-hammer driving down the nails into the coffin of the Hawaiian race.' To this, my dear friend, I demur. The Chinese will come into the country so long as it is a place where he finds contented-

ness and happiness, and as long as there are high wages, like all races who fly from the persecution of one country to a more congenial one. I look at the matter in its broad sense, and not at one particular class and race of men. I would there were twenty millions more of them. I am not afraid of the Chinese. They are a peaceable race and easily governed. They are more controllable than the Irish element in your country, which has no other political ambition than to 'go against the Government.'

"At present the influx of the Chinese has about sunk to its level. Prices of labor are now lower than when the treaty came into operation. The richness of China under the worst of administrations is enough to convince the most sceptical that the Chinese, under our free and liberal institutions, will be a prosperous people, a good element to introduce in a country where no other labor can be procured. If treated well, they will be good citizens. In time, with this industrious element in our country, we shall be producers in various ways where now (excepting sugar and rice) we are consumers. With Chinese ingenuity, industry, and cheap labor, we shall be able to compete in trade with the rest of nations in the struggle of national existence.

"Whether we exist or sink in oblivion, our lot is one with all that have lived and died. Every race has its goal, and every species of man has its course to run, whether by amalgamation or actual extinction.

"Me ke aloha nui, KALAKAUA."

—An original and amusing contribution to the copyright discussion has been made by Mr. Eduard Quaas in a book-trade-journal article, which we find reprinted in the *Literarische Correspondenz*, the organ of the German authors' union. Much has been said, of late years, about the unfortunate state of the German literary man, as compared with his brothers of France and England, and three causes have been assigned for it: namely, the enormous number of translations of novels, travels, histories, etc.; the extensive reading of English books; and the popularity of works which are beneath criticism, and hence unknown. These evils are not ignored by Mr. Quaas, but they seem to him of little importance compared with the harm done by circulating libraries. The circulation of a book in one of these institutions is, he says, in principle, the same thing as its dramatization upon the stage; that is, a large number of persons have the benefit of the author's conception, without any profit accruing therefrom to him. By statute, however, the theatre-manager is obliged to make a bargain with his author, while the latter has no protection against the owner of a library. Every library copy of a book by a popular author represents, say, fifty readers, and of these it is presumable that at least ten would buy the book if it were otherwise inaccessible. This assumption is substantiated by the statistics of the book-trade in France, where there are very few circulating libraries, and these used only by the poor. Mr. Quaas therefore proposes an addition to the copyright law, by which the announcement of All Rights Reserved would make a library liable to an action for damages. Under "circulating" libraries should be understood only those in which compensation is received for the loan of books. Under the new system these libraries would still exist, and would still do the literary class an important service, for until an author had acquired a reputation he would wish to further it by means of them.

—Two new books just published abroad, for the purpose of throwing light on Hamlet, will be found interesting by Shakspere students. One, by Dr. Zinzow, of Halle, entitled 'Die Hamlethsage aus und mit verwandten Sagen erläutert,' is an exhaustive work, in which the Danish Hamlet tradition is compared with similar Norse, Greek, and Roman myths. The struggle between Hamlet's father, Horvendill, and Holler, Dr. Zinzow compares with the myth about Thor's conflict with the giant Hrungnir in the Teutonic mythology, and this is again interpreted as the symbolic expression of the struggle going on in nature between summer and winter. In other words, he makes Hamlet one of the numerous family of spring myths The other work on the same subject is published in French, in Paris, with the title 'Hamlet le Danois.' The author, Alexander Buchner, tries to show that Shakspere's "Hamlet" was based on an earlier English work, written by a learned scholar named Kyd, but now lost. He asserts that Shakspere cannot have known the original myth, but only this English version of it, and tries to prove his point by the Danish chronicle of Saxo Grammaticus and other works. It is owing to this fact that the hero has got the Janus head by which we know him. The one face bears the impress of its first author Kyd, the second of the creative genius of Shakspere. Buchner describes the one as the face of the viking, the other as that of the *cunctator*. Herein, he says, must be sought the interpretation of Hamlet's ambiguous character.

—It is well known that the primitive liberties of the early Germans maintained themselves longest in the two extremes of the country—in the mountains of the South (Switzerland), and the levels along the North Sea (Friesland). Much study has been given to the history of the Swiss institutions; but the Frisians, having never grown into an independent nation, have received little attention. Dr. Okko Leding has recently published at Emden a thin pamphlet: 'Die Freiheit der Friesen im Mittelalter und ihr Bund mit den Versammlungen beim Upstallsbom.' Very exaggerated notions, he says, have existed in regard to the Frisian liberties, and the extent and power of the confederacy; so obscure has its memory become that even the situation of the capital, Upstallsbom, is a matter of controversy. Dr. Leding has carefully examined and sifted the evidence, and laid before us the results of his enquiry. It was not an elaborate or powerful organization, and as a federal union presents few instructive points. What interests one especially is that the Frisians completely escaped, by their distance and the troubles of the time, the feudal institutions. They started like the rest of Germany with the condition of things which became feudalism; but when their lords divested themselves of their earlier character as magistrates they were too far off to convert these subjects into vassals, as they did in the rest of their territories. The Frisians were, therefore, left to themselves, and formed a loose confederacy for protection against the Normans and the maintenance of internal order. Their society was now an almost complete democracy until the inequalities of property developed in the fourteenth century an hereditary magistracy, which was very near forming a basis for a new feudalism. The institutions of local self-government of these free peasants are not touched upon by Dr. Leding.

SEWALL'S DIARY.—II.*

THOUGH, as a rule, the divines who pass before us through the pages of these volumes, constituting, as they did, the theocracy of colonial Massachusetts, leave in their peculiar style little to be desired, this is not always the case. It would, indeed, appear that even scandals about the relations between eminent clergymen and their female parishioners are not peculiar to our own days. For instance, in one of the rare pamphlets printed during the time covered by that portion of the diary included in the present volume, and the republication of which as part of it adds greatly to its historical value, we find (p. 81*) the following amusing anecdote of the famous Cotton Mather, illustrating his pastoral and filial methods:

"A Gentlewooman of *Gayety*, near *Boston*, was frequently visited by the Reverend Mr C. M. [Cotton Mather] which giving offence to some of his Audience, he promised to avoid her Conversation. But *Good* intentions being frustrated by *Vicious* Inclinations, he becomes again her humble Servant; this *Reciprocal* promise being first made, that NEITHER OF THEM SHOULD CONFESS THEIR SEEING EACH OTHER: However it becoming again publick, his Father accused him of it, who after two or three HEMS to recover himself, (like Col. *Partridge* at the Council-Board) gave this *Aequivocal* Answer, INDEED, FATHER, IF I SHOULD SAY I DID SEE HER, I SHOULD TELL A GREAT LYE."

As an offset to the foregoing the following genuine little scrap of nature, in the record of a private meeting, shows that the Judge himself was not insensible to the delights of congenial female society. There is in it the germ of much Shandean philosophy:

"Midweek, March, 10, 170¾. The privat Meeting was at Mr Cole's, where Mrs Noyes was. I read a sermon of Mr Willard's. I went away a little before her but she overtook me near the New Meeting house; I saw the Glimpse of her Light and call'd to her; spake a few words and parted; feeling in myself a peculiar displeasure that our way lay no further together."

By far the most entertaining anecdote of the clergy, however, contained in this volume relates to Judge Sewall's own pastor, the Rev. Mr. Pemberton. For some reason he seems, in the year 1710, to have taken serious offence at a public action of the Judge's, and he evinced his feelings in a way not to be mistaken. At first he confined himself to private disputation, in which he addressed him "sharply and upbraidingly" but "with extraordinary Vehemency (capering with his feet)," saying among other things that a certain Captain Martin, an officer of the Royal Navy then in Boston, had "call'd him Rascal in the Street, and said had it not been for his coat, he would have can'd him," and that the Judge took no notice of it. He seems in his passion even to have intimated grave doubts of Sewall's judicial integrity. This was bad enough, but the very next Sunday he passed all bounds, for he gave forth the following hymn from the pulpit, the Judge being in the congregation:

"Speak, O ye Judges of the Earth
if just your sentence be:
Or must not innocence appeal
to Heav'n from your decree?

* 'Diary of Samuel Sewall. 1674–1729. Vol. ii. 1699–1700–1714.' Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Vol. vi. Fifth Series. [See *Nation*, Nos. 696, 697, 765.]

"Your wicked Hearts and Judgments are
alike by Malice sway'd;
Your griping Hands, by weighty Bribes,
to Violence betrayed."

Whereupon Judge Sewall contents himself with the following meek and truly Christian entry in his diary, highly creditable to him as showing at once how deeply wounded and yet how self-contained he was:

"I think if I had been in his place and had been kindly and tenderly affectioned, I should not have done it at this time. Another Psalm might have suited his Subject as well as the 5th verse of this. Tis certain, one may make Libels of David's Psalms; and if a person be abused, there is no Remedy: I desire to leave it to God who can and will Judge Righteously."

Turning now to the subject of funerals, it is astonishing to see what a fascination there was to the early Puritanic mind in the close contemplation of death. Judge Sewall seemed to gloat over his family tomb. In this volume he notes down how he enlarged the number of steps leading into it, and at the same time "dug a hole in the North East Corner and there buried the scattering bones." This is the tomb of which in the first volume of the diary (p. 443) he gives the following loving description on the occasion of his placing his little two-year-old daughter Sarah in it:

"[6th day, Decr 25, 1696.] Note. Twas [the tomb] wholly dry, and I went at noon to see in what order things were set; and there I was entertain'd with a view of, and converse with, the Coffins of my dear Father Hull, Mother Hull, Cousin Quinsey, and my Six Children: for the little posthumous was now took up and set in upon that that stands on John's: so are three, one upon another twice, on the bench at the end. My Mother ly's on a lower bench, at the end, with head to her Husband's head: and I order'd little Sarah to be set on her Grandmother's feet. 'Twas an awful yet pleasing Treat; Having said, The Lord knows who shall be brought hither next, I came away."

One of the six of the Judge's children to whom he refers as being deposited in this dreary vault was an infant son, Stephen, buried July 27, 1687. It was on the occasion of the funeral of this child that he says: "Sam [his son, nine years old] and his sister cryed much coming home and at home, so that could hardly quiet them. It seems they look'd into Tomb, and Sam said he saw a great Coffin there, his Grandfather's."

Indeed, the youthful Samuel seems to have had a great deal too much of this sort of thing, and about a year later we get this glimpse of him under a cheerful Puritanic exhortation:

"Sabbath, Jan. 12. Richard Denner, a flourishing youth of 9 years old, dies of the Small Pocks. I tell Sam. of it and what need he had to prepare for Death, and therefore to endeavour really to pray when he said over the Lord's Prayer: He seem'd not much to mind, eating an Aple; but when he came to say, Our father, he burst out into a bitter Cry, and when I askt what was the matter and he could speak, he burst out into a bitter Cry and said he was afraid he should die. I pray'd with him, and read Scriptures comforting against death, as, O death where is thy sting, &c."

The incidents which occurred at some of the frequent entombments here recorded are to the modern mind simply shocking. For instance, a Major Richards was buried in April, 1694, and Sewall was, as usual, one of the bearers. In describing what took place he says:

"In the Tomb were fain to nail a Board across the Coffins and then a Board standing right up from that, bearing against the top of the Tomb, to prevent their floating up and down; sawing and fitting this board made some inconvenient Tarriance."

As to the number of funerals Judge Sewall attended, they defy computation. Rarely a week passed without one, and sometimes he went to two in the same day. It was the commonly-received token of respect, whether to the deceased or to surviving relatives. Rings, scarfs, and mourning gloves were distributed to the guests of honor on these occasions, and the diary is filled with long lists of the bearers. Here is a description of a winter funeral of a member of the Quincy family:

"Thorsday, Xr. 5th. 1700. Sam. and I ride to the Funeral of Aunt Eli. Quinsey. Because of the Porrige of snow, Bearers rid to the Grave, alighting a little before they came there. Mourners, Cous. Edward and his Sister rid first, then Mrs Aña Quinsey, widow, behind Mr Allen; and cous. Ruth Hunt behind her Husband; then Sam. and I. Bearers had Rings and Wash-Lether Gloves. I had Gloves and a Ring."

The Judge further records another incident in the history of the Quincy family which is dramatic enough. It is in the style of Hawthorne, who ought to have woven it into one of his tales. It happened, too, at the wedding of the parents of that John Quincy who died in 1767, just after the birth of a great-grandson, who was called after him, John Quincy Adams:

"Thorsday, Novemb. 9, 1682. Cous. Danl Quinsey Marries Mrs Anna Shepard Before John Hull, Esq. Saml Nowell, Esq. and many Persons present, almost Capt. Brattle's great Hall full. . . . A good space after, when had eaten Cake and drunk Wine and Beer plentifully, we were called into the Hall again to Sing. In Singing Time Mrs Brattle goes out being ill; Most of the compa goe away, thinking it a qualm or some Fit; But she grows worse, speaks not a word, and so dyes away in her chair, I holding her feet (for she had slipt down). At length out of the Kitching we carry the chair and Her in it, into the Wedding Hall; and after a while lay the Corps of the dead Aunt in the Bride-Bed: So that now the strangeness and horror of the thing filled the (just now) joyous House with Ejulation: The Bridegroom and Bride lye at Mr Airs, son in law to the deceased, going away like Persons put to flight in Battle."

Rapidly turning from deaths at bridals to other topics, the following entry would seem to indicate that the Judge, gentle-hearted as he was, had not been touched by that sentimentality as to punishments which is so marked a characteristic of more modern times. It was an eye for an eye then, and a tooth for a tooth; and the whipping-post for both sexes:

"Jr 10th [1707]. Midweek, sentenced a woman that whip'd a Man, to be whip'd; said a woman that had lost her Modesty, was like Salt that had lost its savor; good for nothing but to be cast to the Dunghill: 7 or 8 joined together, call'd the Man out of his Bed, guilefully praying him to shew them the way; then by help of a Negro youth, tore off his Cloathes and whip'd him with Rods; to chastise him for carrying it harshly to his wife."

Here, also, is a description of the wholesale execution of pirates, which took place not far from where the jail on Cambridge Street now stands in Boston, where was then the shore of Charles River:

"Juny, 30, 1704. . . . Many were the people that saw upon Broughton's Hill. But when I came to see how the River was cover'd with People, I was amazed: Some say there were 100 Boats. 150 Boats and Canoes, saith Cousin Moody of York. He told them. Mr. Cotton Mather came with Capt. Quelch and six others for Execution from the Prison to Scarlet's Wharf, and from thence in the Boat to the place of Execution about the midway between Hanson's point and Broughton's Warehouse. Mr Bridge was there also. When the scaffold was hoisted to a due height, the seven Malefactors went up; Mr Mather pray'd for them standing upon the Boat. Ropes were all fasten'd to the Gallows (save King, who was Repriev'd). When the Scaffold was let to sink, there was such a Screech of the Women that my wife heard it sitting in our Entry next the Orchard, and was much surprised at it; yet the wind was sou-west. Our house is a full mile from the place."

There are, however, altogether too many curious and interesting passages in these volumes to attempt to quote them. We have given but a few of the many we had marked, but these, perhaps, are as curious and illustrative of the times and the manners as any. To one class only of these have we still room to refer. Death many times entered the Judge's family circle, and the entries in which, in few and touching words, he notes the taking away of children and grandchildren are deeply touching. In December, 1685, he described how the "faint and moaning noise of my child forces me up to pray for it"; and two days later he adds that again he "went to Prayer: By that time had done, could hear little Breathing, and so about Sunrise, or little after, he fell asleep, I hope in Jesus, and that a Mansion was ready for him in the Father's House. Died in Nurse Hill's Lap." And then again, in 1706, he records how his grandson "poor little Sam. Hirst went through the Valley of the Shadow of Death through the opression of Flegm." Two years later, in December, 1708, he loses another grandson, and this cry of grief goes up through his diary: "And Alas! Alas! seventh-day Decr 18. News is brought that the poor child is Dead about an hour by sun *mane*. Alas! that I should fail seeing him alive! Now I went too late, save to weep with my children, and kiss, and mourn over my dear Grandson."

In closing we cannot refrain from quoting at length the entries relating to the courtship, marriage, and sad subsequent death of the Judge's daughter Mary. They contain a whole modern novel ready to the writer's hand, and are full of touches of genuine human nature. It is merely necessary to premise that young Mr. Gerrish, the lover, husband, and widower of the little episode, was the son of a country clergyman, and himself engaged in business in Boston as a bookseller and publisher. Apparently the idea that their daughter looked upon him with favorable eyes did not at first meet the approval of Judge and Madam Sewall:

"Jany 24th [170$\frac{3}{4}$] I propound to Joseph to pray with his Mother and me for his Sister Mary; he declines it and I pray, and was assisted with considerable Agony and Importunity with many Tears. The Lord hear and help.

"Jany 31. Mr Spensar calls here, and I enquire of him about Mr Gerrish of Wenham, what he should say; He answer'd not directly; but said his Cousin would come if he might have admittance. I told him I heard he went to Mr Coney's daughter. He said he knew nothing of

that: I desired him to enquire, and tell me. I understood he undertook it; but he came no more.

"Febr 4th. Nurse Smith buried. Coming from the Grave I ask'd Mr Pemberton whether S. Gerrish courted Mr Coney's daughter; he said No; not now. Mr Coney thought his daughter young.

"Febr 6. is a Comfortable day. Febr 7th I deliver a Letter to S. Gerrish to inclose and send to his father, which he promises to doe.

"Febr. 17. I receive Mr Gerrishes Letter just at night.

"Febr 18th. I leave word at Mr Gerrishes shop that I would speak with him after Mr Bromfield's Meeting was over. He came and I bid him welcom to my house as to what his father writt about. So late hardly fit then to see my daughter, apointed him to come on Tuesday, invited him to Supper; I observed he drunk to Mary in the third place.

"Febr. 23. When I came from the Meeting at Mr Stephens's I found him in the Chamber, Mr Hirst and wife here. It seems he ask'd to speak with Mary below; her Mother was afraid because the fire was newly made: and Mr Hirst brought him up. This I knew not of: He ask'd me below, whether it were best to frequent my House before his father came to Town: I said that were the best introduction: but he was welcome to come before, and bid him come on Friday night.

"Febr. 24. Mr Hirst tells me Mr Gerrish courted Mr Coney's daughter: I told him I knew it, and was uneasy. In the evening daughter Hirst came hether, I supose to tell that Mr Gerrish had courted Mr Coney's daughter: and if she [Mary] should have Mr Stoddard, she would mend her market.

"Friday, Febr. 25. Madam Winthrop, Oliver, and Mico visit my wife. In the evening S. Gerrish comes not; we expected him, Mary dress'd herself: it was a painfull disgracefull disapointment.

"Febr. 26. Satterday, Sam Gerrish goes to Wenham unknown to me, till Lords-day night Capt. Greenleaf told me of it. He was not seen by us till Wednesday March 2, David saw him.

"March 11th. S. Gerrish calls here.

"March 14th. The Revd Mr Joseph Gerrish comes to our house in the evening. Dines with us March 15th Tuesday. At night his Son comes, and Mary goes to him. Mr. Gerrish goes home on Wednesday. His son comes and is entertain'd then also.

"Friday-night. [March 18.] S. Gerrish comes. Tells Mary except Satterday and Lord's-day nights intends to wait on her every night: unless some extraordinary thing hapen.

"Midweek, Augt 24 [1709] In the evening Mr Pemberton marrys Mr Samuel Gerrish, and my daughter Mary: He begun with Prayer, and Mr Gerrish the Bridegroom's father concluded: Mr Mayhew was present.

"Novr. 10. 1710. Daughter Gerrish is brought to bed of a daughter about 6 m. My wife being with her, I sat up late and lay alone.

"Novr. 15. Came home, fair Wether, and not very Cold. Enquired of Mr. Gerrish as I came along concerning his wife: He said she was something disorder'd; but I aprehended no danger, and being just come off my journey, went not to see her that night.

"Novr. 16. Thanksgiving. My wife sent my daughter Gerrish part of our Diner, which as I understood she eat of pleasantly. But twas a Cold Day and she was remov'd off her Bed on to the Palat Bed in the morning. After the Evening Exercise my wife and I rode up in the Coach: My daughter ask'd me to pray with her, which I did; pray'd that God would give her the Spirit of Adoption to call Him Father. Then I went away with Mr. Hirst to his House, leaving my wife with my daughter Gerrish, till she call'd to go home. After our coming home, the northern Chimney of the New house fell a-fire and blazed out extreamly; which made a great Uproar, as is usual. An hour or two after midnight Mr. Gerrish call'd me up acquainting us of the extream illness of his wife; All the family were alarm'd, and gather'd into our Bed-Chamber. When I came there, to my great Surprise my Daughter could not speak to me. They had try'd to call up Mr. Wadsworth; but could not make the family hear. I sent for Mr. Mayhew, who came and pray'd very well with her. I put him [manuscript imperfect] again; Mr. Cutler the Physician said he [imperfect]. (Joseph pray'd at home with the family). [Near] four a clock after Midnight my dear child expired, being but Nineteen years, and twenty days old. When this was over, I advis'd them to take Mrs. Hubbard's Assistance; left Mr. Mayhew there and went home. When I entered my wife's Bed-Chamber, a dolefull Cry was lifted up."

Then four months later the entries proceed:

"April, 21 [1711] Plenty of Swallows. Note. Hannah Gerrish was taken very sick last night.

"April, 22. Lords Day, B. Gray calls me up at 1. at night: I find poor little Hannah Gerrish in an Agony, I went to Prayer; afterwards B. Gray read the 5th Rom. I found the chapter so full of Comfort that awhile after I read it over again. About 6. m. Mr Wadsworth came and pray'd with little Hañah. Mr Gerrish her father came home at ½ past Nine: put up a Note in the Afternoon, which Mr Pemberton read coming out in his Gown.

"April 23. I was call'd up between 2 and 3 at night, but my little Hañah Expired before I got thither. However, She had the Respect of one visit after death. She Expired about ½ hour after 2 at night. The Lord prepare me for my great Change.

"Third-day, April, 24. Hañah Gerrish is buried. Bearers, Gillam Phillips, and Benj. Gray: white Scarvs. Was put into the Tomb just before Sun-set, several of the Council, Dr Cotton Mather, Mr. Wadsworth, Colman there."

Then one year more passes:

"May 8th [1712] At night, Dr Increase Mather married Mr Saml Gerrish, and Mrs Sarah Coney; Dr Cotton Mather pray'd last. P S. 90. 13—— 2½ staves, I set Windsor Time. Had Gloves, Sack-Posset, and Cake. . . . The whole family was Invited.

"May, 13. 1712. My Wife visits the Bride and Bride-groom at Mr. Coney's; . . ."

BEESLY'S 'THE GRACCHI.'*

So many historians have undertaken to tell the story of the downfall of the Roman Republic that it would seem impossible now to give the subject either freshness or interest. This Mr. Beesly has, however, succeeded in doing, partly by the freshness of his treatment, partly by what we may call the novelty of his point of view. We do not know whether Mr. Beesly is related in any way to Prof. E. S. Beesly, whose 'Catiline, Clodius, and Tiberius' we reviewed some months ago (see the *Nation*, No. 687); but his point of view is very much the same. And if it appeared to be the exaggeration of a theorist to push democracy to the point of defending Catiline and Clodius, we cannot take exception to this tone in the earlier period. Here we can agree with the author in nearly all his positions. We detest Sulla—perhaps the most odious great man in ancient history—as heartily as he does; he does not think it necessary, like Mr. Froude, to extenuate the crimes of Marius and call him a great man; we will not quarrel with him in regard to his estimate of the Gracchi; it is only in upholding Saturninus that he startles one—"those who condemn him must condemn Cromwell too," he says (p. 108).

The political history of the fifty years here comprised is the best and most graphic with which we are acquainted. The characterization of the leading men of the period is remarkably keen and appreciative; for example, Scipio Æmilianus (p. 40):

"He was a reactionist, who, when the inevitable results of those liberal ideas which had been broached in his own circle stared him in the face, seized the first available means of stifling them. . . . Brave as a man, he was a pusillanimous statesman; and when confronted by the revolutionary spirit which he and his friends had helped to evoke, he determined at all costs to prop up the senatorial power. . . . It was well for his reputation that he died just then. Without Sulla's personal vices he might have played Sulla's part as a politician, and his atrocities in Spain as well as his remark on the death of Tiberius Gracchus—words breathing the very essence of a narrow swordsman's nature—show that from bloodshed, at all events, he would not have shrunk. It is hard to respect such a man in spite of all his good qualities. Fortune gave him the opportunity of playing a great part, and he shrank from it. When the crop sprang up which he had himself helped to sow, he blighted it. But because he was personally respectable, and because he held a middle course between contemporary parties, he has found favor with historians, who are too apt to forget that there is in politics, as in other things, a right course and a wrong, and that an attempt to walk along both at once proves a man to be a weak statesman, and does not prove him to be a great or good man."

When we call Mr. Beesly's point of view a novel one, we do not mean that his estimate of the men and their actions is new, so much as that it is founded upon a more uncompromising democratic sentiment—social rather than political—a more thorough sympathy with the humble classes, than that of any other author who has treated of this period. Whether we agree with him in this or not, it is at any rate an instructive point of view. For our own part, we do agree with him in the main, and yet what we said of Prof. Beesly's remarks upon the proletariat needs to be repeated here—that the Roman populace, being a pure proletariat, and not representing *industry* in any sense, are not entitled on their own account to any very hearty sympathy. Of course this was the fault of the system under which they had grown into what they were; but this does not alter the historical question—there they were, a very good-for-nothing lot, a hopeless problem for even the wisest statesmanship. The system of slavery, which was the cause of this ruin, is described by Mr. Beesly in terms of condemnation as strong as need be; but we do not think that even he has fully appreciated its deadly nature. When he compares it with American slavery, which he does often with great felicity, he cannot help considering it exclusively as a rural institution, as American slavery to all intents and purposes was. But for two reasons Roman slavery was far more fatal than American slavery ever could have been. In the first place, the American slaveholder was a country gentleman, residing upon his plantation, and identified, if in a crude and unskilful way, with the industrial interests of his country; Roman slavery was purely speculative—its aim was to extort wealth, at whatever cost of life and suffering, for the purposes of luxury and ostentation, and for the benefit of a non-resident owner. In the next place, American

* 'Epochs of Ancient History. The Gracchi Marius, and Sulla. By A. H. Beesly.' With maps. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo, pp. 217.)

slavery was associated with vigorous and persistent free labor in the North, so that it was always on the defensive ; in ancient Italy slavery had unrestricted sway, and it is as true that slave labor will inevitably drive out free labor as that bad money will drive good money out of circulation. Hence the irretrievable degradation of the Roman proletariat; it was not, as in modern society, the outgrowth of evil civic conditions merely, but was in good truth the product of rural society. The description, therefore, of the state of society which introduces the story of the Gracchi, good as it is, cannot be pronounced altogether satisfactory. It is not so much that it has anything positively incorrect as that it seems inadequate. It does not bring the society and the government vividly before the reader ; it rather talks about them than depicts them. Perhaps the thing itself is impossible ; perhaps this long-vanished society, so different from our own, and yet with so much in common, cannot be reproduced. At any rate this has not yet been done. But that Mr. Beesly's failure—so far as it is a failure—comes in part from a want of clear definition, rather than of natural powers, is shown by his classing together slave and serf labor (p. 22) as equally signs of decay. The two things are fundamentally different. The slave works at the command and for the profit of his owner ; the serf works in part for himself on land owned by another, but in which he has an inalienable interest. Slave labor is always destructive of social progress, except in the very beginnings of society ; serfdom is not inconsistent with a tolerably advanced state of society. The two things, in fact, are less alike than slavery is to the poorly-paid labor of factory operatives.

Mr. Beesly is best in the strictly historical parts of his work ; in questions of antiquities he is sometimes inaccurate. At the end of the book he gives, on a couple of pages, a list of terms and phrases, with their definitions, which he says are "only approximately precise," and which, indeed, are in some cases quite inaccurate. Thus, in the *imperium* the judicial power was quite as essential as the military. It does not convey a correct notion of the powers of the *legati* to say that they corresponded "to our generals of division." The *comitia centuriata* were not the "subdivisions" of the classes (these were the *centuriæ*) but the assembly of the people according to these subdivisions ; there were not six classes, but only five (as is assumed on page 136) ; and the centuries were not at this period 193 or 194, but—as may be gathered from the strangely-confused account on page 204—probably 373. On this page we read : "The first class consisted of one of each of these [centuries] from each tribe, so that, as there were thirty-five tribes, each class would consist of seventy centuries." How does that follow ? Moreover, we are never told what the classes were, nor, in this paragraph, how many there were. Several other matters of antiquities in this same chapter, "Sulla's Reactionary Measures"—Sulla's measures, by the way, were not all of them reactionary, but some of them very salutary—are at least open to doubt. Mr. Beesly generally follows Mr. Long, in preference to Mommsen or Lange, admiring extremely "his dogged determination never to swerve from facts to inference." If only this were possible, where facts are so very few and fragmentary as in this period ; or if only Mr Long himself had been consistent in this ! To take an illustration from the legislation of Sulla, B.C. 88 : Mr. Long says, vol. ii. p. 227 (and Mr. Beesly follows him), that Sulla's proposition was that "the votes should not be taken in the Comitia Tributa, but in the Centuriata." But Appian, the authority for this ('Civil Wars,' i. 59), says nothing about *Comitia*, but only that votes should be taken "not by tribes but by centuries"—an expression which may as easily mean (as Mommsen and Lange think) that he abolished the reformed method of voting in the centuriate comitia as that he abolished the tribal comitia.

RECENT WORKS ON CARDS.*

THE triple title of the interesting volume first named below corresponds to the three distinct divisions of which the book is made up. In the first Mr. Jones has gathered together seven essays on card-subjects, which he has contributed at different times to different publications ; in the second he has set down certain decisions on disputed points of whist-play —with the reasons therefor—made by the late Mr. Clay, the famous "J. C."; and in a final hundred pages he drops into anecdote and gives us incidents, always authentic and always neatly told, of his score or more of years' experience as a player of whist. To the card-expert who turns to this book for counsel and advice, perhaps Mr. Clay's decisions on nice points of law will be most interesting ; but to the general reader the final anecdotes and certain of the earlier essays afford greater entertainment. Some of the anecdotes are gems, and deserve to get at once into general circulation. "Cavendish" tells us that the sly old players who take advantage of every opportunity of peering into a neighbor's hand are sometimes humorously called "triple-dummy" players ; and he goes on to say that two triple-dummy players being once set against an unsuspecting youth and an "old soldier," had in a short time taken a full inspection of the youth's hand, when the old soldier rather astonished them by saying : "Partner, you had better show me your hand, as both the adversaries have seen it." And still better is the following : Mr. Clay told "Cavendish" that

"when he first played whist at a London club he was horrified to see an old gentleman deliberately looking over one of his adversaries' hands. Mr. Pacey, the player whose hand was overlooked, was, as it happened, an old friend of Clay's, and, the rubber being over, Clay took an immediate opportunity of advising him to hold up his hand when playing against P——, adding :

"'The last hand he saw every card you held.'

"'Oh ! no, he didn't,' replied Mr. Pacey, who was well aware of P——'s peculiarities, 'he only saw a few I put in the corner to puzzle him !'"

Mr. Jones informs us that Mr. Clay was the original of *Castlemaine* in Mr. George Lawrence's 'Sans Merci,' in which is made the well-known speech : "It has been computed that eleven thousand young Englishmen, once heirs to fair fortunes, are wandering about the Continent in a state of utter destitution because they would not lead trump with five and an honor in their hands." On another occasion a gentleman having made an absurdly bad play, asked Mr. Clay if it were not justifiable. To him the following crushing rejoinder, spoken very deliberately at the wall opposite, instead of to the querist : "At the game of whist, as played in England [pause], you are not called upon to win a trick [pause] unless you please."

The card essays which form the first third of the volume are of varying degrees of interest. The chapter about "The Origin and Development of Cards and Card-Games" contains much agreeable information about the growth in one country of games now universally popular, but the account of the origin of playing-cards is little more than a compilation from Dr. Wiltshire and other authorities. Mr. Jones points out that whist—to the etymology of which word he devotes an essay—is a purely English game, and he defends its claim for precedence over the oriental chess with a skill and a success which would satisfy even Mr. Abraham Heyward, to whose admirable essay on 'Whist and Whist-players' Cavendish more than once refers. We Americans have vainly, it seems, prided ourselves on the invention of poker and euchre. "The French settlers in America," says Mr. Jones (p. 68), "took *Triomphe* with them and transformed it into euchre." And from the account given (on p. 57) of *Primero*, of Roman or Florentine origin, it is obvious that poker can claim a noble Italian descent—perhaps the next best thing to being a native American. Other essays are on the "Morality of Card-Playing," on the "Duties on Playing-Cards," and on Molière's description of a game of piquet in the "Fâcheux," the last being an amplification of the note Mr. Jones contributed to Mr. Charles Heron Wall's translation of Molière's plays. In his final paragraph he tells us that since he began to write about games under the pen-name of "Cavendish" he has been bombarded with questions of all kinds about all sorts of games, and has answered in writing nearly ten thousand questions in the past sixteen years ; but it may be doubted if any query sent him could well be odder than the question propounded about Christmas, 1877, by a lady living in the country, a total stranger to him, who asked, "May tee-totallers join in a game of snap-dragon ?"

Col. Drayson's book is not a rival to Cavendish's 'Laws and Principles of Whist,' which of course still remains the standard authority, while this only aspires to be an elementary hand-book. It is frankly a volume for the inexperienced, giving first the laws of the game and then simply and directly showing what the elements of good play are. It is meant rather for the poor player conscious of his deficiency and desirous of improving than for the actual beginner. It has the merit, rare in all books about games, of telling the reader which of the many maxims it lays down are to be first learnt and applied—of showing the novice, in short, not only the varied things which the good player does, but also the way in which the beginner can best gradually acquire the same accomplishments.

* 'Card Essays, Clay's Decisions, and Card-table Talk. By "Cavendish," author of 'The Laws and Principles of Whist,' etc., etc.' London : Thos. de la Rue & Co. ; New York : Scribner & Welford. 1879.

'The Art of Practical Whist ; being a series of letters descriptive of every part of the game and the best method of becoming a skilful player. By Col. A. W. Drayson, R.A., F.R.A.S.' New York : George Routledge & Sons. 1879.

The epistolary form, which is nowhere overworked, has been adopted, apparently for the sake of using a simple and familiar style; and it is only here and there that the author's literary inexperience is evident. It would have been better if the notes upon the laws of short whist which Col. Drayson himself contributes were typographically uniform; those on pp. 4, 7, 8, 9, for example, are in italics, while others on pp. 5, 12, 20 are in the same type as the laws themselves, from which they should in some way be sharply distinguished. All of the author's annotations might perhaps have been in square brackets [thus]. This is the only blemish which we have remarked in the construction of the book; in general it is as clear as any novice could desire. It may be recommended with confidence to any one who wishes to avoid the *triste vieillesse* which Metternich—or was it Talleyrand?—predicted for all who did not learn whist in youth.

WHITNEY'S SANSKRIT GRAMMAR.*

VERY many persons who are not Sanskrit scholars will doubtless welcome the publication of a new Sanskrit grammar by an American. We may certainly take a patriotic pride in it as a fruit of American scholarship, and, moreover, the subject itself is one to which we owe so much that we should welcome any contribution to it. The study of Sanskrit by Europeans hardly antedates the present century, and yet from it has come an entirely new philosophy of human speech, and so in some degree a new psychology; for the relation of speech to thought is so close that our views of one cannot greatly change without changing our views of the other. From it has come also the beginning of a new philosophy of religion, besides many contributions to history and ethnology. Our satisfaction may well be increased upon finding that the new grammar is also the most complete and the best that has yet appeared. Few even of those who appreciate the advantages of having a good Sanskrit grammar know how difficult it must be to make one. Though the language has been studied by native grammarians much longer than Latin or Greek has been studied by anybody, yet the native view of grammar is entirely different from that with which we have become familiar by the long study of two dead languages. A Sanskrit grammar is not intended as a means of learning the language at all, but as a system of rigid and authoritative rules to guide those who already know it in the use of it. Hence the history of European Sanskrit grammar has been a gradual emancipation of the student from the fearful pedantry of rules upon rules and exceptions within exceptions, as also a working over of the endless material into compendious systems suited to our western ways of attacking a dead language. To write a new Sanskrit grammar one has not had as in most languages a frame or form ready to his hand, but the whole had to be recast on a model more and more nearly approaching our methods in Latin and Greek. Much of the native grammar is also artificial or conventional, and not supported by usage as it appears in any extant works. Even yet our grammars do not represent the usage of writers, as they do in Latin and Greek, and often it cannot be determined what rules are founded on usage and what are drawn from the fancies of pedants.

To recast the grammar in a form suitable for the western mind, and to substitute usage for traditional rule as the norm of speech, has been avowedly the aim of the author; and certainly these two ends have been attained in a far higher degree than in any other grammar which we know. No one of the earlier grammars has pretended to support its statements to any extent by citations, whereas by our author everything not known to be supported by extant literature is specially designated as "not quotable," so that we can see at once (so far as the investigation has yet gone) what is and what is not the usage of the language either in the earlier or later stages. This fact at once gives a different character to the work from that of any of its predecessors. Connected with this, but also proceeding from the author's habit of mind, is the entire freedom from pedantry noticeable in all his works, but especially in the case of this the most pedantic of subjects. Less striking but still in general a marked improvement on others, is the recasting of the matter into a scientific form according to western ideas. This has already been done in a considerable degree by both Max Müller and Monier Williams in English, and by several of the lesser German grammarians; but by no one of them is the structure of the verb put into such a learnable shape. The same is true of the subjects of derivation and composition, which are more important in a Sanskrit grammar than even those of inflexion, and far more than the same subjects in any other language of our stock. On the other hand, we cannot help thinking that in the treatment of inflexions the grouping and arrangement of Max Müller are more easily comprehended than those of our author. This is no doubt more than compensated for by a greater fulness and exactness of statement—as, for instance, in monosyllabic root-stems; nevertheless, it seems a pity to deprive the learner of any help in so difficult a subject.

On the subject of accent this grammar is immeasurably superior to any other. Very few contain anything at all about it, and the great grammar of Benfey, which is somewhat full on the subject, is of so difficult topography that it is impossible to find anything in it. A distinct advantage of Prof. Whitney's work is that it is written throughout in the spirit and from the point of view of historical grammar. The author has purposely excluded comparative matter because it could not be given with fulness; and, much as we may regret it, if space had to be considered this could be dispensed with more easily than any other part, because it can be found elsewhere, and the historical aspect of the whole treatment constantly leads one to make comparisons. The very great advances made in phonology within the last few years, as well as the author's own genius in that direction, have enabled him to put a soul into the terrible laws of Sandhi, or list of euphonic rules. This, the most discouraging feature of Sanskrit grammar, has been made by skilful and intelligent treatment hardly more troublesome than the same subject is in Greek. Another great improvement upon former grammars is in the syntax, which, as is well known, is not a title in Sanskrit grammar proper, and for the foreign learner is full of snags and quicksands, and all sorts of impediments to progress. Prof. Whitney devotes more attention to it than does any of his predecessors, and furnishes a pretty safe conduct through the difficulties, while at the same time much valuable material is here collected for comparative syntax as soon as anybody gets wise enough to handle that subject in a more thorough manner. We should, indeed, have preferred a separate chapter on syntax, instead of having it thrown in under each etymological head as is done here; still, one is constantly surprised to find how much is stowed away in the small spaces allotted to it under each head.

We miss the catalogue of verbs usually found. To be sure, this is a cork-and-bladder appliance; yet the language is so very difficult that the student needs all the help he can get. Greek without the list of anomalous verbs would be formidable enough; but in Sanskrit nearly all verbs are, in the usual sense, anomalous. It is a pity, too, that the book had to be printed, and apparently written, in Germany. Somehow the style seems to differ from the usually clear and simple style of the author, as if the clumsy German tongue had reacted upon his mental processes and made his utterance in many places involved and almost obscure.

*'A Sanskrit Grammar, including both the classical language and the older dialects of Veda and Brahmana. By William Dwight Whitney, Professor, etc.' Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1879.

Brazil. The Amazons and the Coast. By Herbert H. Smith. Illustrated. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1879. 8vo, pp. 644.)—This book is composed of a series of loosely-connected articles on Brazil, in the course of which a majority of the topics of general interest are touched upon. Readers of *Scribner's Monthly* are already somewhat familiar with several chapters, but, according to the preface, they have been reproduced "with so many changes and additions as to give them an entirely new character." After an elaborate study of the country, its institutions, and its people, the author attempts to give a fair idea of the empire as it is and of its possibilities in the future, personal adventures being regarded as of secondary importance. In the descriptive portions Mr. Smith appears to the best advantage. Whether treating of the government, society, industrial pursuits, natural history, the myths of the Indians, or whatever else, evidences of great caution in regard to the facts are everywhere apparent. The conclusions, however, are not always those of a man who has gone to the bottom of his subject. The work contains a great deal of well-digested information, yet there is comparatively little that has not been anticipated by Agassiz, Kidder and Fletcher, Bates, and others who have gone over the same ground. The historical references are carefully made. As a result of investigating the story of the Amazons, from whom the river derived its name, we have the safe conclusion that it is a myth. A chapter devoted to the "[North] American Farmers on the Amazons" does not give so cheerful a view of their present situation as might be justified by a comparison with pioneer life in the United States.

The zoölogical gleanings may in the main be characterized as superficial. Among them, p. 206, there is a picture of spider monkeys, representing a pair hanging from a limb to rob birds' nests which were out of their reach below. One holds to the limb with tail and left hand, and

with his right hand clasps the left of his comrade, who is in this manner let down to the nests. Did any one ever see such a performance? The theory advanced on p. 93 to account for the treeless condition of the meadow-lands northward from the mouth of the Xingú and on the island of Marajó, in the immediate neighborhood of heavy timber, will not admit of extended application. These meadows are flooded for a portion of the year, but become very dry during the season of low water. The author says "they are alternately soaked and baked; hence the forest trees will not grow on them, but they flourish well on the banks, where their roots are only covered during three or four weeks of each year." Flooded forests are not uncommon, and in California, with its seasons of wet and dry, there are magnificent forest-growths. There is a striking similarity between the conditions in the meadows of the Amazons and in the prairie regions of the Mississippi Valley. Level, grass-covered tracts, with soil so fine as to be almost impalpable, exist by the side of groves and forests on soil more coarse and broken. When the river overflows, the coarse detritus is deposited near the bed, and a bank is built up which is covered with trees; further out, in the still waters covering the meadow, the fine sediment settles to the bottom and on this the grasses flourish. The case is a good one in support of Professor Whitney's theory of the origin of the prairies—namely, that the character of the soil prevents the growth of timber; it is too fine. We are told on p. 629 that "a river valley can only be scooped out when the land is above the surface of the sea; but as this valley sinks the sea finds an entrance, and a long bay is the result," etc.; and that the Amazons has no true delta because "it has hardly had time yet to fill in the estuary bay. Moreover, the sea-bottom beyond the mouth must have sunk with the river valley, and the river will require a vast period to build it up to the level of the surface." According to Agassiz the reason why there is no delta is that "the sea is eating away the land much faster than the river can build it up." He also proved the island of Marajó a portion of the mainland, and suggested that if the eating process should continue for countless ages there is a possibility of the valley being cut away as far as the Madeira.

Mr. Smith is enthusiastic in his descriptions of the beautiful and picturesque. His book is much above the average of popular works on similar subjects; few are so carefully written.

The Refutation of Darwinism, and the Converse Theory of Development, based exclusively on Darwin's Facts, etc. By T. Warren O'Neill, member of the Philadelphia Bar. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 12mo, pp. 454. 1880.)—This is a thoroughgoing book. "The design is to show that the very same facts which Darwin confesses his inability to explain, yet upon which he relies to sustain his theory, may be explained in a way which signally disproves the theory that man and other species of animal, and species of plant, were evolved from lower types." "All of Darwin's facts are taken for granted, as are all of his scientific factors. The same facts, however, are differently apportioned, with but a slight variation from Darwin's mode of distribution of them." This new reading of the facts which Mr. Darwin has laboriously accumulated has resulted in two discoveries: one of these reverses the common estimate of Mr. Darwin's character, the other reverses his theory.

The first discovery is that Mr. Darwin cannot be the ingenuous and candid person he has had the credit of being. He "confesses, how frankly we do not know" (p. 43). A few pages farther on we are told of something which "might suggest to the reader that Darwin, in being so complacently content with his ignorance of any cause for variation, was governed by the fear that, if he evinced any great solicitude to find a cause, the cause might be only too ready in forthcoming, to the signal discomfiture both of himself and his theory." On p. 66 the author "cannot refrain from delicately intimating that either a dim or a well-defined consciousness" that something which Darwin well knew "would sound the knell of Darwinism, alone prevented him from disclosing" the fatal fact. Darwin "has settled in his own mind that all the improvements which arise are due to reversion," though he says the contrary, having, "to all seeming, thought it discreet" to say, in short, the opposite of what he believed; and when Mr. Darwin refuses "to explain the variations by means of reversion" Mr. O'Neill says he does it with a coolness "most unique," which is certainly true if he all the while believed the opposite. In similar taste Mr. O'Neill gets up an imaginary argumentation (pp. 75–78), at the end of which "Mr. Darwin . . . departs to assure his friend Tyndall that his theory about 'giving the religious sentiments of mankind reasonable satisfaction' is altogether utopian."

The author is a member of the Philadelphia bar—we judge one of the younger, from these and other specimens, and from the exceeding cocksureness of the whole treatise. We can understand the old counsel's advice: "A bad case; abuse the plaintiff's attorney"; but we do not understand why a lawyer bringing a civil (?) action, with perfect assurance of a verdict, should think it needful to abuse the defendant personally. Moreover, the whole *raison d'être* of the book is in the other discovery, namely, that what is called variation is reversion, that in all variation there is no acquisition of something new but a recovery of characters which the species once possessed and had lost by degradation. Now, a less modest man than our author would have taken credit to himself for this discovery, the illustrations of which fill the volume; but instead he ingenuously awards to Mr. Darwin the credit of having found it out, and the blame of having tried to conceal it for a sinister purpose.

We like to think fairly well of our fellow-creatures, both for sense and honesty; so, as it is evident that Mr. Darwin had pondered this matter of reversion, and explained a good many things by it, we would suggest a possible reason (over and above the assigned one that it would have spoiled his theory) why he did not adopt the doctrine that "the variations or improvements in each species are limited in number and kind to the number and kind of the characters previously lost by such species under nature"; and that, "although the type is susceptible of modification, in countless ways," this is "only at the cost of evil results which soon lead to the sterility, lessened constitutional vigor, and consequent extinction of the line of individuals which have so departed from the true moulds of their respective species." For Mr. O'Neill's hypothesis contemplates throughout organic nature either a degradation which exceeds the reversion, and so will end in the evils aforesaid, or else a reversion which will in time mainly repair all the degradation, and so make the future a complete reproduction of the past. Mr. Darwin, not being a pessimistic philosopher, but quite the contrary, would reject the first alternative—namely, that the organic world is tending from good to bad; also the second, on the ground that, even if made out, all the questions he is considering now would be merely transferred to an anterior state of things. For Mr. Darwin to ascribe all change to reversion would be laying himself open to the same criticism which a Kentucky hunter passed upon a preacher who had argued round in a circle—viz., that he came out of the same hole he went into.

Reversing the ordinary view, our author insists that the prototype of each species was an organism of a higher state of development than the type of such species as now found under nature. Adverse conditions entailed the suppression of the characters, and the mere restoration of the favorable conditions secures their redevelopment. With him all reduction from the typical number of parts and suppression of function counts as a degradation of the animal or plant, and their recovery as an improvement, which favorable conditions may secure. In the past—however it may be in the future—circumstances have largely wrought degeneration, and every abortive organ is a specimen of it. Still Nature endeavors to recuperate and restore. Under this view the reproduction occasionally met with of one of the suppressed toes of a horse into an accessory hoof would be an advantage rather than a blemish, and, of course, in the good time coming when all abortive organs are to be restored, horses should have at least their three toes again, and—as has more than once happened—lactation may again come home to men's business and bosoms.

Cincinnati's Beginnings. By Francis W. Miller. (Cincinnati: Peter G. Thomson. 1880. Pp. 235.)—This book is rather a history of the "Miami Purchase" than of Cincinnati. Of the nine chapters of the body of the work only the two last may be said to be devoted to "Cincinnati's Beginnings." The first seven chapters give a pretty full and connected account of the origin and progress of the first attempt to plant settlements of white people in what was then known as the "Miami country." The originators of the scheme (a vast land speculation) were John Cleves Symmes, of New Jersey, and Benjamin Stites, of Redstone, in western Pennsylvania. In 1787 Symmes (having associated with himself Jonathan Dayton, also of New Jersey, and perhaps others) made application to the Government, in his own name, for the purchase of the entire territory lying between the Little Miami and the Great Miami Rivers, supposed by him to contain about two million acres of land. A contract was finally closed, October 15, 1788, for one million acres. The quantity of land between the two Miami Rivers proved to be much less than was at first supposed, and Symmes never paid and received patents for more than about six hundred thousand acres. Symmes removed at once (1788) with a number of followers to his purchase, settling at the point to which he gave the name of North Bend, near the

mouth of the Great Miami, where he undertook the management of the speculation for himself and his associates. Here he laid out the streets and squares of a great city, in which he foresaw the coming metropolis of the West. The book gives a history of his struggles and embarrassments in the management of the large interests which he had charge of. But the object of his great hope failed entirely.

The tract of land on which Cincinnati was originally laid out had been previously sold by Symmes to three other speculators—Matthias Denman, of New Jersey, and Robert Patterson and John Filson, of Lexington, Ky. In consequence of the death of Filson, Israel Ludlow, a surveyor, became a partner with the other two before any settlement on the tract had been effected. Ludlow and Patterson, with a company of some fifteen others, who had been got together at Limestone (now Maysville), reached the ground (opposite the mouth of Licking River) about Christmas, 1788, and the settlement was commenced. Log-cabins were built on lots given to actual settlers, and the streets and squares of a town were surveyed and marked under the direction of Ludlow, who was the only one of the proprietors who determined to stay and cast his lot with the new adventure. In the next year the Government built a fort here (Fort Washington) and garrisoned it with troops for the protection of the new settlements. With this advantage, added to the natural superiority of the location over that of any other on the entire river-front of the purchase, Cincinnati rapidly outstripped North Bend in growth and importance. Its only other competitor was Columbia, at the mouth of the Little Miami, a town begun about two months before the settlement at Cincinnati. The proprietor of Columbia was Benjamin Stites, who had contracted with the Symmes associates for about a thousand acres and had planted at that point a colony considerably larger than that led by Patterson and Ludlow. A high flood in the Ohio River in December of the same year demonstrated that the site chosen was too low for a town.

This book furnishes little that is new in the way of history in relation to the "beginnings of Cincinnati." The leading facts given by Mr. Miller have long ago appeared in print in one form or another, but it is well to have them gathered up. The work of the author, embodying his materials in a connected narrative, is not, however, without its blemishes. His sentences are remarkable for their great length and involved construction, and his style is frequently disfigured by the faults of an ambitious diction. The larger part of the book, and perhaps the most valuable as *material* for history, is an appendix, filling 121 pages of the 235 which constitute the entire work. This is made up of twenty-eight letters and extracts of letters, most of them from Symmes to his associate, Dayton, in New Jersey. A few are from Dayton to Symmes. They all relate to the complicated affairs of the new purchase and its management, and now for the first time appear in print. The printing, paper, and binding are of the very best, and are a credit to Cincinnati book-making.

Les Peuplades de la Sénégambie. Histoire, Ethnographie, Mœurs et Coutumes, Légendes, etc. Par L.-J.-B. Bérenger-Féraud, Médecin-en-chef de la Marine, etc. (Paris : Ernest Leroux.)—The tradition that the Senegambian coast was first discovered by the Normans of Dieppe in 1364, has sufficient probability to justify the French in regarding their portion as the oldest of their foreign possessions. The occupation has been far from continuous, and, in fact, the colonies on the Senegal were contemporaneous with Plymouth Colony in Massachusetts Bay. Much has been written about the littoral settlements, which have been involved in all the European wars of the past three centuries, and about the natives of the territory lying between the Senegal and the Rio Nuñez ; but the interior of this vast country is still very imperfectly known, and Dr. Bérenger-Féraud found nothing systematic or tolerably complete concerning the aborigines in more or less constant and immediate contact with the *Gouvernement*, and no study of them with a view to the future expansion of the French dominion. This last is the aim of his book, which, with characteristic orderliness, takes up the several tribes and treats them after one plan, such as is indicated in the sub-title. For the most part he describes them from personal observation, but to some extent relies upon the descriptions of other travellers. His narrative confirms the reputation which the negroes of the west coast enjoy of being among the most interesting and promising of the multitudinous peoples of Africa. He is even at pains to compare them with our European ancestors before the invasion of Cæsar, and indeed long after, and recommends the study of them as an aid to the historical imagination.

There pass in review before us first the Ouolofs or Yolofs, who inhabit the alluvial plains of lower Senegambia, from St. Louis of Senegal to Goree, and are most closely identified with the French colonists, having proved brave and docile soldiers, loyal, stoical under privations, good pupils, skilful artisans, exact accountants, shrewd traders—the counterpart of the Western European of the ninth century. These are the Yolofs of the town, who, whether Catholic or Mussulman (marabouts), wear the gris-gris or amulets, consisting generally of a written verse of the Koran—often the only costume of children. The rustic Yolofs are, in spite of their religion, great drunkards, improvident as to food and clothing, polygamists with easy divorce. They have one excellent custom, that over a dead body before burial any one can speak his mind aloud about the deceased, whether for praise or blame. Their *damel* or chief is chosen by four headmen of villages, who must be paid roundly for the service—a simple mode of election to which, it will be seen, Messrs. Cameron and Conkling have no patent right of invention.

When we leave the level regions of the coast the most interesting people encountered is the Peuls or Foulahs, of seemingly Indo-European descent or affiliation, Mahometans, shepherds and cultivators of the soil, among whom the condition of women is much ameliorated, the slave who bears a child to her master is thereby freed, and the house-born slaves form part of the family. Superior to the Yolofs also are the Saracolais or Bambouks, agriculturists and travellers who occasionally reach St. Louis or Goree, of more than ordinary gentleness and chastity, observant, bright, and highly capable of civilization. Their legends, of all those related in this book, exhibit the greatest refinement. The Mandingos have an instinct for commerce, and are more enterprising in the pursuit of it than the tribe just named. They act as intermediaries between the traders of Senegal and Central Africa, and move in caravans. They sometimes till the soil and weave the cotton that they raise, and they are also gold-miners. They have the hospitality of their religion (Islam), their women are not mere beasts of burden, the descent of their rulers is even through the female line, and their music and musical instruments surpass all others. The Bambaras have the military spirit and discipline, and slash their cheeks and temples as a sort of tribal distinction ; they have mercenaries to let, and are the Swiss of this part of the Soudan. They maintain a highly organized system of slavery (which means that the institution has its mild sides), and though the wife is the captive of the husband she is said to have no little voice in the affairs of the tribe. They have gold in plenty. Under French rule they make good citizens, and have a distinct rôle in our author's scheme of a progressive military frontier. The Twocolors he likens, in their adaptability, to the Auvergnat or the Savoyard, but their temper is far less amiable. To better themselves they essay willingly long adventures from home. They are proud, conceited, bellicose ; do not submit to discipline ; are strict Mussulmans, but prefer monogamy ; are a growing community and may give trouble to the French. Of the tribes south of the Gambia we need not speak in detail. They have not yet been rescued from fetishism by the movements of population caused by the conquering spirit of Mahometanism, yet wear promiscuously the gris-gris and the Portuguese crosses and medals, with a freedom from prejudice which almost does credit to their intellect.

To the chapter on the Moors of the right bank of the Senegal, a kidnapping and marauding community, only redeemed by their one industry, the gathering of acacia gum, we must refer the reader directly, as well as to the concluding retrospect, in which the opportunities for the growth of the colony and the extension of trade are discussed with much ability. The work is greatly enlivened by the introduction, in connection with every tribe, of one or more legends, historic, mythological, or moral, some of which suggest a European origin, while others have the genuine stamp of first-hand. They would, if collected by themselves, make a very amusing contribution to folk-lore.

A Year in a Lancashire Garden. By Henry A. Bright. Second edition. (London : Macmillan & Co. 1879.)—There is no pleasanter writing than that of a man of taste about his familiar occupations and amusements, and there is no out-of-doors occupation or amusement to which men of taste have in all ages and countries devoted more of their leisure than that of the cultivation of flowers. It would not be at all too fanciful to say that the progress of civilization is marked by the development of the art of gardening, and that a period in which the cultivation of flowers is brought to its highest perfection will also be one in which the liberal arts and the sciences bring forth their fairest fruits. Indeed, Bacon has refined on this idea by the suggestion that gardening is an art later in development and greater in perfection than even architecture. Mr. Bright's little book is modestly styled by the author a "collection of notes," the result of "a year's work in a garden and of those associations

which a garden is so certain to call up." It was originally privately printed, but the demand for it soon outran the supply, and Mr. Bright was fairly forced into authorship against his inclination. We are glad that his reluctance was overcome, for it would have been a shame that so pleasant a volume should have been lost to the world. The "something private and personal about the whole affair" which caused him to shrink from making his notes into a book, is just what gives them a peculiar charm and naturalness. The only fault we have to find with him is that he has not written more, though, no doubt, it is partly because he has devoted more time and thought to his subject than to the idea of writing about it that everything he says is so well said. His English is pure and simple, but very graceful. It is impossible to quote it, because the book has an atmosphere of its own which gives a peculiar quality to the language that is lost if isolated fragments are read separately. Beginning with December, Mr. Bright carries his readers through the round of the year, month by month and season by season, each season bringing some new plant or flower to perfection, and furnishing an opportunity for literary observations and quotations by the way. Of the horticultural value of the notes it is unnecessary to speak, for though the advancement of horticulture was Mr. Bright's main object, it is not by any means the *cognoscenti* in flowers alone who are concerned in the result. Pleasure in reading the book is compatible with a profound degree of original ignorance on the subject of flowers.

Taxation of Railroads and Railroad Securities. By C. F. Adams, jr., W. B. Williams, and J. H. Oberly, a Committee appointed at a Convention of State Railroad Commissioners, etc. (Published by the *Railroad Gazette*, New York.)—Of the forty-nine pages which compose this interesting pamphlet only eight are assigned to the discussion of the principles of railway taxation, the remainder embracing a digest or summary of the laws relating to this subject now in force in the several States of the Union, and also in Canada, England, France, Belgium, Holland, Germany, Russia, Switzerland, and Austria-Hungary. No such comparative exhibit has, we believe, ever been made before. Consequently, from the point of view of a mere compilation, it is of the greatest value to those legislators who care to understand a subject before voting upon it. Direct taxation is perhaps the particular topic of human concern in respect of which this country is most deficient in knowledge. This is proved by the immense contrariety of practice which prevails in the different States. "There is no method of taxation," says the report, "possible to be devised which is not at this time applied to railroad property in some part of this country." As usually happens where guess-work is substituted for scientific knowledge and tests, the worst possible method is the one oftenest adopted, with local variations according to the original bias of the legislature. To enumerate these local variations would require more space than we can allow even to so tempting a mass of folly. As a general rule the attempt is made to apply the principle of "equal taxation of every species of property," and the divergence begins with the definition of "property," and widens with that of "equal taxation." The question, How shall the State *collect* from the persons and things moved by railroad (*i. e.*, from the receipts; there being no other fund from which taxes can possibly be paid) a fair share, or some share, of the amount needed for the expenses of State and municipal government? has seldom engaged the attention of American legislative bodies. Instead of it, they have been enquiring, How can we *assess* railroad property—*i.e.*, how can we arrive at a gross sum, an annual percentage of which shall be exacted for the expenses of government? After due examination of all the methods in vogue, including those of the principal countries of Europe, the Committee considers the system of the State of Michigan the best, the most readily understood, and hence the easiest to substitute in place of other systems. This provides that the real estate of railroads lying outside of their right of way, not exceeding a certain width, shall be taxed as other real estate; that they shall pay, in addition thereto, a certain percentage of their gross mileage receipts according to the number of miles operated by them within the boundaries of the State, and that these taxes shall be in lieu of all other taxes upon the property, capital stock, or evidences of indebtedness of railroads. This is, perhaps, too simple to become immediately popular, but since it is a system actually in force with good results in one of the States of the Union, it is not exposed to the practical man's objection that it is too theoretical to be of any use.

With General Grant in the East. By John M. Keating. With illustrations. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879.)—Mr. Keating accompanied Gen. Grant's party through the East, and this book is made up of the letters written by him to the Philadelphia *Evening Telegraph* during the trip. In the preface he disclaims all pretence to having written a book of travels, but says it is simply intended to be "corroborative of the beautifully-written reports of Mr. Young" which appeared in the New York *Herald*. In spite of this disclaimer, the greater part of the book consists of an account of what he saw superficially and had superficially explained to him, with occasional mention of Gen. Grant and the receptions given him. Only in the account of their visit to China do Gen. Grant and his receptions become prominent. The purpose of the book, we are informed, is to show the good-feeling towards this country in the different places visited, as evinced by the receptions given to Gen. Grant; but all this plays so small a part that the reader would never suspect it. It is very much what Mr. Keating would have written to the *Telegraph* if he had taken the trip without Gen. Grant, though, of course, he had unusual opportunities for observation in many ways. As the letters appeared originally, they were probably interesting enough; but we protest against the idea that because letters in a newspaper are readable they are consequently worth printing in book-form. Such an expression as "quite a go-ahead man" ought certainly not to have got further than the newspaper. We should suppose that the book would be bought mainly by those enthusiastic admirers who wish to complete their collection of Grant literature.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 11, 1880.

The Week.

THE President has sent in a message to the Senate, laying down the rule that the Canal must, when made, be under American control. If treaties with foreign powers, or rights of property or sovereignty, interfere with this control, they must be got rid of by "just and liberal negotiation." The needful protection to the capital invested in it must be given by the United States alone. The Canal will be "a great ocean thoroughfare" between the Atlantic and Pacific States, and virtually a part of the coast-line of the United States, and any other great Power would, under similar circumstances, "not fail to assert a rightful control over it." He therefore alleges that it is the right and duty of the United States to assert and maintain the necessary supervision and authority over the enterprise. This would seem, in plain English, to be an intimation that the corporation which undertakes its construction must be organized in the United States and come to terms of some sort with the United States Government, and he is not far wrong in alleging that this arrangement would be compatible with and "promotive of the widest and most permanent advantage to commerce and civilization."

M. de Lesseps has been before a committee of Congress, to which he explained at considerable length the comparative merits of the Nicaragua and Panama routes. The Panama Canal, he said, would cost $168,000,000, would take eight years at the outside to construct, would be fifty yards wide at the surface and twenty at the bottom, would be forty five miles long, and one hundred vessels a day could pass through it. The Nicaragua line, on the other hand, would call for the construction of a harbor at Brito, and would require either seventeen or twenty locks. Each lock would detain a vessel two hours, it would not be possible to send her through the line under five or six days, and not more than ten or twelve steamers could pass in a day; besides which the locks would probably be injured by earthquakes. The Panama route, too, had a good harbor to start with, and would use the bed of the Chagres River as part of the canal, and the extraordinary floods of the river would be held in check by an immense dam. He denied that any official control of the Canal by any Government was contemplated, and said the administrative headquarters would be wherever the majority of the stock was held—if in America, in New York; if in Europe, Paris.

The Supreme Court on Monday announced another very important decision affirming the constitutionality of the United States election laws, over which there has been so much bitter controversy. The decisions cover two cases, both petitions for writs of *habeas corpus* from State judges of election in Maryland and Ohio, who were indicted and convicted in the United States Court, in one case for resisting United States marshals and inspectors of election, and in the other for violating the State law in allowing the ballot box at a State election to be broken open after it had been sealed up. The Court holds that the Federal election law under which the marshals and supervisors acted is constitutional, and that the Circuit Court has jurisdiction of offences against it; and that the observance of State laws regulating the election of representatives is a duty owed by State officers to the United States, and their violation by such officers may be punished by the United States. Judges Field and Clifford dissented. We propose to speak more fully next week of the changes which these decisions and those of last week have wrought in the relations of the States to the general Government, or, at all events, in what has been popularly supposed to be such relations. These changes are important and far-reaching. The Democrats in Congress now, it is said, propose to surrender and vote the expenses of the marshals and supervisors, both for this year and the last.

The Smyth affair in Albany has taken a curious turn. Governor Cornell withdrew his name, last week, on finding that there was no chance of his confirmation, and it was supposed that he would, of course, speedily send in another name. Two or three days afterwards, however, the Albany *Express*, an assistant-organ, announced, apparently with authority, that he would not send in another name, but allow Smyth to hold over, as the law allows, until his successor was appointed, and thus secure him a prolongation of his tenure to the end of the Governor's term—that is, for three years. The announcement of this little scheme seems to have exasperated the Senate, and it is now made known that if the Governor does not nominate some one else within a reasonable interval Smyth will be removed, as the law also allows, by joint resolution, and in that case the filling of his place falls to the Legislature. The Governor's obstinacy is a very strange phenomenon, particularly as the Machine newspapers all over the State condemn it. It is probably an expression of what is strongest in him—his devotion to his chief in Washington, and his sense of the importance of keeping the Machine in good working order for the Presidential election. The general belief is that Smyth, besides being a good "worker," is able to extract money from the insurance companies for the campaign fund in a way which a new and inexperienced man would not find so easy.

The Governor's culpability is, however, in our view, not so very great after all. It was well known when he was nominated and elected that he was and had always been a "politician" in the lowest and narrowest sense of the term; that he had never given any thought in politics to anything but the "fixing" of primaries and conventions, and the use of offices to fill the party treasury and carry elections, and all this under the superintendence of a master or "boss." There was not the smallest reason for supposing that he would, if made Governor, in any way change his pursuits or interests or aims. He made no speeches or promises indicating anything of the kind. Nevertheless, he was nominated and elected on a platform which ridiculously subordinated State affairs to those of Mississippi and Louisiana. To secure his election under these conditions, and with full knowledge of his antecedents, two cabinet ministers came on from Washington to stump; the civil-service order was ostentatiously violated and his custom-house henchmen let loose on the country, and the bulk of the party supported him with heartrending appeals, on the ground that the American Union would be endangered next November unless he was made Governor of the great State of New York. He therefore very naturally feels that he is free to work his will with the State offices, and he is working so well that we venture to assert that there is now a corruption showing itself throughout the State administration which has not been witnessed since General Dix purified it after the expulsion of the Tweed Ring.

The Massachusetts "Young Republicans," as they call themselves, though many of them are as old, or nearly as old, as the Organ himself, held a convention in Boston on Saturday, the delegates numbering sixty in all, and after some debate, in the course of which the late circulars of the Independent Republicans of New York and of the Philadelphia National Republican League, published in our columns last week, were read with applause, they adopted resolutions which we print elsewhere. Ineffectual efforts were made by one or two delegates to have Mr. Blaine's name struck out from the enumeration of objectionable candidates. The Springfield *Republican* has published a biography of him which, if only half correct, makes him a curiously

inadequate person to set up either as a reformer or a Strong Man. He is simply thus far a Favorite Son and First Choice. Attempts to insert Mr. Edmunds's name as a desirable candidate were also happily defeated. It would be very injudicious for the Independents at this stage in their history to start "a boom" of any kind. Their aim ought to be to get a good candidate from the Republican Convention, and the best way to do it is to mention outright now the candidates whom they will not support. In 1872 and 1876 this threat would have been treated with ridicule and contempt; this year it will not be.

Apropos of the great danger of the coming Presidential election as described by Mr. Conkling, viz., that it will be so close that the Democrats will be able to throw it into the House, and there manage it to suit themselves, the following questions naturally suggest themselves to every enquiring mind: If you are afraid of a close election, why do you so eagerly press a candidate who will not, in all probability, command the full Republican vote? Why not select some one to whom there will be no moral objection within the party, and who will, therefore, without doubt carry *all* Republican States? Is it not treating the voters with disrespect to press on them a candidate who is likely to make the election close, and then use its probable closeness and the fact that he is a fighting man as reasons why they should choose him? Is there any reason in the world for supposing that any considerable body of Republicans want to see a fight over the Presidency, for the purpose of proving that General Grant is a "strong man"? Finally, how does a Strong Man frighten a Democratic Congressman? What does he do to him if he catches him?

The *World* has collected the "straw" votes for President taken on various occasions recently in the following colleges of the country: Harvard, Yale, Williams, Princeton, Trinity, Madison, Lafayette, Washington and Jefferson, Pennsylvania, Lewisburg, and Bates, and Phillips Academy at Exeter. The showing is in favor of Blaine upon the Republican side and of Bayard on the Democratic, 3,048 votes being thus distributed: Blaine, 871; Grant, 618; Bayard, 581; Sherman, 481; Tilden, 73; Garfield, 63; Washburne, 61; Edmunds, 52; Hayes, 50; Evarts, 26, and scattering. At Harvard, Bayard led over all, having 233 to Grant's 146, Sherman's 139, and Blaine's 76, and getting about one-fifth Republican votes as the candidate, according to the *Echo*, "not of the Bourbon Democracy, but of the Independents." At Yale the party seemed more harmonious, the figures standing: Grant, 213; Sherman, 205; Blaine, 163; Bayard, 82. The *World* extracts from the statistics the comfortable assurance that Tilden runs over five hundred behind Bayard, and calls upon "politicians with heads on their shoulders and brains in their heads" to "ponder the significance" of this circumstance. We fear, however, that whatever conclusion the Cincinnati Convention comes to, its decision will not be influenced greatly by the preferences of young men in colleges who are not yet voters.

Whatever opinion one may have of the merits of the Fitz-John Porter case, or of the legal powers of Congress in the matter of his rehabilitation, it must be admitted that the Advisory Board which has pronounced him both innocent and praiseworthy was composed of officers of the highest standing in the Army and in society. No judgment on a military question can be more trustworthy than that of Generals Schofield and Terry and Colonel Getty. It must be admitted, too, that they had before them a great deal of most important evidence which was not accessible when the court-martial sat seventeen years ago in the midst of the fierce excitement of the war. This evidence consists of new testimony both of Confederate officers and others, of Confederate reports, of accurate surveys of the battle-fields recently made, and of despatches from General Porter which have been hitherto suppressed, or, at all events, not produced by General McDowell. In fact, in any civilized society governed by the ordinary rules of morality, by the ordinary tests of credibility, and by the ordinary principles of enlightened jurisprudence, the finding of the Advisory Board would be and must be accepted as of the highest degree of moral authority. An appeal has, however, had to be taken to Congress, in order to give effect to the decision of the Board.

Congress, it may be said without disrespect, cannot, under the most favorable circumstances, be considered a judicial body. Acting on a question which has ever excited party feeling it is anything but a judicial body. Nevertheless, if both parties put forward their best men, even a case like that of Fitz-John Porter might be discussed, if not judicially, instructively, fairly, and in a manner to enlighten the public. The Democrats have done this. Mr. Randolph and Mr. Bayard are men who would be a credit to any party, and to whom men of any party must listen with respect. But what are we to say to the appearance on the Republican side, on a question of justice, of Messrs. Carpenter and Logan, both members of "the old set"? It is not possible to treat seriously General Logan's utterances on any subject, and yet his blatherskite harangue in the Senate has been prominently printed by leading Republican papers as a conclusive statement of the Porter case, and as a complete refutation of the report of the Advisory Board. Mr. Carpenter is an able lawyer, and his arguments against the power of Congress to undo the sentence of a court-martial and in favor of remitting Porter to the pardoning power of the President must be considered effective and weighty. But it was followed by a piece of political invective against Porter, and he wound up consistently, but amid the laughter of the Senate, with nominating General Grant for the Presidency as the sole way of "ensuring a proper discrimination between vice and virtue," besides "fixing a proper punishment on disloyalty and holding rebellion in check."

Besides listening to the Fitz-John Porter debate, the Senate has done little beyond passing General Burnside's amusing bill to provide instruction in moral and social science in the schools of the District of Columbia, under the direction of the Commissioner of Education, and a bill of Mr. Conkling's to protect from forfeiture vessels used as common carriers, when the breach of the revenue laws attempted by means of them proves to have been not within the cognizance of the master or owner. In the House Mr. Wood has been permitted to explain the new Funding Bill, and has received a sharp intimation that the inaction of his committee in regard to the tariff is not acceptable to a possible majority of the House. By far the most important action, however, has been the passage of a bill amendatory of the Act of March 3, 1875, regulating the removal of cases from State to Federal courts. Its effect is not only to restrict the facilities afforded by that act, but, as one of its general supporters admitted, to alter the Judiciary Act of 1789, by limiting the original cognizance of the Circuit Courts in civil suits, whether at common law or in equity, so as to exclude those in which a State *corporation* is a party, except when arising under the patent or copyright laws. The vote to strike out this provision was yeas 35, nays 95. The tendency of the bill is still further illustrated by the fact that it was advocated at length by Mr. Townshend, of Illinois, who has a bill of his own pending to repeal utterly the law authorizing removals, and whose grievance is the encroachment of the Federal upon the State judiciary. The bill is partly a Southern and partly a Western measure, and, as we showed in regard to Mr. Townshend's bill a year ago, is passed in the interest of repudiation, private and municipal. It does not go so far as he would have it, but it is for him a "step in the right direction."

The excitement in San Francisco has increased during the week. General McDowell has had the arms of the Second Regiment of militia removed from the various company armories and deposited in the central police station, with a guard over them; the First Regiment armory closely guarded; and, under instructions from Washington, is collecting at San Francisco all the available

troops in his division. The militia object to being treated with the suspicion which they think the removal of their arms indicates, but have been assured that the movement is purely precautionary—as indeed there is no reason to doubt that it is—and implies no reflection on their loyalty. The vigilance of the Government will not be in any degree relaxed, it is reported, until the constitutionality of the anti-Chinese employment law shall have been decided and the question of condemning Chinatown settled. Kearney's people confine themselves to the posting of blood-curdling but apparently innocuous placards. As one of the papers puts it, however, "if the time ever comes when it must be settled whether the city must belong to the men who built it or to Kearney and his tramps, God help Denis—that's all." A beginning of organized defence of order has been made in the shape of an address to the public by a "Citizens' Protective Union," without signatures, but said to emanate from a strong body of property-holders.

The imports at New York alone last week amounted to the unprecedented total of $13,878,046, which calls to mind the change that is going on in our foreign trade. During the first seven months of the fiscal year the imports for the whole United States exceeded those of the corresponding time last year by $162,507,893, while the exports in the same time gained only $62,228,830. This means that the foreign trade of the country is steadily, if not rapidly, drifting into a condition when gold exports will again be forced. During the week the foreign-exchange market has advanced another point towards the rate at which gold must be shipped, but it does not necessarily follow that much gold will be exported before summer. Before specie payments were resumed gold exports were of less consequence to the currency than they would be now, for then gold was, in fact, only a bankable commodity, while now it is part of the circulating medium. Moreover, there were so few silver dollars then in existence that there was no danger of the establishment of the silver par, which is the changing bullion value of 412½ grains of silver—worth to-day about 87½ cents. Not only does the enlarged volume of mercantile and manufacturing business all over the country—and the volume of business is nearly double what it was a year ago—keep currency from returning to New York, but there is still a drain upon this city for bank and Treasury notes. The result is falling bank reserves at a time when they should be rising, and a loan market dependent almost entirely upon the Treasury. Last week the Secretary bought only $2,516,000 bonds for the Sinking Fund, and the currency paid out therefor, together with the payment of March interest, was not enough to prevent the bank reserve from falling $1,500,000. The Stock Exchange apparently closes its eyes to the money market, and continues to "boom" one stock after another, and not infrequently stocks of companies which have hardly emerged from bankruptcy. It is true that railroad earnings were never so large as now, and that there is some foundation for a substantial improvement in railroad securities; but prices are "boomed" unreasonably, and it may be said dangerously. The price of silver in London, after falling to 51⅛*d.* per oz., advanced to 52⅛*d.* and closed at 52⅛*d.* The "buzzard dollar" at one time had a bullion value of as little as $0.8623 and at another of as much as $0.8817.

From Russia the only news is of arrests, trials, searches, and investigations. The Emperor is closely guarded in all his movements, and the palace converted into a huge prison. The investigations have apparently lighted on a good deal of strong proof of what the late attempts on the Emperor's life have only too plainly indicated—that the Nihilists have had disciples or sympathizers near his person, through whom minute information about his habits and movements was always attainable. That the conspirators are not cowed is shown by another attempt at assassination—this time on the new military governor of St. Petersburg, General Melikoff. He was shot at at close quarters in alighting from his carriage in a crowded street, the ball going through the folds of his cloak. The assassin, a converted Jew, was instantly seized and hanged the next day, but met his fate with calm, and even contempt. The Nihilists still continue to warn the authorities of their approaching doom. Hartmann, whose extradition was asked for from the French authorities, on the ground of complicity with the Moscow attempt, has been refused for insufficiency of evidence.

The announcement of the dissolution of Parliament, made in the English House of Commons on Monday by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, appears to have taken all parties by surprise, long as it had been looked for. The belief had lately gained ground that the Ministry would wait for more good luck before making an appeal to the country. But the dissolution is to take place at Easter and the new Parliament will assemble early in May. The ostensible and probably the real reason is that the certainty that dissolution would come within a year and might result in a change of ministry is weakening the hands of the Government in their foreign relations, and it is therefore desirable to hear from the country as soon as possible. The estimates will now be presented, the necessary legislation for the relief of Irish distress having been passed.

The Liberals profess to receive the news with joy, but it must be admitted that their chances do not seem to be as good as they did three months ago. The defeats in Liverpool and Southwark, particularly the latter, go to show that the foreign policy of the Government has a stronger hold on the country than it was supposed to have. It even begins to be doubted whether Mr. Gladstone can carry Mid-Lothian, owing to the great manufacture of "faggot votes" carried on by the Tories. The Premier has issued a sort of manifesto, in the shape of a letter to the Duke of Marlborough, the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, in which he gives what would here be called "the key-note of the campaign"—a strong and meddlesome foreign policy and resistance to Home-Rulers. In the canvass it will probably be maintained that the Liberals are encouraging the designs of the latter. The opinion of the best observers in England is, we believe, that the Liberals will gain some seats in the election, but not enough to deprive the Ministry of a working majority, and there are some fears that the two parties may be so evenly matched that the Home-Rulers will hold the balance of power. Out of this there would come much trouble and no little political demoralization.

The famous Section 7 of the Educational Bill has been defeated in the French Senate after one of the longest and, in some ways, ablest debates that have taken place in that body, Jules Ferry in particular, the author of the bill, having distinguished himself by a speech which extorted admiration even from his enemies, and in which he made a most effective assault on the Jesuit teaching. It is at this order that the section is more particularly aimed in forbidding teaching by members of religious orders unrecognized or unauthorized by the law. The Jesuit order is forbidden in France, but the law has long been allowed to remain a dead-letter. The Minister, in spite of the powerful defence he has made, both in the Senate and the Assembly, has, however, been weighted heavily by the opposition of many moderate Republicans of high standing, such as Dufaure and Jules Simon. It is now announced that in consequence of his defeat he has resigned, thus furnishing another striking illustration of the novelty of the kind of responsible ministry which the French are evolving, and on which we commented some weeks ago. They seem, in fact, to be entirely giving up the principle of united responsibility, which is an essential feature of the English system. Each minister, apparently, carries his own burdens, and, if he breaks down, goes out of the Cabinet alone, as he might do here. How it will work in the long run remains to be seen. It may operate to prevent frequent Cabinet changes; but, on the other hand, it may enable a factious opposition to attack a ministry in detail with an effectiveness which would not be attainable if the Cabinet stood or fell together.

THE INDEPENDENTS AND THE PRESIDENTIAL NOMINATIONS.

THE malcontent Republicans—"Scratchers," "Independents," or whatever one pleases to call them—in this city and in Boston have named certain Republican candidates for the Presidency whom they will not support, and in Philadelphia they have described such candidates in terms which leave no room for mistake about their meaning. As the Independents will, under the most favorable circumstances, cast but a small proportion of the total Republican vote, their undertaking to reject in advance the possible choice of the convention naturally strikes some of those who still retain the older traditions of party organization, as a very gross impertinence. There was a time when the nominating convention was, in fact as well as in theory, a deliberative body, to which members came, not without bias or preconceived opinions, but without any settled plan of action, and in that condition of persuadableness by discussion which alone makes deliberation possible. We do not say this lasted very long, but an intermediate state, in which things were partly "fixed" *before* the convention met and partly left to be fixed *in* the convention by comparison of opinions, did last down to the war. The convention which nominated Abraham Lincoln was probably as deliberative as any large political assembly of the kind can be in the existing state of human nature—that is to say, every delegate who went there was sure of finding that the work of the convention had not been wholly or in the greater part irrevocably cut out for it, and that his speech or vote might still exert some influence on the final result. On this state of facts grew up the party usage which makes it improper for members of the party who mean to send delegates to it, or to go to it as delegates, to attempt by public action to limit its field of choice in advance, by announcing that they are opposed to the nomination of this or that person, or by threatening to bolt the ticket if any such nomination is made.

What has brought about the present crisis in the Republican party is, however, the fact that the nominating convention has been since the war rapidly losing all the characteristics of a deliberative body. The deliberative function has been transferred from it to the State conventions, which send the delegates and instruct them, and from these conventions lately to the primaries, and finally from the primaries to the "pre-primaries" or secret caucuses of the "workers," by whom the business of the primaries is arranged beforehand. So that when a convention meets now the chances are that a delegate who goes there to deliberate may find that there is nothing left to deliberate upon, that the result has been determined out-of-doors, and that he is, owing to his apparent want of astuteness and perspicacity, a somewhat ridiculous object to his brother-members. In fact, it may be said roughly that the work of discussing the candidates for the Presidency is now done in the newspapers, and in the course of the preparations made for the State conventions half a year before the Presidential Convention meets. This year the work has begun earlier than ever before, and the State conventions have been held in New York and Pennsylvania earlier than ever before. The friends of the more prominent candidates have, in fact, been busy in direct preparation for the National Convention for nearly a year, and these preparations aim not, as one might suppose from some of the talk one hears, at making the deliberations of the convention full and free and judicial, but at leaving it nothing to deliberate about, and at confining it to the mere registration of a decision reached months before it met, so that any dissenter or malcontent who goes there with the expectation of accomplishing anything by his vote or speech may find himself powerless.

What is the best course of action for those who feel themselves defrauded of their legitimate influence in the party action by this situation is, as every one knows, one of the most difficult questions of the day. It seems at present as if the nominating machinery which was invented and put in operation in 1830, had grown much too ponderous and complicated for the use of a community so vast and busy as this of ours now is, and that something simpler, more direct, and less troublesome to work and keep clean must be substituted for it before long. It is not in cotton-mills and iron-works only that machinery becomes antiquated and has to be cast aside. But, pending the production of improved apparatus, it is clear that it would be childish for those who are dissatisfied with the present state of things to sit down under traditions which their opponents have utterly cast aside in practice. If the Independents were to sit silently waiting for the action of the convention, and ready to acquiesce piously in its decision, while their opponents were working night and day, and without the least concealment, to settle everything months before it met, as Mr. Cameron and Mr. Conkling have been doing, they would richly merit the ridicule which would assuredly be heaped upon them after the nominations had been formally made. The work in which the party managers are now engaged is that of anticipating the action of the convention for the benefit of certain candidates; that is, they are trying beforehand to make the choice of any candidate but that of A. or B. impossible, which of course means that they have thrown overboard completely the old party theory that the convention is a place to which men come open to conviction and prepared to modify their opinions by and through discussion.

The only feasible and the perfectly proper way of counteracting this is to work to make the choice of A. or of B. difficult. One kind of work is exactly as legitimate as another. If it be a violation of party traditions to announce beforehand that you will not, under any circumstances, support a certain candidate even if nominated, it is also a gross violation of it to pack the delegations so that no other candidate will have any chance of being nominated. In fact, in disregard of the party theory of nominations, all work intended to take from the convention its deliberative or judicial function stands on the same level—putting aside, of course, all questions of the comparative purity of motives and aims. It is just as lawful to seek to influence the convention by saying beforehand that Blaine or Grant ought not to be nominated as to seek to influence it by "fixing the primaries," and "instructing" delegations, so that there will be no chance of having anybody but Grant or Blaine to vote for.

Moreover, it is a mistake to suppose that any such outspoken declaration of hostility to particular candidates is at all likely, by irritating the convention, to defeat its object. Conventions are not irritable bodies, and that of Chicago will certainly not be *provoked* into nominating anybody. The first object of those who manage conventions is victory at the polls, and to this they sacrifice passion of every description. That Independent "impertinence" will betray them into reckless courses is a comic idea. They will weigh the "impertinence," like every other element in the problem, in the coolest way, and give just the amount of heed to it that its probable influence on votes in important States seems to call for. If they think it threatens them with the loss of no votes, they will not heed it at all. If they think it threatens serious defection in case certain persons are nominated, they will not nominate them. The last thing they will think of is getting angry over it. They will probably heed it more this year than they would ever have done before, partly owing to the demonstration afforded by the late State election in New York of the amount of damage even hastily-organized "scratching" can do, and partly owing to the fact that the election may this year be decided by the vote of a single State. The voice of the Independents is therefore more likely to be effective in the regular organization this year than it has ever been before, especially if it is not muffled or timid. What has hitherto made "the better element" in the Republican party so contemptible in the eyes of the regular managers has been their unshaken belief that its opposition was sure to collapse before election day. They do anything to gain their ends, while the Independents will only do some things, and nothing excites more hilarity or indifference in the "pre-primaries" than the halting or timid attitude of a reformer or "high-toned" man.

If the Independents, therefore, mean to accomplish anything

they must imitate their adversaries, first in finding out what they want, and next in pursuing it unflinchingly, without being evasive or mealy-mouthed. It is in this way that results are accomplished in business and politics and war. The notion that the Machine is to be overthrown and American politics purified by preaching sound doctrine to Satan and then helping him on with his pack, has the merit of simplicity, but hardly any other.

The following resolutions were adopted by the Massachusetts Young Republicans:

"First. We declare our adhesion to the principles of the Republican party. Especially do we urge the establishment of the public service on the basis of intelligence and good conduct; the maintenance of specie payments; the passage of laws depriving greenbacks of their legal-tender quality; the management by the States of their own affairs; the enforcement of all national laws, and the maintenance of equal rights throughout the country.

"Second. Earnestly desiring the success of the Republican party at the approaching Presidential election, we protest against the nomination of any candidate who is certain to lose the support of any important portion of the party. The decline of the Republican power from 1873 to 1875 showed plainly that the Republicans cannot hope for success while supporting candidates who, in office, do not uphold the principles the party has affirmed. It is our belief that to submit to such leadership is to invite disaster as well as to deserve it, nor can we be induced to support such leaders by the plea of the necessity of party success, for there are many Republicans whose record is free from any taint of personal or political corruption, whose fidelity to the principles above declared is proved, and whose fitness for the highest public office cannot be qualified. We therefore strenuously oppose the nomination of Ulysses S. Grant or of J. G. Blaine, since many considerations will lead large portions of the Republican party to vote against either.

"Third. We will gladly support any man who, like President Hayes, has shown in words and acts that he is in sympathy with the principles declared by us, and whose personal character is pure and above suspicion.

"Fourth. We heartily approve of the purposes and principles of the Independent Republican Committee of New York and the National League of Philadelphia, as explained in their recent circulars; and the executive committee are requested to correspond with those organizations, with a view to joint action in the future, if it should be desirable."

THE SECRET OF NIHILISM.

M. LEROY-BEAULIEU, who has, during the last two or three years, been contributing a series of very interesting studies on Russian politics and society to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, makes in the number of February 15 an apparently valuable attempt to throw light on the most obscure question of contemporary politics, the composition and aims of the Nihilist sect—for sect, rather than party or faction, it seems to be. There have been before now many secret societies in various countries and at various times, seeking to accomplish political changes by acts of violence directed against the constituted authorities. In other words, political conspirators using assassination or arson or brigandage as means are nothing new. But we believe in all previous cases the conspirators have had behind them some well-known condition of public opinion, and have been the champions of some definite and easily-described form of popular discontent; and if not connected with a regular political organization have at least had in view the same ends as some large or small body of visible enemies of the Government. Those, therefore, who condemned the instrumentalities to which the conspirators resorted, as in the case of the Italian Carbonari, for example, or the Irish Fenians, had no difficulty in finding out what they sought, and in pointing to large numbers of peaceable and well-disposed citizens who shared their opinions to a greater or less degree. Who the Nihilists are, however; to what extent the Russian people of any class sympathize with them; what is the exact nature of the changes they desire to bring about; what they would substitute for the régime of which they apparently desire the overthrow; what principle or idea or motive it is which sustains them in the dreadful conflict which they are carrying on with the Government, and enables them, apparently without difficulty, to obtain the needed supply of agents of the most extraordinary fortitude and audacity, and to maintain their courage in the teeth of terrible punishment and frequent failures—are questions to which, up to the present moment, no satisfactory answer has come from any quarter.

Turgeneff's novels have made every one familiar with the prevalence of Nihilism among the young Russians of the educated class as a form of strong Pessimism, which, however, is no novelty. A sense of the vanity of all that exists, of all efforts, of all hopes, of all knowledge, of all fruition, of all human institutions and relations, is a mental condition by which the educated youth of many generations past has been more or less ravaged, and with which the world is now so familiar that it is frequently treated as one of the phenomena of physical immaturity and growth. But no western reader of Turgeneff's books a few years ago ever dreamed that we should witness in our time the conversion of this disgust with human society into a motive of action hardly less powerful, apparently, than that which sent the early Christians unflinchingly to martyrdom. The Nihilists, too, do not seem to have any founder or prophet; that character has been ascribed to Tchernytcherski, who has recently died in Siberia after eighteen years of exile; but his works contain little which is not found in those of Lassalle, and Marx and the English economists. In other words, he preached great social changes, but his new society was to be built on old foundations. He was, in short, little else than a somewhat mystical political economist of the advanced Socialist school. He, as well as the western reformers of the same type, would have used most of the existing social and political machinery in regenerating society. The Nihilists, on the contrary, as far as can be ascertained, insist on absolute destruction of everything that can be called a social institution—government, society, family, and religion—before they will even talk of the order which is to succeed. One of them was asked six or seven years ago what his doctrines were, and he replied, "Take the earth and heaven, church and state, take kings and Deity, and spit on them—that's our doctrine." Turgeneff relates that at Heidelberg, in 1865, a Nihilist paper was issued by Russian students there who had been expelled from their own colleges, which had for its motto: "I spit on all comers." This is not in Russian as strong an expression of contempt as in English, but it is sufficiently strong.

The rapid growth of this state of mind M. Leroy-Beaulieu ascribes to the vague expectation and unrest excited by the emancipation of the serfs and other reforms of the present Emperor, and to the great increase within twenty-five years of collegiate education in which literature largely predominates. That the reforms, thoroughly material though they were, should have led to wild hopes and stimulated social speculation among the classes which have leisure for it, is easy enough to understand. The same phenomenon has been witnessed elsewhere. The overthrow of the French monarchy produced a widespread and peculiarly vivid sense of the near approach of some sort of great social transformation, in which most of the more prominent existing miseries of human life would either disappear or be greatly mitigated. Great changes either in the distribution of property, or in the relations of men before the law, in fact, have always and everywhere had a strong influence on the nerves, either exciting or depressing, and have opened up large vistas either of possible increased misery, or of possible increased opportunity of enjoyment.

But there appears to be no evidence whatever that this influence of the reforms has reached the Russian peasantry. The possession and regulation of the common land in the village community called the *Mir* had made them familiar enough with changes in the ownership of land to prevent the emancipation from having in their eyes the character of a revolution, and they appear to be thus far completely untouched by the passion for social equality, so much so that the Nihilists have been unable even to make them comprehend it. M. Leroy-Beaulieu gives some amusing illustrations of the failure of their attempts at propagandism in this field. The peasantry are

not only unfamiliar with the nomenclature of European Radicalism, but they seem unable to lay hold of its fundamental ideas. Nevertheless, it seems possible that their familiarity with the process of redistributing landed property, which they witness in the *Mir* every year, might yet be made the means of initiating them into the mysteries of social revolution. Thus far, however, no impression whatever has been made on them by the Nihilists or any other body of malcontents. The Nihilists apparently get no recruits and no assistance from them. None of those arrested during the past two or three years have come from the peasant class. They have generally been students, or Government employees, or small shop-keepers, or traders, or old soldiers. The core of the movement seems to be composed of students, both male and female, in whose pessimism the recent reforms have sown the seeds of an immense and fanatical faith in the possibility of a sort of materialistic heaven on earth as soon as the ground has been cleared of existing institutions. And this faith has many of the characteristics of a religious enthusiasm of the old sort. Many of the young men and women on whom it has seized are known to have given up wealth and social position and luxury to become part of the people whose misery they expect to put an end to. They have made themselves laborers and artisans, and entered workshops on small daily wages, so as to have a full sense of the sorrows and privations of the people; and most of the propagandists of this sort are, as might be expected, women. In fact, it is among the women that the new faith shows itself in the strangest ways. They have furnished Nihilism with its most courageous missionaries and martyrs, and with the most audacious expression of its contempt for social conventions. Many of them have married while solemnly devoted to a life of celibacy for the mere convenience of being able to live and travel with a married woman's freedom, but without any intention of filling a wife's position. Solovieff, who made the first attempt on the Emperor's life, seems to have had a wife of this sort. On the other hand these marriages seem frequently to be made for the sole purpose of enabling the couple thus legally united to display their contempt for the institution of matrimony by the subsequent practice of free love. This use of the marriage contract has played a prominent part as an incident in a Nihilist novel by Tchernytcherski. Their readiness to put their own lives in peril of course makes the sacrifice of such other lives as seems necessary to carry out their objects a regrettable but not very serious feature in their work. They blow up the soldiers in the guard-house in order to get at the Emperor with as little hesitation as they would kill them in battle. They give their martyrs, too, a sort of poetic canonization, and preserve their memory in hymns of greater or less literary merit. The opinion of the western world—that is, of foreign nations—counts for nothing with them, owing to the deep-seated belief which has long pervaded the Russian educated class, and the counterpart of which may be found in our own Western States, that Russia is a peculiar country, which has nothing to learn from old Europe, and is destined to evolve a new social and political system of its own to which old Europe will make no contribution either in theory or practice.

This complete emancipation even of a small class from the dominion not only of religion but of all the received social morality, and of what is called the common sense of existing civilization, would a few years ago have been considered impossible. It is not surprising, therefore, that some observers should now pronounce it an epidemic disease, in the nature of hysteria, growing out of the unhealthy physical condition of the student or literary class in Russia, and the absence of any career for them calculated to maintain the proper balance of their faculties. But this will not account for the ease with which they make converts among persons without any tincture of letters at all, and command at pleasure, for the most desperate enterprises, agents drawn from various callings. The more probable explanation, if explanation it can be called, of the phenomenon is, that we are witnessing the display in a very striking form of some of the peculiarities of temperament of the Slav race, of which, in spite of the large space of European soil it has covered ever since the fall of the Roman Empire, but very little has as yet been known. But it is certain that there is no other great division of the population of the western world in which race characteristics have been preserved in such purity, which has been so little modified by crossing with other breeds, and in which the earlier founts of feeling and motive have been so little affected by modern civilization. The growth of the Russian Empire, which now furnishes the great mystery and marvel of recent history, has brought this race for the first time prominently into view, and it may be that Nihilism is but the first of the surprises which its full contact with the ideas of the older world has in store for us.

THE FUNCTION OF THE LYCEUM.

THE assertion that "the lecture business is played out" has been made so often during the past eight or ten years that the decline of the lyceum has been accepted as a fact by general consent. Yet we suspect there was never in this country so successful a season, from the lyceum point of view, as the present one; it is probable that never before were there so many lecturers "in the field" and so many lectures delivered. The lyceum has simply ceased to be the sensation it was, and is taking its place among other institutions of entertainment and instruction, so that we hear less about it than we used to do when it had burning questions to discuss and the papers reported it religiously and at length. It certainly has a place, in Anglo-Saxon communities at all events, and it would be idle to assume that it had forfeited it through its pretensions and what we may call its over-production.

The history of the origin and rise of the lyceum in America must be familiar to every one who remembers Mr. Wendell Phillips's lecture on "The Lost Arts," the introduction to which sketches with a very charming vivacity the beginnings of what Mr. Phillips regards as a great engine of civilization. During the war epoch, and for some time before and after, it enjoyed the vogue which the possession of a mission of necessity secured for it. The high pressure of that period was not only favorable to the production and popularity of such lectures as the vigorous military criticisms of Miss Dickinson upon General McClellan, but it gave rise to and kept alive an interest in all sorts of platform discussions, political, social, and literary. For a time, it must be acknowledged, "the business was overdone," and accordingly it fell into discredit. The ambition rather than the ability to "lecture" was the only stimulus of scores of estimable persons of both sexes who invaded the platform. What may almost be called a new industry, similar to that of the manufacture of sermons for country clergymen by London hack-writers, grew up; through the instrumentality of some clever writer or other the "Pearl of the Platform" or what-not was enabled to instruct "associations" throughout the country upon the true sphere of her sex or whatever subject she inclined to discuss. Public men in the intervals of Congressional sessions were glad to comply with the demands of the public for lyceum delectation. The late Mr. Sumner, we remember, talked for two hours on "Political Morality"; the dashing Kilpatrick told the story of the March to the Sea; the genial Mr. Cox explained "Why We Laugh." We are not sure that General Logan passed through the ordeal without paying the penalty of at least one lecture. Humorists sprang up as if from dragons' teeth sown broadcast. Every successful "local" or "paragrapher" followed in the illustrious footsteps of the lecturer on "The Babes in the Wood." Elocutionists and dramatic readers multiplied. Towns far beyond the confines of rural New England had their "courses," with prominent stars billed long in advance. There was in particular an extraordinary influx of foreign celebrities. Succeeding the experiments of Thackeray and Dickens came Edmund Yates, Justin McCarthy, George Macdonald, the late Charles Kingsley, Gerald Massey, Edward Jenkins, Froude, Tyndall, Huxley, Proctor, Wilkie Collins, Bradlaugh, and others, of whom, excepting the scientists, it is safe to affirm that either they had nothing to say or had no faculty for saying anything well. These disqualifications they shared with the great mass of our own platform orators. Indeed, the sole test applied in the solution of the great question "to lecture or not to lecture" concerned not at all the worth of the proposed lecture or the oratorical ability of the intending lecturer, but merely his personal celebrity of one sort and another. There came to be very little worth hearing in most lyceum deliverances, and that very ill presented; as Thackeray said of his own venture, the lecturer simply "went around the country exhibiting himself for so much a night."

This condition of the lyceum has, we suspect, been undergoing a very wholesome change within the past few years. Even lecture-com-

mittees, it is probable, have ceased to rely so much upon the eminence *per se* of a lecturer, and to trust more to his capacity to deal with a subject in the first place, and in the second to his capacity for dealing with it before an audience, in estimating the measure of his attractiveness. Public dinners, receptions, and so on, are, it may be said, recovering the ground upon which the lyceum encroached. But that the popularity of the lecture-course has lost seriously by the change there is no reason for believing. Its province is very clear, and it is manifestly well that its limitations should be understood and acknowledged. It may not be a great engine of civilization, or anything else to be heroically described; but in both popular instruction and entertainment it has a place which neither the pulpit, the press, nor the drama precisely fills. The *à priori* objections to it are obvious. It demands, or should demand, a high order of oratorical excellence in the lecturer, whereas it is plain not only that the majority of lecturers have no knowledge nor care for even the rudiments of elocution, but that it is generally useless to expect a high order of oratory in the absence of any "burning question." The slavery discussion, for example, may be said to have of itself bred orators; but upon many subjects wholly appropriate to lyceum treatment it is idle to expect eloquence, and the cultivated delivery which alone can replace it is rare and of slow growth. Moreover, if oratory be thus out of the question, it may be asked with some pertinence, Why should one depend upon a lecture for what he can get just as well in print? Why, for instance, should Mr. John Fiske ask us to listen to his admirable course upon American history, instead of saving our time and his by printing his lectures for us—save for the economic reasons, which he has, of course, an entire right to consider? The invention of printing logically extirpates all popular oral instruction that has not some oral merit which types cannot supply. Logically, one would say most lecturers should go the way of the rhapsodists and their successors. Nevertheless, in practice these objections fail, because the true reason for the existence of the lyceum is to be found in the necessities of audiences rather than in the perfectibility of the platform. People will go to hear lectures who will not read books. The class of men and women in New York to whom reading is a virtual impossibility is larger than most people have any idea of, we suspect. It is the class whose emblem is the gig, as Carlyle says—thoroughly respectable heads of families, whose children are fond of books, but who find the ordinary daily routine of business, however slight in itself, sufficiently wearying to conduce powerfully to repose very soon after dinner. It is much if such get through the evening paper. After that, at all events, there are only two resources open—the ordinary restorer of tired nature and social amusement. More or less social the character of the lyceum certainly is; and a great many men to whom clubs are a bore and reading a nuisance—it would, by the way, be a curious sociological enquiry to ascertain how much middle-aged reading is neglected on account of the mere awkwardness of eye-glasses—will more or less languidly enjoy absorbing from an evening lecture the information they would of themselves never have had the heroism to conquer. To such as these, and to the many others who go to a lecture as they would to a concert, the lyceum is a really important educator. Moreover, there are many topics which lend themselves to oral treatment far better than to print. There are many lecturers who, without any especial gift of oratory, manage to add a personal charm to what they have to say that is not the less important because it is as if inappreciable. Any one, for example, who has heard Mr. Emerson, who is no orator at all, will quite understand that; and there are, it should not be forgotten, a few lecturers who are cultivated orators, and who, in addition to the interest and value of what they have to say, are interesting and valuable for the art with which they say it—an art that Anglo-Saxon communities especially are in some danger of forgetting all about. But of celebrities, as such, the lyceum will do well to steer clear.

A FRENCH VIEW OF METTERNICH.—II.

PARIS, Feb. 20, 1880.

WE left the 'Memoirs of Metternich' after the marriage of Napoleon with the Archduchess Maria-Louisa. I have heard it said by some people that Metternich attributes to himself too much importance and too much foresight, but his official papers show that he was really a true prophet in politics. In the first week of October, 1810, he wrote that—

"In 1811 the material peace of the European continent will not be troubled by a new war. In the course of that same year Napoleon, after having augmented his own forces, will unite his allies with the view of attacking Russia and striking a great blow. Napoleon will open the campaign in the spring of the year 1812. . . . Armed neutrality will be the proper attitude of Austria in 1812. The issue of the eccentric enterprise of Napoleon will indicate the direction which we shall have to choose afterwards. In a war between France and Russia Austria will have a flank position, which will make her heard during and after the struggle."

This programme was executed to the letter. Metternich had studied Napoleon as a naturalist studies a new species; he understood the necessities of this strange character, which could not limit its action: if Napoleon was not the master of the world he could not remain the master of France. Let us come at once to the great dramatic scene, which is, so to speak, the culmination of the Metternichian policy. Napoleon has made his great Russian campaign, he has dragged half a million of men of all nations as far as Moscow; he has lost them in the snow-deserts of the north. He has not been discouraged; he has made new levies in 1813, and he has fought the allied armies of Russia and Prussia at Lützen and at Bautzen. His military prestige is still intact. What will Austria do? She has been biding her time; she has watched the momentous issue. Now the time is come when she must throw her sword in the balance of events. Russia, England, Prussia entreat her to join in the great alliance against the arch-enemy of peace, the modern Attila, the new scourge of God. Metternich is ready; he is determined to force Napoleon to peace or to side with the allies against him. Napoleon receives him near Dresden, at the Villa Marcolini. The history of this interview is perhaps the most extraordinary page of history which has been written in our time. M. Thiers had had the good fortune to be allowed to read this chapter of the 'Memoirs of Metternich' before he published his 'History of the Empire'; he tells faithfully some of the incidents of the interview at Dresden: but his is only a second-hand account, and nothing can equal the effectiveness of Metternich's own story.

The Emperor received him with dignity; his hat was under his arm, and he carried his sword. After a few formal enquiries after the health of the Emperor Francis he said abruptly:

"So you want war; well, you shall have it. I have destroyed the Prussian army at Lützen, I have beaten the Russians at Bautzen; you will have your turn. I give you rendezvous at Vienna. Men are incorrigible; the lessons of experience are lost upon them. Three times have I re-established the Emperor Francis on his throne; I have promised to remain at peace with him as long as he lives; I married his daughter. I said to myself then, 'You are committing a folly.' I regret it now."

At that time Metternich was conscious of all his advantages. Napoleon was beside himself; he was pushed on by his evil genius; he was, so to speak, not free. Metternich had seen, on his way, the look of uneasiness and inquietude of all the French generals. The Prince of Neuchâtel (Berthier) had whispered in his ear in Napoleon's ante-chamber: "Don't forget that Europe wants peace, especially France." Napoleon's outburst made him feel how strong he was himself. "At this decisive moment," says he, "I looked upon myself as the representative of the whole European society. May I say it?—Napoleon seemed to me small." Metternich gave Napoleon to understand that the time had come for him to make sacrifices if he really wanted peace. "What," says Napoleon, "do you want of me? that I should dishonor myself? Never! I shall know how to die, but I shall never give away an inch of territory. Your kings, born on the throne, can be beaten twenty times and always go back to their capitals; I cannot, for I am a *soldat parvenu*." He then explained that he had never been beaten by men; in Russia he had only been beaten by the elements. He still had a fine army; he did not fear even a coalition. He explained to Metternich that the Austrian army was not strong enough; he knew to a man how the Austrian regiments and corps d'armée were composed. Metternich in his turn said that the French army was only so numerous because the Emperor had been obliged to anticipate his levies; he had seen the French soldiers on his way; they were children, and what would happen if this army—the last army of France—suffered a reverse?

"At these words Napoleon was carried away by his rage; he became pale, and his features were contracted. 'You are not a soldier,' said he rudely, 'and you don't know what passes in the soul of a soldier. I have grown up on battle-fields, and a man like myself cares little for the life of a million of men.' Thus saying, or rather screaming, he threw in a corner of the drawing-room the hat which he had hitherto kept in his hand. I remained calm, leaning against a *console* between the two windows, and, profoundly moved by what I had heard, said: 'Why do you speak thus to me? Why make to me, between four walls, such a declaration? Let us open the doors, and make your words heard from one end of France to the other. The cause which I represent will not suffer by it.' Napoleon, containing himself, then uttered in a calmer tone these words, which are not less remarkable than the preceding ones: 'The French cannot complain of me; to spare them I sacrificed the

Germans and the Poles. I lost three hundred thousand men in the Russian campaign, but in the number there were not more than thirty thousand Frenchmen—' 'You forget, sire,' I exclaimed, 'that you are speaking to a German.'"

Napoleon began to walk with Metternich in the drawing-room ; at the second turn he picked up his hat himself. I have heard it said that Metternich always showed himself particularly proud of having forced the great Napoleon to pick up his hat. The interview lasted a long time yet ; Napoleon had become calm, almost gentle ; he saw that he could gain nothing. He spoke of the Archduchess, and said, "In marrying an archduchess I wanted to unite the present and the past, the Gothic prejudices and the institutions of my age ; I made an error, and I feel now the extent of it. It may cost me my throne, but I will bury the world under its ruins." When Metternich left him he said to Napoleon : "You are lost, sire. I had the presentiment of it when I arrived ; now that I go I have the certainty of it."

Such scenes cannot be invented, and I do not doubt that the account given by Metternich is, upon the whole, very exact. I know few scenes in history more dramatic, more human ; and it is not a little to say in praise of Metternich that he stood his ground remarkably well against Napoleon.

Metternich's diplomatic and political foresight was particularly well shown in the stipulations which were made between the three Powers when the coalition began in earnest. Metternich had a very clear mind, and he knew how to sacrifice the details to the general and important objects. His view was the re-establishment of *peace*, based upon *order*. To obtain this he proposed, 1st, on the part of the Allies, all exclusion of conquest, and, therefore, the return of France, of Austria, of Prussia to their ancient limits ; 2d, a difference to be established, according to the law of nations, between the *consummated conquests* and the *de-facto incorporations of territory*, made without any formal renunciations by treaty. These last incorporations were to be considered as null, the consummated conquests of Napoleon or his allies were to be considered as a common property of the Allies, and a disposition should be made of them after the peace by special arrangements in a European congress. Metternich by these means threw in the background all questions which could divide the Allies. The *de-facto* incorporations were Hanover, the possessions of the King of Sardinia, the German possessions of the House of Orange, Electoral Hesse. Metternich entered also into the discussion of the campaign which was to be opened against Napoleon. Schwarzenberg presided at the great council of war. He was nominally the chief of the three allied armies. Successive campaigns were to be made. The object of the first campaign was to bring the three allied armies to the Rhine ; it was accomplished by the battle of Leipzig. The plan of the second campaign was made at Frankfort-on-the-Main on this general basis : 1st, to carry the war to the other side of the Rhine, into the heart of France ; 2d, to strike thus a decisive blow against Napoleon ; 3d, to see what effect the invasion would produce on the French nation ; and, 4th, the heights of the Vosges and of the Ardennes once occupied, to form the plan of the military operations of the third campaign.

In January, 1814, Metternich was at Langres, and there the resolutions were taken. The principal questions were discussed between Metternich and the Emperor Alexander, who was surrounded with uneasy and half-revolutionary spirits, and who was himself constantly led away by his imagination. The time had come when it seemed necessary to Metternich to choose a new government for France. Metternich and his Emperor saw but one solution, the old French dynasty. They were carrying on war for historical rights ; the whole programme of the coalition was founded on these rights ; they saw no reason to make an exception for France, and to them the son of Napoleon and Maria-Louisa appeared like a representative of the Revolution. Alexander was afraid that France was too hostile to the Bourbons ; he proposed that general elections should take place in France, and that the new Chamber should choose a sovereign. Metternich rejected this plan with energy ; he would rather resign than accept it.

"The execution of this plan would prepare for France and for Europe a long future of confusion and tears. . . . The power of Napoleon is broken ; it will never rise again. Such is the fate of a factitious power when the crisis passes. On the day when the Empire falls nothing is possible but the return of the Bourbons, coming in virtue of their imprescriptible right. They will come back by the force of things, and in conformity with the desire of the nation, which, in my opinion, cannot be doubtful. Never will the Emperor Francis support another government than theirs."

This was the language of a statesman ; Alexander's solution was abandoned. After all that France had gone through, after years of despotism, in the midst of three invading armies, it would have been impossible to go through the farce of elections, and a Constituent Assembly, and declarations of rights. France was under the foot of the conqueror, and as the life of a country cannot suffer interruption, the easiest and simplest thing was to allow the Bourbons to come and retake their places in the country. Nations are really no more free than individuals; when you have lost the game you are not free to pay or not to pay. In 1814 the Bourbons were a necessity, and Metternich saw it at once. A foreign occupation is not a proper time for political experiments. Metternich also understood that in politics he who sets the table will eat the dinner. The Bourbons were half-forgotten in France, but France wanted peace, and if the Bourbons could become the instruments of peace they gained at once a powerful hold on the nation. The British Government was entirely of the same views as the Austrian Government; the restoration of the Bourbons and the return to France within its ancient limits became their common programme; the Congress of Châtillon took place on this basis. Even at that moment Napoleon refused the frontier of the Rhine; perhaps he knew that the Allies were hostile to him personally, but if he had taken them at their word he might have kept his throne. "Marche, marche," says Bossuet to the sinner. No more could Napoleon stop.

The Memoirs give the most interesting details as to what followed, about the Congress of Vienna, the return from the Isle of Elba, and the new campaign which ended at Waterloo, about the final negotiations at Vienna. The part I have gone over shows Metternich at the best moment; he was a man of strong will, determined, with firm and fixed principles, deeply imbued with the notion of historical right and its legitimacy, profoundly hostile to whatever was not founded on law or established by law and treaties; and, therefore, averse not only to popular revolutions and seditions, but also to conquests and usurpations.

OPENING OF THE REICHSTAG.

BERLIN, February 22, 1880.

IT was a rainy and chilly day on which the present session of the Reichstag was opened, but the feeling was still more dull and dispirited with which about eighty out of one hundred deputies went to the royal castle to hear the speech from the throne delivered by the Vice-Chancellor, Count Stolberg. The Emperor, instead of welcoming the representatives of the people, had gone to Potsdam to inspect the sergeants' school. If the statement of those who ought to know can be relied on, he refused to read the paper himself for the reason that Bismarck would not consent to a friendly allusion to Russia. The Chancellor did not feel disposed to act in the Emperor's place because the latter objected to a passage in relation to Austria, while his organs declared that bad health prevented him from ascending the high stairs in the castle. Thus a patchwork was brought about which in its present shape reveals several corrections and omissions, and which was read by Count Stolberg without the least show of applause.

The three positive measures which the imperial message proposes are: 1, A biennial instead of an annual budget, in consequence of which measure the Reichstag would only meet every two years instead of every year ; 2, the increase of the army by some 25,000 men ; 3, the prolongation of the law against the Social-Democrats till 1886 (instead of 1881), to which the Emperor finally adds his wishes and endeavors for the preservation of the European peace. On more than a mere superficial glance, you will at once perceive that he speaks only of the co-operation with those Powers which are animated by the same desire (*gleichgesinnt*). Which, then, are the Powers that do not wish for and guarantee peace ? If all the Powers were animated by the same love of it, it would be superfluous to lay stress on those which agree with the Emperor. Does this imply a kind of reproach against Russia or France ?

After the formal opening of the Reichstag the election of its president and other officers occupied more than a week. It was only on the 20th inst. that by the election of the second vice-president the House succeeded in organizing itself. It is the bane of German parliamentary life that it is not ruled by two powerful parties, but only by cliques and factions. If you wish to understand fully German parliamentary manners and practice you must try to become acquainted with the customs and traditions of German university life, and especially with those of the "Corps" and "Corpsburschen." Instead of subordinating petty differences to the leading questions of the political strife, the most trivial side-issues are often considered paramount to the solution of the most important state interests. Although more than thirty years have passed since the first be-

ginning of parliamentary life in Germany, the majority of her politicians have made little progress in party management. They always remind me of that simple-minded burgher of the city of Darmstadt who, when in 1848 the republican form of government was demanded by his friends, valiantly stepped forth and said: "I also vote for the republic, but with our grand-duke as its hereditary head." Thus, whatever platform you may make, a German always insists upon having his pet idea brought in.

Bismarck, instead of encouraging the formation of large and powerful parties, does his best to disintegrate them. He is impatient of restraint, hates parliamentary debates, and believes that he can best rule with weak parties, which he tries to subjugate entirely to his will. For that reason in the summer of 1878 he dissolved the old Reichstag, as he wanted a more reliable support than that offered him by the National-Liberals. Although the latter were never more than one-third of the whole number of deputies, and although they never asked any political benefits for themselves, such as appointments as ministers, ambassadors, etc., Bismarck found the small amount of independence left to them in his way. He complained that he had to treat with his political friends in every particular case, that he lost too much time in negotiations, in compromising measures, and that he was tired of sacrificing his better judgment to the mere weight of numbers. In the present Reichstag he has obtained a large Conservative party, which, however, is divided against itself, jealous of the Chancellor's daily growing influence, and even hostile to some of his most favorite plans. The Conservatives are therefore of less use to him than the National-Liberals, and can only form a majority through a coalition with Bismarck's most bitter opponents, the Ultramontanes. Prussian Puseyism and Roman Catholicism meet each other half way. This alliance saps the foundations of the Empire, and means a suicidal policy. Thus far Conservatives and Ultramontanes have made their bargains and formed majorities, but it cannot last much longer, as one of the happy family will and must be cheated out of his dues.

It is, however, difficult to say on which side in the present confusion and dissolution of parties the balance of power will fall. Of the 397 members of the House there are at present about 120 Conservatives of all shades, 100 National-Liberals, 100 Ultramontanes, 20 Progressists, 15 Poles, 8 Social-Democrats, and the rest "Wilde" (savages)—*i.e.*, members who do not belong to any party. The following is the result of the Conservative-Ultramontane combination: President, Count Arnim Boytzenburg (a brother-in-law of Harry Arnim), a gentleman of the highest personal character, one of the richest and most independent landowners in the country, Conservative and High-Church; First Vice President, an insignificant Bavarian nobleman, Arbogast Baron Frankenstein, whom the Ultramontanes imposed upon their Conservative brethren; and, Second Vice-President, a more insignificant man even than Frankenstein, a small Saxon lawyer by the name of Ackermann. In order to give their bargain at least a little Liberal shade, Conservatives and Ultramontanes, at the suggestion of the great protectionist intriguer, Varnbüler, had offered the second vice-presidency to a half-and-half Liberal, a Mr. Holder, who, however, did not swallow the bait, and refused to accept the position. Nothing, therefore, was left to the majority but to choose a Saxon state-rights man (Particularist), who was elected by only 102 votes. Thus nine years after the unification of Germany her Parliament is headed by gentlemen who by birth, interest, tradition, and prejudice are the natural enemies of the Empire. To give you a practical idea of the present political situation, imagine that nine years after the defeat of the Southern rebels the speakership and chairmanship of the most important committees of your House of Representatives in Washington had by a formal vote been bestowed on a Bell-and-Everett man, a South-Carolinian *à la* Toombs, and a Missouri border-ruffian. Bismarck angrily declares that he will never have intercourse with the Reichstag in its present organization; but he has only reaped what he has sown, and must therefore see how he can manage without a compact majority.

Thus far there has been only one incident in the proceedings of the Reichstag worth being noticed in an American paper. On the enquiry of Mr. Bamberger, one of the most prominent members of the House, and an authority on all financial and monetary matters, the Secretary of Finance declared on the 20th inst. that the Government had no idea of returning to the bi-metallic system, that no proposition from any quarter had been made to them for the reintroduction of silver as a legal tender, and that Germany would hereafter, as heretofore, strictly adhere to the gold basis. I remark here that, according to the official statement of the Minister of Finance in the Prussian Diet, the sale of silver by the Government had only been stopped on account of its low price in the London market. You will see from these facts that you were perfectly right when last summer you laughed at the nonsense published by Mr. Kelley, of Philadelphia, and that your silver-men will derive little comfort from Germany.

The question which will create the greatest excitement, but which will ultimately be decided in favor of the Government, is the increase of the army. I reserve a fuller treatment of this subject for a later letter. ? ?

Correspondence.

COST OF PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An article in the last number of the *Fortnightly Review* prompts me to fulfil an intention which I formed after the last Presidential election, but which it seemed necessary to defer until the excitement of the election should be past—viz., to raise the question what a Presidential election costs. From the meagre data which I was able to collect I made a rough guess that the election of 1876 cost, down to the day of voting, $100,000 in each State, on the average—or, say, four millions. I mean to include all sums spent by national, State, and local committees, and also all sums spent by politicians and candidates on account of the election, but which were disbursed directly and not through the party committees. The estimate is intended to include both parties.

Can you or any of your readers criticise or correct this guess, or contribute to an approximate estimate? The only person to whom I have submitted it, who is in a position to judge, says I put the expenditure far too low.—Yours respectfully, W. G. S.

New Haven, March 2, 1880.

WHY WE HAVE NO MAUDSLEYS AMONG US.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In one of your late issues you ask very pertinently the question why we do not have in this country men of the capacity of Dr. Maudsley to discuss the subject of insanity. As the same question precisely had occurred to me on reading the two volumes of his last edition I venture, with your permission, to state briefly the answer so far as it is possible to frame it.

1. It is impossible for works of an American origin to obtain any audience if they are very far in advance of the average thought. If Maudsley's book had been first published in this country it would have secured no recognition until it had been stamped with European approval; and it would have cost the author most of his friends, if he had any, and would certainly have blocked and impeded, if not entirely cut off, his pathway to professional success. Even in England, as I have reason to know, he has not entirely escaped.

2. Philosophical works of an original character cannot obtain in this country any considerable amount of intelligent criticism, either favorable or adverse. An original thinker may attain great influence and fame even though his works have no audience, or almost none, as is shown in the lives of Hume and Young; but criticism of some kind, public or private, is indispensable to power or fame. If it do not come before the death of the author it must come after, as with Montaigne. When Maudsley's book was first published (in 1867) the oldest and the leading medical journal of this country devoted page after page to show how absurd and worthless a treatise it was, and what a terrible influence it would have on society. The consequence is that all our philosophical ideas are either direct importations or reimportations—that is, originated here and approved abroad. Our ideas, like our silks, must have the stamp of Europe upon them even if manufactured here.

The above remarks need two qualifications: First. Philosophical works of a scientific character of foreign birth are more widely read here than in any other country. They are read, however, with the emotions more than with the intellect, as fables and tales, and, without any certain conception of the philosophy that so much interests them, the readers do not know what side the author is on. It is this fact that saves the few thinkers we have from social ostracism and actual failure in life. Copernicus, as we all know, was saved in the same way. Secondly. There is constant and rapid improvement in all these respects; criticisms are becoming more valuable, and the audience for works that contain new ideas is widening; but even now very few individuals and few journals are able to decide whether any new contribution to thought is a great truth or a great folly until England and Germany have been heard from.

At the present time it would appear that, in spite of all the popularization of German thought and modes of thinking among the English-speaking peoples, Germany is the only country where one can think without paying a tax so heavy as not to be almost prohibitory; and German criticism and endorsement are what a man who is organized for thinking chiefly cares for.

GEO. M. BEARD.

NEW YORK, March 8, 1880.

Notes.

THE second part of the late Mr. George Brinley's American Library is to be sold by the Messrs. Leavitt, at Clinton Hall, on Monday, March 22, and the following days. The catalogue comprises 1,714 lots and more than 3,000 titles, all of which, except a few New England addenda to the first part, relate to the Atlantic States from New York to Georgia. In "first works" printed in these colonies the collection is very rich, and among the addenda is the first work printed in Boston, as well as such rarities as Thomas Morton's 'New English Canaan,' and the 'Cambridge Platform,' London ed. 1653. The Dutch books concerning the New Netherlands are also of the rarest. As appertaining to Pennsylvania we have a precious assortment of Frankliniana, including numerous productions of Franklin's press and his own copy of a London work, 'Experiments on Electricity' (1751–4). Here also belong numerous works involving the Quakers—George Fox's 'Great Mystery,' with his autograph; the first edition, uncut, of Woolman's 'Considerations on the Keeping of Negroes' (1754), etc. Virginia introduces Washingtoniana in great variety—Washington's 'Journal,' ed. of 1754, American and English, the former almost unique; a vast store of funeral orations and eulogies on the Father of his Country, etc., etc. The catalogue is an admirable piece of bibliography, and Mr. Trumbull enjoys tossing Mr. J. R. Bartlett for his 'Dictionary of Americanisms' a Boston use of the party nickname "Silver Greys" as early as 1813.——A proof "portrait en pied" of Washington, by N. le Mire after L. le Paon, marked "rarissime," is offered in the collection of engravings made by M. Élie Angély, who died in 1797, to be sold on the 5th of April at the Hague. A companion portrait of Lafayette follows it in the catalogue, which has been received by L. W. Schmidt.——The new edition, already announced as in the press of J. B. Lippincott & Co., of their 'Gazetteer of the World,' will be ready towards the close of the present month.——On the 1st of March the publishing business heretofore carried on by Henry C. Lea, Philadelphia, was assumed by a new firm, Henry C. Lea's Son & Co., of which Mr. H. C. Lea becomes the special partner.——Lee & Shepard have in press 'The True Story of the Exodus of Israel,' compiled from Brugsch-Bey, and edited with introduction and notes by Francis H. Underwood.——T. Whittaker announces 'Lectures on Social Questions,' by the Rev. J. H. Rylance, D.D.——The Board of Directors of the Nashville Centennial Commission offer a prize of one hundred dollars for the best Centennial Ode to be read or sung at the celebration, on April 24 prox., of the city's hundredth birthday, which the poet must take for his subject, contenting himself with one hundred lines. The President of the Commission, Dr. T. A. Atchinson, will receive the poems, with the authors' names in sealed envelopes, up to April 1.——The Bureau of Ethnology of the Smithsonian Institution has just issued the second of its preliminary papers, 'Introduction to the Study of Sign-Language among the North American Indians as Illustrating the Gesture-Speech of Mankind,' by Col. Garrick Mallery. The author shows by numerous examples how erroneous is Mr. Tylor's statement that one system of sign-language prevails from Hudson's Bay to the Gulf of Mexico; gives a corresponding set of instances of resemblance; enumerates the sources from which these are derived, and closes with a vocabulary on which observations in sign-language are requested, and diagrams illustrating the mode in which the gestures should be represented. These last will be mailed on request by Col. Mallery.——Cassell, Petter & Galpin's 'Science for All,' an anomalous serial, well printed and well illustrated, continues to furnish much popular information on all sorts of phenomena (Parts 11–13).——Part 9 of Dr. Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians' (Macmillan) has been with good reason delayed, as it is nearly half occupied by the two titles of *Mendelssohn* and *Mozart*, the latter begun, the former concluded. Altogether, Mendelssohn has 59 pages allotted him, of which two and a half are filled by an inedited first movement of a posthumous symphony. Moscheles naturally finds a place beside his friend. The only other great composer included is Meyerbeer. Thomas Moore is not overlooked. Other noticeable titles are Metre, Metronome, Modes (the ecclesiastical), Modulation, Motet.——A fac-simile of Louis Joliet's oldest map of North America is published in the *Revue de Géographie*.——Few books promise more than the 'Souvenirs de Frédéric Lemaître,' published by his son, and few are more disappointing. These recollections of the actor who bore a foremost part in the dramatic battles of the Romantic revolution are too incomplete, fragmentary, and empty to be of any value or even of any interest. They abound also in errors, the obvious result of carelessness.——No. 84 of the *Zeitschrift* of the Berlin Geographical Society contains the usual classified summary by Dr. Koner of the geographical publications of 1879. A map of Upper Egypt from Thebes to Kosseir, on the Red Sea, accompanies Dr. Klunzinger's account of his travels in this region.

—The children of the late Mr. George Brinley, of Hartford, in carrying out the intentions of their father, invited certain institutions (Yale College, American Antiquarian Society, Watkinson Library of Hartford, New York Historical Society, and Pennsylvania Historical Society), to bid off free of cost, at the auction of their father's library, books to the amount of $25,000; one-half or a less proportion to be received at the sale of the first part, which took place in March, 1879. The American Antiquarian Society, by availing itself of the privilege conveyed through this invitation, has added 686 books and pamphlets to its library in Worcester, as many as 60 being works of the Mathers. Mr. Nathaniel Paine, the treasurer of the society, has lately published a pamphlet of 54 pages, giving a list of the books obtained at the Brinley sale, and also a catalogue of the Mather publications heretofore possessed by the society. Mr. Paine's pamphlet is a valuable contribution to Mather bibliography. It furnishes a list of 307 printed and 33 manuscript works of the Mather family, the title, collation, and imprint of each printed work, besides a number of interesting notes. The first three books on page 50, credited to "Samuel Mather of Boston," are manifestly by another hand. Samuel Mather (of Boston), born in 1706, is not likely to have prepared for the press a Latin oration in 1713 nor to have published "discourses" in 1719. We may say, to be exact, that Samuel Mather of Witney, England, an uncle of the Boston Samuel, was the real author of the three works mentioned.

—At the International Congress of Geographical Sciences assembled in Paris in 1875 the commissioners of sixteen countries, the United States included, signed a resolution pledging themselves to solicit their respective governments to organize central offices for the collection and international exchange of chartographical, geographical, and other state publications. We do not know what has been done in this country, where the Smithsonian Institution has long fulfilled all the objects of the proposed office so far as lay in its power. A circular letter from Sr. Mendonça, Consul-General of Brazil in this city, informs us that a Brazilian Central Commission of International Permutation has been created by the Emperor at Rio, under the Presidency of Dr. J. J. de C. da C. de Medeiros e Alburquerque, and that any scientific, literary, or artistic society desiring to enter into communication with it can do so directly or through the medium of the Consulate-General, 71 Broadway. We improve the opportunity to suggest that Congress could not do better than to employ the Smithsonian Institution to catalogue and dispose of, at fixed prices, the public documents which are now so recklessly and lavishly rather than generously distributed. The service, of course, would have to be paid for, but the economy would be immense, and the example of order and economy most beneficial to the States, whose practices are no less negligent even if less prodigal.

—A year and a half ago (*Nation*, No. 692) we spoke here of a little tract, printed by Collins Brothers, describing the cocoa-rooms of the British Workman Public Company of Liverpool. We will recall so much of it as to say that these places of resort were intended to compete with the grog-shops, that there were at the time indicated twenty-nine of them in successful operation, and that success meant ten per cent. dividends on a capital of $100,000. This tract seems to have borne fruit, for we have before us the prospectus of the New York Coffee House Company, Limited, which begins with a capital stock of $50,000, in two thousand shares of $25 each. The Liverpool example, and similar experiments in London, Glasgow, and Edinburgh, are referred to as models. When we have given the names of the directors, viz., Messrs. Morris K. Jesup, Henry E. Pellew, Cornelius R. Agnew, Charles Collins, Wm. E. Dodge, jr., Jos. W. Drexel, John A. Stewart, and Wm. H. Appleton, and of the bankers, the United States Trust Company, 49 Wall Street, we have done all that is necessary to show that this philanthropic enterprise is in the

best of hands, morally and financially. We strongly urge all who wish their benevolence to take a practical shape, and who realize the evils of intemperance in our overcrowded metropolis, to invest in the shares of this company, with or without regard to dividends. Not more than a quarter of the subscription will be called for during one year. Mr. Drexel is chairman of the company, Mr. Jesup Treasurer, and Mr. Pellew Secretary; the temporary office is at No. 103 Madison Avenue.

—The awards of the *Sanitary Engineer* prizes for school-plans have been published. The Committee consider that the conditions imposed "were of such a character that it is probably impossible to produce a plan which should be recommended as one which should be constructed." This was chiefly owing to the insurmountable difficulty of obtaining light in the narrow limits imposed. Many of the plans would make excellent school-buildings if surrounded by a sufficient open space. The first recommendation made by the Committee is, in effect, a demand for a corner lot and a free space in front of the two faces of at least sixty feet. Other suggestions are: No more than three floors to be used for class-rooms; maximum height of class-rooms, fourteen feet; fifteen square feet of floor-area per scholar, and thirty cubic feet of air continuously supplied per minute and head; fresh air introduced near windows, and removed by flues in opposite wall; window-space not less than one-fourth of floor-space; distance of desk furthest from window not to exceed once and one-half the height of window-head from floor; maximum temperature, seventy degrees; heating by water or low-pressure steam; water-closet accommodation for pupils on each floor; the building to occupy not more than one-half of the lot. The committee wish it distinctly understood "that they do not recommend the plans to which they have given awards as being the best designs for a school-building, but only as the best plans for a school-building to be built in a huge box lacking one side and without a top, the sides of which box are about sixty feet high—which seem to be the conditions under which school-buildings have been erected in New York, and in which from 1,500 to 2,500 children have been crowded."

—A subscriber in Iowa writes us as follows under date of Feb. 20:

"At a meeting held to learn the sentiments of the Republicans of this town on the third-term question the enclosed resolutions [adverse] were unanimously passed. The sentiment here is that voting for Grant in any case is a choice of evils, and that as between him and some good Democrat, like Bayard, voting for the latter would be considered the lesser. One thing was discovered that was a surprise to us all—that each one was personally strongly opposed to Grant and the third term, but did not know that his neighbor was.'"

—Mr. Theodore Thomas has resigned his position as Musical Director of the Cincinnati College of Music in consequence of the inability of the Board of Managers to comply with his demand for complete control of the musical department. The long correspondence preceding this step throws little light upon the causes of it; for though there was clearly a personal issue between the President of the Board, Mr. George Ward Nichols, and Mr. Thomas, the latter exhibits a not unnatural reticence in regard to the details of Mr. Nichols's interference. Apparently he thought the Board ought to understand this without his going into particulars; and the fact that they did not or would not, may have convinced him that it was not worth while to be explicit concerning matters which he regarded as beside the main issue. The result has been that each party to this unfortunate controversy has charged upon the other a want of frankness, which is certainly not a failing of at least one member of the Board Committee, General J. D. Cox, who fully shared the views of his colleagues, Messrs. Goshorn and Springer, and perhaps was the author of their joint letter. In an educational institution whose endowment is not sufficient to make it independent of the public patronage, the difficulty of separating the business interests from the professional is obvious. There is some trace of this in the present case, but, as we have said above, the fundamental difference is as to the headship of Mr. Nichols in Mr. Thomas's domain.

—The last week of Italian opera was, from an artistic point of view, in every respect the most successful of the season. Three of the operas given, "Linda," "Favorita," and "Aïda," were rendered in so admirable a manner that they must rank among the best performances of Italian opera that have ever been witnessed in this country. In "Aïda" the honors of the evening fell to the lot of Mlle. Valleria, who gave a most charming impersonation of the heroine. Since Mlle. Marimon's arrival Mlle. Valleria's powers have not been taxed to such an extent as before, and she seems to have profited by the rest she has enjoyed; her voice sounded remarkably fresh and full, and her acting was very graceful and interesting. The remaining parts were filled by the same artists as in the early part of the season, and the whole performance was noticeably smooth and pleasing. "La Favorita," however, which was performed on Friday, was the greatest triumph. Sig. Campanini assumed for the first time in this country the part of *Fernando*, and made this interesting rôle perhaps the strongest character in his extensive répertoire. He was never in better voice, and rang out repeatedly the upper C with full chest-voice and with delightful facility and perfect purity of intonation. His acting reached a climax of fire and passion in the closing scene of the third act, where he throws his broken sword at the prince's feet. Miss Cary sang the part of *Leonora* with exquisite taste and beautiful voice. Her acting is at times a little cold and conventional, but, taking everything into consideration, her *Leonora* is a decided artistic success. Sig. del Puente was evidently indisposed and did not show to fullest advantage. Herr Behrens was a very good *Baldassaro*, and the chorus showed excellent training. "Aïda" was Col. Mapleson's trump card during the fall season, and was again given on Monday with a brilliant *mise-en-scène* and a considerably enlarged chorus and orchestra. Mlle. Ambre is a not very powerful but a very charming and interesting *Aïda*, and the *Amneris* of Miss Cary and the *Rhadames* of Sig. Campanini have so often been heard and admired that they need no further comment.

—Mr. Joseffy's orchestral concerts have so far introduced only one novelty—a fantaisie with orchestra, by Liszt, on Beethoven's "Ruins of Athens," which he played with his usual brilliancy on Monday night. The first concert of chamber-music introduced an interesting programme, including Schubert's trio in E flat, a gavotte by Bach, arranged for the left hand alone by Brahms, the Kreutzer Sonata, and a charming duo for two pianos by Reinecke, on one of the most striking subjects from Schumann's music to "Manfred."

—Considering that Booth's Theatre was constructed for the production of Shaksperian drama the state into which it has fallen within the last few years is somewhat remarkable. Irish melodrama and French opera have in turn made it their home, and finally a house designed for nothing below the level of *Shylock* and *Lear* is occupied by a pantomime company. Pantomime has been given a certain importance in the eyes of the present generation by the fact that Thackeray was so fond of it and wrote so much about it. For some reason the adventures of *Harlequin* and *Columbine* possessed an inexhaustible interest for the author of 'Vanity Fair,' and his books are full of allusions to it. We doubt whether the great novelist would altogether approve the latest improvements in the art of pantomime as produced at Booth's. These consist of having a double set of Harlequins, Columbines, Pantaloons, and Clowns. The only real advantage gained is that the pantomime can be kept going for a considerably longer time, one set of performers being allowed to rest from their arduous physical exertions while the other is on the stage. But we suspect the main motive of the innovation is a mistaken idea that doubling the number doubles the amusement. Instead of having this effect it really spoils the unity of the performance, and makes it dramatically almost as absurd as having two *Ghosts* in "Hamlet" or two *Hunchbacks* in the play of that name would be. Apart from this the pantomime at Booth's is in many respects the best we have ever seen, and for children there is now no better entertainment in the city. Of the "Spanish Students" (brought in as an interlude) we cannot say as much. This entertainment consists of a musical performance by some twenty persons on stringed instruments. Of these some are guitars and some are played in very much the same way. We do not desire for a moment to throw any doubt upon the Spanish origin of the performers, but that being taken for granted, it is remarkable how very American their cast of countenance is, while it is still more remarkable that, among their favorite melodies should be the "Turkish Patrol," "My Mary Ann," and other airs which can hardly yet be much known in Spanish institutions of learning. The music is very good for any one who likes to hear a number of strings played in unison without the relief of other instruments. They may like this in Spain better than we do.

—The sixth volume of the 'Théâtre Complet' of M. Alexandre Dumas has recently appeared in Paris. It contains his two latest dramas, "M. Alphonse" and "L'Étrangère," each accompanied by an introduction. Those who remember the subject of "M. Alphonse" will have no difficulty in guessing what the author talks about in the preface to this play. Most of it is given up to the injustice of society to illegitimate children, and he concludes his argument with a satirical suggestion

(p. 52) that since so large a percentage of natural children die every year their bodies should be used as fertilizers; adding that if the public recoils from this logical suggestion then it ought to see to it that the percentage be diminished. The preface to "L'Étrangère" is of more general interest, treating of naturalism on the stage. It is, in fact, a direct answer to M. Zola's essay on the same subject prefixed to the 'Annales du Théâtre et de la Musique.' Here M. Dumas speaks with authority. He points out that an absolute reproduction of nature is neither possible nor desirable. He shows that there are everyday situations which cannot be put on the stage, and that no matter how naturalistic one may desire to be there is always a point at which imitation of nature must stop and convention take its place. "An artist," he says (p 168), "a true artist, has a higher and more difficult mission than the mere reproduction of what is; he has to discover and to reveal to us that which we do not see in things we look at every day, that which he alone has the faculty of perceiving in what is apparently patent to all of us."

—*Nature*, which has all along been very civil to Mr. Edison, as it invariably is to American science and genius, cannot put up with the "first correct and authoritative account" of his electric-light invention given in the February *Scribner's* by the Mathematician of Menlo Park, and endorsed by Edison's autograph. "We fear," it says in its issue for February 12, "Mr. Edison is thirty-five years behind the time in his new invention," and proceeds to describe the electric lamp patented by King in England in 1845, "in which a thin rod of carbon was placed in an exhausted globe," and "a similar lamp designed by Lodyguine in 1873." The only difference between these and Mr. Edison's, it says, is that he "prefers a different, and apparently less durable, kind of prepared carbon," and even "in the employment of carbonized paper he has been more than once anticipated." It then traces the various mistaken and wasteful steps in his progress as confessed by the Mathematician; notes the so-called "discovery" that "mercurial air-pumps could be constructed to exhaust to one-millionth of an atmosphere," which had been known in Europe for some time, it being also known that with all this exhaustion "there may yet remain many millions of millions of molecules of air, enough to make the disintegration of the incandescent carbon fibre only a question of time"; finds no new principle or any important improvement in his generator (Edison's "Faradic machine"); and ridicules the Mathematician's calculations in the *Scientific American* to prove that ninety per cent. of the energy of the driving-engine is given out by the machine. The article concludes with some wholesome remarks on Mr. Edison's duty to "devote some time to learning what has already been done in this field," and not less wholesome censure of "reckless newspaper announcements . . . by which the public mind is periodically fluttered."

—In view of the efforts sometimes made to hold up to admiration Mohammedanism, in contrast with Christianity, as the patron of science, it may be interesting to notice what is said about the matter in a recent report to the Asiatic Society of Paris, by M. Renan, whose authority on such subjects is unsurpassed, and whom no one will accuse of excessively Christian predilections:

"During several centuries the Mohammedan races were of real service to civilization, not by seriously contributing to its progress, but by preserving its traditions, which German barbarism had suffered to perish. But how avoid detesting that gloomy fanaticism, that senseless pride, that hatred for Europe, and especially for European science, which have been almost everywhere the result of Islam! With reference to this subject the difference of dates is of importance. Down to the thirteenth century elements of excellence in Islam keep up the struggle against the rising flood of theological intolerance; then the victory of theology becomes complete; science and philosophy die out; and with them all force and all life quit this doomed society. Yes, science and philosophy flourished on Mussulman soil during the first half of the middle ages; but it was not by reason of Islam, it was in spite of Islam. Not a Mussulman philosopher or scholar escaped persecution. During the period just specified persecution is less powerful than the instinct of free enquiry, and the rationalistic tradition is kept alive; then intolerance and fanaticism win the day. It is true that the Christian Church also cast great difficulties in the way of science in the middle ages; but she did not strangle it outright, as did the Mussulman theology. To give Islam the credit of Averroës and of so many other illustrious thinkers, who passed half their life in prison, in forced hiding, in disgrace, whose books were burned and whose writings almost suppressed by theological authority, is as if one were to ascribe to the Inquisition the discoveries of Galileo, and a whole scientific development which it was not able to prevent."

—A recent number of the London *Times* gives an interesting account of a Japanese "find" of singular curiosity and perhaps some practical importance. The existence of a great number of Chinese-Sanskrit sacred texts, which resulted from the introduction of Buddhism into China in the first century of our era, is of course no news; they have already, in the hands of Western scholars, served important purposes in throwing light on the great religion of the East. What has long been desired and has hitherto escaped discovery in the Flowery Kingdom is the original Sanskrit from which the Chinese versions were made. Some years ago Dr. Edkins submitted to Prof. Max Müller a vocabulary printed in Japan, containing Sanskrit words explained in Chinese and transliterated into Japanese—proof that the language of Buddhism had once been studied in Japan. Shortly afterward, one of the greatest Buddhist communities in Japan sent a young Buddhist priest, Bunyin Nanjio, to Prof. Müller at Oxford, in order that by learning Sanskrit and Pali he might be able to read the sacred writings in the original. Through this pupil the professor prompted a search for Sanskrit MSS. at home, and last December was rewarded with a book sent out by a learned Buddhist priest which proved to be "the hitherto unknown Sanskrit original of a Sûtra translated into Chinese 400 A.D., possibly 200 A.D., and contained a description of the Buddhist Paradise, which with the Northern Buddhists took the place of Buddha's Nirvâna." The Sanskrit was written in the old and difficult Nepalese alphabet, and was full of mistakes; each word was transliterated with Japanese letters, and translated into Chinese. Prof. Müller succeeded in making a corrected copy with translation and notes, which he will return as requested. He finds that the Chinese versions are "full of misunderstandings, sometimes affecting the very essence of Buddha's teachings"; and that the Buddhism of Japan is on many points in direct opposition to those teachings, being chiefly founded on the Mahâyâna school. Her thirty million Buddhists could, he thinks, have no greater boon conferred on them than "to have the simple words of Buddha translated for them into Japanese direct from Sanskrit and Pali."

THE EMOTIONS.*

IN this volume we miss something of the incisiveness of Dr. McCosh's other works. He has usually written under the spur of some distinct idea, strongly held, and enforced with a thoroughgoing ardor that could not fail to be impressive even if it could not be reconciled with the latest conclusions of science. He was always armed for attack and quite clear as to his opponent's blunders in every field of battle. This work, however, seems to have been written more as a college text-book, and confines itself more closely to description, though one would suppose that Princeton students were already sufficiently familiar with that aspect of the subject. It is full of clear, cool good sense, and it is not duller than such books usually are. It is not as subtle in its analysis of character as a New-Englander would probably have made it, but it is simpler. A complete resolution of so complicated a thing as human character is not to be expected. "Unmixed the stream of motive rarely flows," and the foaming champagne of passion loses its life in the laboratory before we can test it with our psychological reagents.

The interest in the study of the emotions lies in their laws of growth, in the complexity of the forms which the combinations take in real life, in the close relation which certain emotions seem to have had to certain forms of civilization, and in their relative value to our own. Dr. McCosh, however, merely attempts to present their elements, and says little or nothing of their history or laws. Some parts of his exposition seem incomplete, even when judged by his own meagre plan, such as the passage touching the interesting question of the localization of faculties in the brain. On the other hand, the brief résumé of the æsthetic characteristics of some of the leading authors whom Dr. McCosh is familiar with (and one would almost suspect of some with whom he is not, from the odd allusion to Hawthorne's poetry—but the suspicion would, we are convinced, be unjust), and further on again of the principal points of interest in the scenery of Europe and America which he has visited, seems scarcely necessary in a work so narrowly limited. Sometimes he does not seem to have fully thought out the points he raises, as, for instance, in his treatment of the theories of the beautiful of Plato and Ruskin, which he cannot accept and yet dislikes to reject. It is disappointing to find that Dr. McCosh had not made up his mind about them when he printed his book.

He begins by analyzing emotions into appetences, phantasms, excitements, and organic affections, considering that there must always be present these four elements: the desire, the idea, the mental excitement,

* 'The Emotions. By James McCosh, D.D., LL.D.' New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1880. 8vo, pp. 255.

and the accompanying nervous action ; but he naturally finds some difficulty in distinguishing the parts both of the first and second pair in his treatment. He then goes on to examine the emotions separately, classifying them according as they are called forth by animate or inanimate objects, or are compound in character or are generally shared by others. The introductory analysis might very well be carried farther, and the mental processes reduced in number. Appetence, in any definite sense, does not seem to be necessarily involved in emotion. If we follow the process by which a thought changes into an emotion, when, for instance, an abstract disapproval of a man's course becomes intensified into hate, as it is realized that that conduct seriously injures some dear friend, we see that the thought becomes passionate through the change effected in it by the agitation which aggrieved friendship causes. There are not three distinct mental processes here combined in one, as might be supposed from Dr. McCosh. There is but one process—that is, an idea colored by the disturbance of the medium in which it arises. As the agitation increases, the mental action is more and more impeded by the intensity of the idea presented, until only the single hated image remains. While it is almost universally admitted that the thought is a distinct thing from the nervous action (even by Spencer, Dr. McCosh to the contrary notwithstanding), it is not so clear that the excitement is anything more than a disturbance of the physical basis without whose action thought cannot proceed. A mere physical change in the nerves may convert a thought into an emotion, as is often seen in the diseased ; and there is some gain in simplicity in supposing that the physical cause is the only one.

To take another illustration : we notice a smoke in the theatre, and conclude that there is a fire from which it would be wise to retreat. So far there may be no emotion. But the smell and glare and roar of the flames excite our nerves and we start up ; the audience rushes wildly towards the doors, and sympathy increases our agitation. The emotion of fear has arisen, and it is only by a great effort that we can stop to think what we had better do. The nervous excitement increases overpoweringly in the mad rush that follows, until at last we have only the one intensely vivid idea of escape. Here there is simply one thing—a mental process, first intensified, and then impeded in its movement by growing excitation of the brain. And we may look upon emotions in general simply as ideas altered by the unusual increase of the nervous action which in some degree always accompanies thought. They may differ, as Dr. McCosh says, in their intellectual element, as one or another idea has the same embodying passion ; or they may differ on the other side according as the physical element varies. A complete analysis on this line would, of course, require a separation between the different kinds of excitement in a way that Dr. McCosh does not attempt. The aggressive excitement which makes jealousy or revenge so absorbing has a very different character from the passive abandonment to dreamy music or ecstatic devotion. Moreover, there is an important difference between the disturbance effected by pleasurable or painful excitements, and we should also distinguish the perturbations connected with special bodily organs, and perhaps some other nervous conditions. These things are real, and a classification founded on them brings together things like each other in other respects, while Dr. McCosh's arrangement seems artificial, and brings together in one class feelings as different as self-esteem, hatred, benignancy, remorse, gratitude, and anger. There is an accidental connection between them in their origin, but they are not at all alike. And here we may remark that a good many of the feelings classed as emotions in Dr. McCosh's list are not properly emotions, not having usually the essential characteristic of agitation or excitement.

The great fault that will be found with the volume will probably be that the author's old dislike to anything like evolution prevents him from giving any attention to the origin of emotions and their relative value to civilization, so that his work is little more than a collection of simple data for a scientific exposition, and not arranged in such a way as particularly to further research. The preliminary labor upon their origin has been performed by others with some fulness in connection with other investigations, and Dr. McCosh might easily have availed himself of it if his prejudices had not intervened. A work showing the use of the various emotions and their relative development and importance in the various stages of civilization, with their present bearing upon our growth and their probable weight in the future, would be very interesting. Our own time has its special emotional problem. The dying out of all strong passion is one of the most marked features of our modern money-making civilization. Each year leaves us nearer a dead level of passionless industry. Certain superficial social sympathies are almost the only emotions that are not felt to be in our way. We are ashamed of anything vehement, good or bad, and look on enthusiasm as a pleasant but childish amusement, to be laid aside before we attack the stern realities of life. The mere growth of civilization does not account for this ; for the great civilizations of old went through no such change in their growth, apparently, except as to their love of fighting. Will this peculiarity of ours save us from their decay ? However this may be, the world seems to have changed, and a scientific account of the change would be very instructive. We do not, of course, complain of Dr. McCosh for not executing in this book a plan that has never entered his head. His work is good enough in its way ; but it is, after all, only an imperfectly arranged summary of well-known data, and the psychology of the future is still to be written.

A WOMAN'S ACCOUNT OF CANTON.*

THIS unpretending volume by Mrs. Gray is one of the few books upon China whose perusal carries its own evidence of the author's truthfulness, candor, and kindness. The reader soon begins to feel the same interest in the Cantonese that she has ; and before he lays down the book comes to regard them as men and women with like feelings as ourselves, and not, as has often been the case, as curiosities, if not monstrosities, with whom it is needless to cultivate sympathy. Almost everything touched upon in these letters is indeed described or alluded to in her husband's book ; but she has thrown into her sketches that animation and unaffected good-will, which make them worthy of standing on the same shelf with Lady Mary Wortley Montagu's 'Letters' about the Turks. Mrs. Gray is the wife of Archdeacon John Henry Gray, who was British chaplain at Canton from 1851 to 1877, and during that period made himself more conversant, probably, with the people and places in and around Canton than any other foreigner. His recent work presents the results of his observations at Canton and elsewhere in China during those twenty-five years; but his wife's letters contain the true evidences of the personal regard felt for him by its citizens.

Fifty years ago Canton was all there was of China that could be seen by the foreigner, and this sight was confined to the suburbs, where he was hooted at, if not stoned, whenever he ventured far into their intricate streets and lanes. His ignorance as to the social life and real feelings of the mass of human beings whom he gazed at as they hurried on through the streets, was only exceeded by their utter disregard, if not contempt, of him and the outer world he came from. To buy and sell tea, silk, opium, long-cloths, etc., was the only common ground on which the two parties met, and this ground did not bring forth even a promise of anything better; although the antipathy, the fear, the suspicion, and the ignorance which existed in the minds of both were restrained and alleviated by many kindly influences growing out of the conviction that quietness, honesty, and courtesy were as essential to the conduct of a profitable trade between them as goods and money. As one looks back to the state of things existing in Canton at the cessation of the East India Company's monopoly in 1834, it seems more remarkable that there was, on the whole, so much peace and good feeling between foreigners and natives during the one hundred and fifty years previous, than that broils and disputes were constantly arising at Canton and Whampoa.

This book of Mrs. Gray's describes the real change and improvement that has taken place in Canton since that date, better than anything we have seen. She has, of course, no knowledge of the annoyances which a pedestrian experienced then—of the insulting language used by the people as he passed by ; the hooting of children, crying *fan-kwei lo !* (foreign devil), or the stones thrown and pockets rifled, if he ventured beyond the north side of the city walls. No foreign women were allowed to come up to the Thirteen Hongs, as the foreign residences were called, much less live there. We remember the expression of disgust on the face of the great hong-merchant, Howqua, when the question of their coming to live there was brought up in 1840, as he said : "No can ! No want-chee that outside woman come Canton side !" This was the general sentiment, and those foreigners who knew it best looked forward to a slow and disagreeable reception of their wives and daughters by the educated families in native society. We do not here refer to those days of restraint to find fault with these families, for all the people were shut out from every meliorating influence by the restrictive regulations which kept them separated from foreigners. Mrs. Gray shows how the same families now regard and treat outside women, for whom their grandfathers had no more polite name than *fan-kwei po*, or foreign devils' old crones. One ex-

* 'Fourteen Months in Canton. By Mrs. Gray.' With Illustrations. London and New York : Macmillan & Co. 1880. Post 8vo, pp. 444.

tract will be enough, containing her description of a visit on the 30th of May to the grandson of this same Howqua :

"I am glad to say that I have had my great wish granted, and have been admitted into the inner family life of a Chinese home. About eleven o'clock last Friday seven Chinese gentlemen belonging to, or friends of, the Howqua family, called upon us ; amongst them was a son of our particular friend, the widower, about whom I wrote the other day. He said that his mother would much like to see *Nai-nai*, and asked us if we would call upon her that afternoon. We went about three o'clock, and were received by young Mr. Howqua. . . .

"When we had sat some time with the ladies (my little friend and I ; the gentlemen were in a separate room), I thought it time to take leave ; but on rising I was told that a European dinner had been prepared for us and would soon be ready. We were then conducted by Mrs. Howqua, she leading me by the hand, into the room where my husband and the gentlemen of the family were assembled, and a long table arranged in true English style. Dinner was soon ready and Mr. Howqua placed me on his right hand and Henry on his left. . . .

"When dinner was over, Mrs. Howqua stepped into the room, and spoke to me, saying she hoped I had had a good dinner. She ordered a young slave to fan me, and from that moment this poor little girl, eight years old, fanned me vigorously with a large palm fan ; and if she desisted for a minute, Mr. Howqua turned and frowned at her. It was a luxury much to be appreciated, for the room had become stiflingly hot. . . . The ladies claimed me when dinner was over, and Minnie and I returned to their apartments. I was then taken by Mrs. Howqua (her position is somewhat difficult to explain to you, as she is the third of the widows still living of the late Mr. Howqua) to pay my respects to the small-footed widow of old Mr. Howqua. The old lady gave me tea and sweetmeats, and questioned me in the same manner as the other ladies had done, as to my age, how long I had been in the country, etc.

"Every ornament I had was taken off and handled by the old lady, who asked me how much each had cost ; whether my watch-chain was true gold, the price of my dress and hat, and a string of similar questions. . . . You would have been amused to see me as I walked from room to room, my hand held by my hostess, and a slave-girl holding up my dress behind; they looked upon it as a train" (pp. 121–129).

In Letter XIV. Mrs. Gray gives the details of the return visit of Mrs. Howqua and her party of daughters and children, with eight native gentlemen connected with the family, making seventeen in all, besides the men and maid-servants—a truly formidable company in appearance. The account is just long enough to give one a good idea of the interview, for its author is very happy in detecting and touching on the most noticeable points without wearying the reader. The improvement in foreign intercourse at Canton which these visits indicate to one who knew the entire separation of the two races forty years ago, has been brought about by just such kindly acts as Archdeacon Gray practised daily towards all whom he met during his whole residence. It was reciprocated on their part as they came to know him better, and to learn from him and other foreigners, who could talk the local dialect, that they were neither savages nor devils.

Among the meliorating influences in removing this idea, the missionary hospital opened by our countryman, Dr. Peter Parker, in October, 1835, may be mentioned. It was one of the chief agencies in bringing the favorable traits of Western civilization to the knowledge of the people at large, and its beneficial influence during the forty-five years it has existed at Canton, during which time 750,000 patients have been relieved, has helped to bring about the good feeling described in these letters. The same Howqua who expressed so much disgust in 1840 at the idea of foreign women coming to Canton to live, was so pleased with the free hospital opened by Dr. Parker for the relief of poor Chinese that for twenty years he gave him the building rent free, a total contribution of nearly twenty thousand dollars. The schools, the chapels, the visits, and the varied efforts of the missionaries, both men and women, who live in and around the city, have also done much to increase mutual confidence.

The following letter describes an entirely new state of intercourse and regard among the highest officials in the province. Mrs. Gray, Aug. 9, 1877, writes :

"Since I wrote my letter about the military examinations, Henry and I have again made an early excursion into the city to see the imposing ceremony of the autumnal state worship paid to Confucius. We left the chaplaincy at the trying hour of 2.45 A.M., and went by boat to the official landing-place, and thence to the chief Confucian temple. Henry had written the day before to M. Sales, French vice-consul, to be so kind as to request the mandarin to have the great east gate near his consulate opened for us. We obtained the permission, but had no idea at the time that we were really asking a favor difficult to be granted. We had chairs in readiness at the gate, and reached the temple at four o'clock.

"The precincts were already crowded by Chinese gentlemen and their attendants, who, like ourselves, had come to see the state worship. Long before we reached the temple we saw numerous lanterns arranged on tripods, and groups of the city guard on the ground around them. . . .

"The large shrine, brilliantly illuminated, contained the offerings presented this day to Confucius. We went to see them, and a strange sight it was. . . .

"The viceroy and Manchu general of the city were, in the meantime, robing and chin-chinning each other. One of the officials had seen us pass up to the shrine, and had ordered an attendant to accompany us, who was most attentive, and gave us the best position possible to see the ceremony. And now the mandarins walked towards the front of the shrine in procession, the viceroy and general first, the others following in order, to the accompaniment of a band of music, the civilians arranging themselves on one side of the great quadrangle, the military on the other. As before, a master of ceremonies gave the word of command throughout the proceedings. The *ko-tau* was first performed simultaneously by all the civil and military mandarins present; then the viceroy and general left the quadrangle, the former going up the steps on the left, and the latter on the right, to the shrine. No man, save the Emperor, may go up the central stairs leading direct to the shrine of the great Confucius. The two magnates moved with much deliberation and dignity, each taking a step at the same moment as the other, for fear one might get a little in advance. Each was accompanied by a bachelor of arts and by a conductor of ceremonies. . . .

"Nine times the great men walked up with solemn step to the shrine, the viceroy sometimes knocking his head, and making his offerings at the chief altar, and sometimes at a lesser altar. The last three times he went before the three small altars on the left of the shrine, while the general finished his three final acts before the three on the right side. Here I was standing, and I had to move one side to enable him to kneel before the last altar. The offerings consisted of spirits, presented in old classic-shaped brass vessels, and cakes. The viceroy came up the steps alone once, and presented a folded letter at the shrine, written on yellow paper, to Confucius. An attendant mandarin kneeled at his side, opened the letter, and read it aloud, solemn stillness being observed by the crowd. The viceroy then made the *ko-tau*, and the attendant holding the letter advanced to the chief altar, presented it to Confucius, and laid it down. There it remained until the ceremony was over. It was then removed by the same mandarin, who carried it in both hands high above his head, and threw it into the sacred fire in the outer quadrangle. After the viceroy had completed his ninth visit to the shrine, he and the general, with all the mandarins, returned to the robing-room."

We counsel all who wish to get a lively and trustworthy account of the Cantonese and their interesting city to read Mrs. Gray's book. It will give them a higher idea of the courteous and peaceable manners of the gentry, the comfort and industry of the laboring class, and general well-being of the rulers and ruled as constituting an orderly government and people, than any volume which has lately appeared. Archdeacon Gray's long residence gave his wife every facility for seeing things as they really were, and we have seen no mistakes in the letters that are worth mentioning. They not only prove the great advance for good on the spot in the social and political intercourse between the natives and their visitors, which has been our object in this notice, but they indicate how largely it has been owing to Christian charity and zeal on the part of those who have, like Dr. and Mrs. Gray, taken pains to teach and live it.

MARY CARPENTER AND DR. WINES.*

"MANY things are called *Christianity*," wrote Theodore Parker from Switzerland, in 1859, to Mary Carpenter in England, "a name dear or hateful as you define it one way or another. The Christianity which your admirable father loved and taught and lived was Piety and Morality, Love to God, Love to Man. It is this which I honor and love in you, especially as it takes the form of Humanity and loves the Unlovely. The greatest heroism of our day spends itself in lanes and alleys, in the haunts of poverty and crime, seeking to bless such as the institutions of the age can only curse. If Jesus of Nazareth were to come back and be the Jesus of London, I think I know what work he would set about. He would be a new Revolution of Institutions, applying his universal justice to the causes of Ill; but also an Angel of Mercy, palliating the effects of those causes which could not be at once removed or made null. You are doing this work—the work of humanity. It seems to me that you have a genius for it." This passage, copied from page 260 of her memoirs, is the best key to the character which this unpretending volume describes. Miss Carpenter was not a distinguished person in talent or attainments; she did not write remarkably well; she had not the graces of person or manner which give their chief influence to her sex; but she had a genius for practical Christianity which made her powerful and will preserve her memory. She was the daughter of Dr. Carpenter, an English Unitarian, contemporary with Dr. Channing, and her early interest in life seems to have been bestowed on education, doctrinal religion, and that form of

* 'The Life and Work of Mary Carpenter. By J. Estlin Carpenter.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.
'The State of Prisons and of Child-Saving Institutions in the Civilized World. By E. C. Wines, D.D., LL.D.' Cambridge: University Press, John Wilson & Son. 1880.

liberalism with which her family and the Martineaus were identified. But in 1833, when she was twenty-six years old, a new turn was given to her thoughts by her acquaintance with two foreigners, in different ways remarkable—the Hindoo reformer, Rammohun Roy, and the New England philanthropist, Dr. Tuckerman. The former died in her friend's house at Stapleton, near Bristol, in September, 1833, and two months later Dr. Tuckerman came, with letters from Dr. Channing, to spend a few weeks at her father's house in Bristol. As Miss Carpenter was walking out one day with the Boston "minister-at-large" in the narrow streets near her father's chapel, "a miserable, ragged boy darted out of a dark entry and rushed wildly across their path." The good Bostonian said: "That child should be followed to his home and looked after," and the remark went to his companion's heart. "His words sank into my mind," said Miss Carpenter in 1870, "with a painful feeling that a duty was being neglected." This feeling to a true English heart is the most painful and the most compulsive. She resolved from that time forward that she would do something in the matter. At first she proposed to visit Boston for a year or two, "observing the excellent plans there adopted"; but circumstances did not favor her, and it was not till nearly forty years after her walk with Dr. Tuckerman that she landed in Boston. In the meantime she had found her work and accomplished it; had taken up another great task in India, and had done much there to promote the education and elevation of women. In June, 1877, she died, having become in the last thirty years of her life the acknowledged head of the systematic movement for the reformation of vicious girls, which has effected so much in the British Empire and in the United States.

The course of her activity in this philanthropic work and in that kindred task of prison reform, which she also undertook late in life, made her intimate, by acquaintance or correspondence, with most of the leading philanthropists in all countries. To none does she seem to have been more indebted for inspiration than the two Americans, Tuckerman and Parker. In the memoir of Matthew Davenport Hill, by his daughters, they speak of the phrase "perishing and dangerous classes" as "a designation which the pen of their devoted friend and benefactor, Mary Carpenter, affixed to neglected and criminal children." But, in fact, she borrowed it from the sermons of Parker, as her biographer says, in speaking of her first important book, 'Reformatory Schools for the Children of the Perishing and Dangerous Classes and for Juvenile Offenders.' This was published in 1851, not long before the Birmingham Conference of December, 1851, which she organized but took no public part in. This Conference laid the foundation for the present excellent system of Government aid to small reformatories—so much better than our American method of maintaining great establishments from the public treasury. The Life of Miss Carpenter gives a sufficient account of this system, its origin and results, and is, in other respects, a most useful book. It is hardly so picturesque and interesting as it might be, and has fewer anecdotes and good sayings than the Memoirs of Hill, just mentioned.

The wide scope of the late Dr. Wines's large volume on prisons and reformatories has prevented him from doing full justice to Miss Carpenter and her work. She deserved mention far better than the rhetorical Spanish lady, Doña Arenal, whom Dr. Wines translates at some length; but then she was better known, and the American prison-reformer might assume that his readers knew who Mary Carpenter was and what she did. As a concise history and geographical summary of prison systems, with more or less discussion of their principles and methods of administration, Dr. Wines's book is meritorious, and even indispensable, since it contains between two covers what we should else have to search for in a hundred books and pamphlets. It is the serious, long-meditated, but not very methodical work of an enthusiast, who had observed much and reflected earnestly, sometimes profoundly, on one of the most perplexed questions of our civilization. Although printed by Wilson, it is not exactly published by him, but will be sold by subscription until the small edition now issued is exhausted. Besides its chief topic—prisons and penal law—it treats of preventive and reformatory agencies for children, and this also historically and geographically.

The Financial History of the United States from 1774 *to* 1789. Embracing the Period of the American Revolution. By Albert S. Bolles, Lecturer in Political Economy in the Boston University. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879.)—The student of American history scarcely knows, from time to time, whether to make up his mind that that history is thin, crude, and mean, or that it presents the grandest forces of civilization in their most remarkable unfolding. Especially in the history of the Revolutionary period does this uncertainty exist. At one moment we discern in it the opening of a great drama, the birth of a great empire, and at another moment we see the miserable squabble of a few hucksters, aping in the backwoods the methods of legislation and war-making which civilized nations practised at the time. Great social forces are mixed with sordid personal struggles in a juxtaposition which certainly is not so glaring anywhere else in history. The financial side of our Revolutionary history reveals the less admirable features in the nature of the struggle and in the character of the people. It reveals this far more by what it does *not* tell than by what it does tell. The most significant fact about the Revolutionary finance is that there are no records of it. But when we say of any financial transactions that the records of them are missing, a very heavy suspicion is thrown upon the transactions themselves. The Continental Congress contained a great deal of ignorance, inexperience, and prejudice, and a very large measure of vanity. It deteriorated steadily during its whole existence, and all its faults and vices combined to color its financial measures. Its prejudices about "one-man power," etc., etc., also forced it into very unwise administrative arrangements. Hence there were no records or guarantees of any transactions, and John Adams said truly that the financial history of the war was lost beyond the chance of recovery.

Our historians and specialists have tried to reconstruct the history from later or outside sources. They have all been obliged to make use for this purpose of the same material. It is sadly meagre, and the total product of it is very small. Mr. Bolles has now gathered most of it, and it makes a large volume, but the additional facts are few, and there is very little new light shed upon the old facts. The author has collected his material with very great zeal and care, and his comments are just. The material is no doubt very stubborn. The material of financial history always is especially so. To go into full detail is to weaken the interest and weary the patience of the reader; to omit is to lessen the full justice of the statement; to condense is, in the nature of the case, very difficult. The material in the case of this history is also of such a kind that from it the writer cannot form for himself a simple, distinct, and full conception of the subject. Hence it is impossible that he should give such a conception to anybody else. It is a very natural step in such circumstances to quote the authorities and leave the reader to form his own conception. Mr. Bolles seems to have arranged and digested his material with due effort, but he has been forced to this latter course, and it has swelled his book to a size which seems disproportioned to the subject.

The story is one of financial inefficiency and of the consequences which financial inefficiency entails upon a nation. It is hard to tell which feature of it is more humiliating than another—whether it be the paper-money mania, with the tender-laws, price-laws, committees of safety, and all the other apparatus by which the effort was made to realize paper-money notions; or the childish opposition to taxation which prevailed; or the loan offices, with the confusion and negligence which reigned in them, and which constituted fraud in effect if not in fact; or the begging attitude of the country towards France, which justly offended and disgusted that nation. It was nothing less than the absolute compulsion of circumstances which forced Congress to put Morris at the head of the finances, and it crippled and thwarted him, refused to comply with his wishes, neglected its own plain duty to his department, and finally forced his resignation. Mr. Morris was a great speculator, who had made a fortune in privateering and in gambling on insurance policies. He spent his whole life in this kind of business, and was afterwards engaged in a great speculation on the tobacco export to France, and finally on land. What he brought to the service of the country was merely some knowledge of the first principles of business and finance. This knowledge was at the moment a very scarce thing indeed, and Morris was appreciated accordingly, but he could not make something out of nothing. It seems that this was what was expected of "a great financier." His "first principles of finance" were, after all, only these: to take prompt and energetic measures to fulfil obligations, and to fulfil them when they became due; to nurse credit, to use it as little as possible, and then only in proper ways and where it could be made most efficient. His failure, as well as such measure of success as he obtained in his public position, proved the truth and soundness of these principles.

Le Donne nell'antica Società genovese, di Marcello Staglieno [Women in the Olden Genovese Society]. (Genova. 1879. 8vo, 64 pp.)—Curious pictures of mediæval life, founded on researches in the Genovese archives, are here exhibited. The author divides his work into three parts—the girl's life, from the cradle to the door of the husband's house; the mar-

ried life and second marriages; and, lastly, women and religion, women in the church, in processions, and in nunneries. A female child was an unwelcome burden in Genoa. She could earn nothing, she could not fight, her dowry diminished the wealth of the family. If there were several sisters, one might hope for a husband, the rest could expect nothing but the cloister. From infancy the predestined nun was often taken to visit the monastery, where she was sure to find an aunt, a sister, or a cousin, who, for the good of the family, or, as the author says, "for the pleasure of the damned, to have the more company in wretchedness," tried to accustom the child to the monastic life, and to entice her to take the veil. In the city, girls were confined to the house, or at least could never go out unaccompanied, for the young bloods of that day were "less educated than now," and once in their hands no woman's honor was safe. Even if a young lady who ventured out without an escort escaped the worst, there was danger that some man of low estate would kiss her, or lay hands upon her to compromise her and compel her family to grant her to him in marriage, with a dowry. The constraints of life in the city made the freedom of the *villeggiatura* all the more welcome. Acquaintances were formed and affections grew up there which must often have been only a source of misery in after life, for the parents had absolute power over their children and arranged the espousals, sometimes of children in the cradle, at their own pleasure, for purely family reasons, and carried them out without the slightest regard to their children's feelings. The priests had a large part in arranging these bargains—especially, in the later times, the Jesuits. But it is very noteworthy that before the Council of Trent the Church had no necessary part in the solemnization of nuptials. There was no religious ceremony whatever. Matrimony was contracted simply by the couple expressing their consent, after which they embraced and kissed, and the husband put a ring on his wife's hand. That act completed the ceremony *secundum ritum sanctæ Ecclesiæ Romanæ et consuetudinem civitatis Januæ*. But, for the sake of having an indisputable record of the act, it was customary either that a notary should be present, or that the event should be fixed in the minds of a large number of persons by the old Roman *traductio*—the passage of the bride from her parents' house, where the ceremony took place, to her husband's, in company with the marriage guests. The witnesses in this case were all the dwellers on the way, and the crowds of idle folk and children attracted by the show and the showers of nuts, freely distributed, just as in pagan times.

The custom of *serraglio*—resistance to the *traductio* by the friends of the bride, and a mock fight for her person, or a payment by the bridegroom for a free passage—does not appear to have existed at Genoa, unless it can be inferred from the tenor of the sumptuary laws passed in 1440. Another record of the marriage was the receipt for the dowry, which was given by the husband in presence of his wife and her relations, and attested by a notary. At the same time he announced the amount of the *antefatto*—pin-money or settlements—which he was willing to give his wife. The legal rights of wives, so far as property was concerned, appear to have been reasonably well protected. Her dowry was a first lien on her husband's property, and, if he was evidently going to ruin, she could, by application to a magistrate, have her portion set aside. Wives uniformly made their wills before childbirth, especially the first, usually leaving their property to one of their own family. More wills of women than of men are to be found in the Genovese archives. They inherited one-third of the husband's estate. Second marriages were looked upon with great disfavor, and were often greeted with a serenade of pots and pans, or the bridegroom was treated to a ride through the city on an ass, with a similar discordant accompaniment. The custom is brought within the cognizance of our author by the number of lawsuits that arose from these charivaris.

The passion of the Italians for games of chance led in the sixteenth century to betting on births, as to whether they would take place within a given time, and whether the offspring would turn out male or female. The sport was not in itself worse than risking money on a fly's lighting on this or that lump of sugar; but when those who had large sums at stake attempted to influence the result, and the *redoglio* (as it was called) led, or was believed to lead, to seductions and miscarriages, the religious authorities thought it time to forbid such wagers under penalty of committing mortal sin.

At Genoa, as elsewhere, the women were more religious than the men. Their secluded manner of life made the comparative freedom of the religious festivals, the excitement of processions, the opportunity of displaying a toilet in church which sumptuary laws would have prohibited on any other occasion, particularly grateful. Genoese streets were lighted at night only by the lamps burning before the numerous images of saints. These lamps were in charge of the families near whose houses they were placed, and the ladies found another excuse for excursions and gossip in the necessity of collecting among the neighbors oil to feed them with. Another similar excuse for publicity was the custom of ladies sitting on benches in the churches to receive the offerings of the faithful, as, in our own time and in English-speaking countries, ladies keep booths at charity fairs. But instead of selling kisses, or drinking out of the same cup, they appear, at one time at least, to have carried small rods to beat, not very severely we may suppose, those who came within their reach. In early times the women sat apart from the men in the churches, usually on the left; after a while this fell into disuse, and loud were the lamentations at the innovation and the consequent excesses. Finally the Government was obliged to maintain spies in all the churches, and their curious reports, implicating persons of every class, priests and friars among the rest, are still to be seen in the Genoese archives. Nevertheless the assignations continued, and the misfortunes of the republic at the hands of Louis XIV. were set down by grave minds to the divine anger at this desecration. The earliest nunneries were not closed; the nuns came and went and received visits at will; hence great scandals, so that in 1596 the famous Prierio, no doubt with something of a preacher's exaggeration, calls them *monasteria diaboli, turpissima lupanaria, digna millies igni*. Gradually the restrictions were increased (though not without resistance both from the nuns and from the orders of monks with which many of the nunneries were connected) till they reached the seclusion of the past and present century. Yet the records of the courts show that scandals still continued—a natural result of the habits of the time, by which so many were forced to take the veil for family reasons, without any vocation.

A Treatise on the Liability of Stockholders in Corporations. By Seymour D. Thompson. (St. Louis: F. H. Thomas & Co. 1879.)—This treatise, as Mr. Thompson modestly says in his preface, is the "result of an attempt" to write an article on the subject discussed for the *Southern Law Review*. It throws a curious light upon the chaotic state of the law governing corporations that Mr. Thompson should have originally supposed that the intricate subject of the liability of stockholders was one that could be dismissed in a magazine article. On examination he discovered to his surprise that it was one of the "most litigated topics" in this branch of the law; that there were no good American books relating to it; and that any proper treatment of it would require the citation of some thirteen hundred decided cases. There is probably no relation in life into which the average modern man enters more recklessly, and with a less intelligent conception of the legal consequences of the step, than into that of stockholder in a corporation. He generally understands that he makes himself liable to the company for the amount of his subscription to the stock, and has in addition a vague notion that he cannot be made liable to anybody beyond the amount of his stock. That he may be liable for the debts to an amount twice or three times as great as his subscription; that he is, at all events, liable to the creditors for any unpaid subscriptions on stock, in case of the insolvency of the corporation; that if the organization is not in accordance with law he may be involved to a still further extent; that these various liabilities may last until he transfers his stock to a purchaser, or, possibly, even afterwards—of all these things the ordinary stockholder is as innocent as the babe unborn. The result of his ignorance is generally that in the case of insolvent corporations the greatest confusion arises, as a very slight reading of the cases cited by Mr. Thompson will convince the reader.

It is the policy of England and of American States to make the stockholder in a corporation to a certain extent responsible as a partner, and the chief fault to be found with the law as it stands in either country is, that it is extremely difficult to say in advance to what extent this liability goes. As an illustration of this doubt and obscurity, we may mention that Mr. Thompson states that in examining the English decisions he has been "impressed" with the fact that the decisions of the English courts of law, in many cases, exhibit "a higher appreciation of the principles of honesty" than the courts of equity of the same country. He admits, however, that he "could not very definitely point out the sources" of these impressions.

It would be impossible to criticise Mr. Thompson's book in detail, without going into technical points altogether *caviare* to the general reader. The book will, of course, prove of use to lawyers, for it has a very full collection of cases, and though the principles to be deduced

from them are not always clearly stated, this is as often the fault of the courts as of the author. The general result of an examination of the law must be to convince any impartial reader that it is in an unsatisfactory condition. Admitting that it is advisable to make stockholders liable beyond their stock, there can be no question that the liability ought to be simple and its enforcement easy. In many cases its complexity and difficulty of enforcement suggest that litigation rather than the security of creditors has been the main object of the legislature. Particularly is this the case where the stockholders reside outside the State in which the corporation does business. It is difficult to avoid feeling a very grave doubt whether the personal liability of stockholders in excess of paid-in debt is any very valuable security to creditors, and whether it is not better on the whole in legislating on the subject to create a liability which is restricted but easily enforced, rather than a liability which is broad but vague. One consideration never seems to be adverted to in discussions of this subject. Nobody ever really gave credit to a corporation on the strength of the possible result of a lawsuit. Yet nobody, it may be safely said, has ever succeeded in making a stockholder pay a debt of the corporation without at least beginning legal proceedings. It is impossible, therefore, to consider the liability of any very great value as a means of credit. In other words, what the creditors rely upon really are the visible resources of the company, and the remote personal liability can hardly be considered one of these. In addition to all this it must be remembered that it is always advisable to have the law conformed, as far as possible, to the general principles which govern the ordinary conduct of business; and there can be no doubt that nine business men out of ten regard the stock of a corporation as limiting the liability of the stockholders. But the policy of enlarging this by statute is now so fixed in this country that a reversal of it seems at present out of the question.

Rhine Roamings. By Lucy A. Hill. (Boston: Lee & Shepard; New York: Charles T. Dillingham. 1880.)—The life of American girls abroad has become so much an object of attention of late that even this slight sketch of school-girl life in Germany has a certain interest beyond what it would otherwise possess. It describes life in a private school made up of six girls of all nations who have gathered there for study and excursions; and it contains, in a very crude state, raw material like that out of which Mr. James has wrought his stories. Its interest does not lie so much in the roamings among the fine Rhine scenery and in the neighboring cities, during which little was seen that is not noted in guide-books, as in the naïve revelation of character made in the amusements, adventures, and conversation of the pupils. There was nothing more exciting in their lives than one proposal of marriage and running for a train occasionally, but the openness with which the public is admitted to the events of their daily life, to the Christmas and birthday festivities, and to their sympathy with a friendless young American who died near them, and on whose dead lips the American girl imprinted a kiss when she thought she was alone, is charming; and especially striking is the naturalness of the letters of a friend in another school to the American girl (read as a matter of course to her companions and here reprinted) that descend into a realism from which Mr. James has fortunately spared us. The author has written a diary of days which may be remembered with pleasure certainly, but with quite as much pleasure perhaps if it had never been printed.

Bye-Words. A Collection of Tales New and Old. By Charlotte M. Yonge. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1880.)—These tales are intended for young readers, and the first half of the volume is as good reading as could be put in their hands, for it deals with those legends of history which exercise the imagination at the same time that they lead on curiosity. One of them is a very interesting tale of adventure in the Anabaptist rising of the peasantry, which brings home sharply the conditions of life during the German religious wars, and contains an excellent sketch of Luther's Elector; there is also a picture of Dutch life in the days of Charles V. which is both instructive and entertaining. The finest story is that of the Boy Bishop, the legend of the children's bishop on Childermas day at Salisbury Cathedral, and how he died apparently in attempting to resist the scandalous rout of the common people who made the festival an excuse for buffoonery and sacrilege, but really in passively resisting the threats of a man who tried to frighten him into appointing a relative to a vacant canonship which lay in his gift. The story will touch any boy's heart, although the affected archaism of the language will exasperate his patience. So much cannot be said for the latter half of the volume as for the first half. A tale of the engagement of one governess and the flirtation of another seems out of place, and all the later ones are of very inferior merit. The volume concludes with a short comedy which could be easily acted by amateurs, and would make a simple and amusing play for parlor theatricals. Of course, being written by Miss Yonge, every tale has a moral or "bye-word" attached, but it is not thrust on the attention of the reader, and is an afterthought rather than a motive of the story.

Comedies for Amateur Acting. Edited, with a Prefatory Note on Private Theatricals, by J. Brander Matthews. New Handy-Volume Series, 46. (New York: D Appleton & Co. 1880.)—Mr. Matthews in his preface indulges in some gloomy views of amateur acting, and evidently feels that he is fulfilling a duty to the public in presenting amateurs with a collection of one-act plays, on the principle that the least said the soonest mended. It seems to us, however, that it is precisely these one-act plays, "not transiations—only taken from the French," which are the most difficult to act well, and depend for their success almost entirely on the acting. The selections in the little volume before us do not strike us as very happy. One of the best is "A Bad Case," which might more correctly be termed a farce. "A Teacher Taught" is as tiresome as private lessons are apt to be, while "Heredity" could only be made tolerable by extending to the prose portions of the play the editor's suggestion that other songs may be inserted instead of those given. We think that amateurs will still find it more profitable to select plays of two or three acts, even if among the latter should be some by Mr. Robertson, which the editor cruelly says "are just about worthy of amateur acting."

Our Own Country. Descriptive, Historical, Pictorial. Illustrated. (London and New York: Cassell, Petter & Galpin. 1879.)—Great Britain is the subject of this pretty and agreeable book, one of a thousand that might be made concerning the same territory without exhausting the material, and even without much repetition. If we call it an informal guide-book we shall about describe it. Scotland is disposed of in two chapters, one on the Clyde, the other on Dunfermline; Ireland also in two, wholly relating to Dublin, but rather oddly separated by four other chapters. A deliberate attempt, indeed, seems to have been made to avoid geographical sequence, where it would have been so easy and so useful to have followed a determinate course from shire to shire or from coast to coast. Beginning on Salisbury Plain, the scene of the narrative is abruptly shifted to the north, to Leeds; then there is a rebound to the Cinque Ports, next to the Frith of Forth, then to Plymouth, to Lincolnshire, Salop, etc. Bristol, Edgehill, Naseby, Woburn, Burghley House, Cornwall, and Land's End, the Weald of Kent, Scarborough and Whitby, Derwentwater, and the course of the Dee, are most of the remaining topics. The text is very readable, and is interspersed not only with views and portraits in great number, but also with excellent neighborhood, district, and river maps, which form a convenient adjunct to any general chart of the British Isles

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
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Champlin (Rev. J. T.), U. S. Constitution, with Brief Comments	(John Allyn)	1 00
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Oppert (E.), Voyage to the Corea	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	3 00
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Pierce (G. A.), Zachariah, the Congressman	(Donnelley, Gassette & Loyd)	1 00
Richter (J. P.), Leonardo	(Scribner & Welford)	
Robinson (Rev. C. S.), Studies in the New Testament	(Chas. Scribner's Sons)	1 50
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 18, 1880.

The Week.

A VERY weighty and imposing anti-Grant demonstration took place on Thursday last in St. Louis, on the initiative of ex-Senator Henderson, who made the principal speech of the evening. He argued elaborately against the third-term principle under our present system of nominating Presidential electors—"political slaves, accredited only to register a foregone conclusion"; showed how "each party is taught to believe that if the other succeeds the country will be ruined," and that "every election is declared to be the most momentous since the origin of the Government"; confessed himself "tired of military methods," and was applauded for asserting that if the methods and policies of General Grant's last administration deserve party approval, "the party itself is unworthy of public confidence." He quoted the Pennsylvania, Ohio, and New York Republican resolutions of 1875, and the almost unanimous protest of the House of Representatives in the same year, against the third term, as opposed to the unwritten law of the land, and predicted that if Grant should be nominated, "with the corruption of his administration and the jealousies and dangers of a third term, he cannot be elected." In support of this he cited some very instructive election statistics of the year 1874, and reviewed the irreparable losses of the Republican party during Grant's two terms. Considering the cry for a strong government, he contrasted the turbulent state of the South under Grant with its peaceful condition since Hayes came into office; said that in the present temper of political parties he feared an effort to inaugurate Grant whether elected or not, and added, amid cheers, that in his judgment "the danger of Mexicanizing this Republic is greater than the temporary success of the Democratic party." The single resolution declaring a third-term nomination "unwise, inexpedient, and subversive of the traditions of the Government, and likely to endanger the success of the party," was enthusiastically adopted.

Mr. Henderson gave no hint of his favorite candidate, but the spirit of his remarks was opposed to the only manifestation of the meeting, made when Blaine's name was mentioned. The Grant faction in St. Louis had planned to capture the meeting, or at least vote down the resolutions, but they were outnumbered and overawed. The *Globe-Democrat* performed the singular service for its candidate of quoting not only Mr. Henderson's apology for Grant in the Greeley canvass, but also an article rightly or wrongly attributed to him in 1870, when President Grant undertook to interfere on behalf of the Machine in Missouri, and secured so signal a victory for the bolters under Gratz Brown—an article denouncing this procedure with great and justifiable severity. It is a wonder the *Globe-Democrat* did not refer to Senator Henderson's dismissal from the whiskey prosecution in December, 1875, because of the affront he gave to the President by intimating a desire on the latter's part to let the guilty men escape. We ought to remark in Mr. Henderson's speech the prominence he gave to some recent foolish talk of the boomsters about the Germans being an injury to the country. One of the speakers was Dr. Emil Prætorius, editor of the *Westliche Post*, who read to the meeting two letters from such representative men as Fred. Muench, of Missouri, and Fred. Hecker, of Illinois. Mr. Hecker made the following neat point, apropos of the Strong Man:

"And again. Would, then, the arm of a tried soldier become lame if he was not elected President? Is the military talent of Gen. Grant not at the disposition of any elected President against whom violence should be resorted to by reckless demagogues? Indeed, there is no viler insinuation against a highly-praised man than to hint that he, who has served the nation under two presidents, would not do so again!"

There is still no account published of what Grant will do if nominated and the Democratic majority in Congress should throw out the vote of one of his States, and yet nothing can be more important. Mr. Conkling says that Congress will be afraid to throw out such a vote, but refrains from saying what they will have to fear, and nobody else comes forward with any explanation. The Chicago *Inter-Ocean* said that in that case the candidate would summon "500,000 veteran soldiers"; but the Philadelphia *Bulletin*, another Grant paper, says that this is "libellous," and that the *Inter-Ocean* does not know what it is talking about. It also, however, declines to say in what manner Grant would frighten the Democrats. This secrecy apparently points to some patent contrivance—a strange noise or sudden darkness, accompanied by blows on the person, such as Spiritualists use.

The non-production of any fresh Southern murders or outrages is one of the most interesting features of the present crisis. We have heard of none since the Yazoo murder, and we are now within two months of the convention. The explanation of this cannot be that murders and outrages have ceased at the South, for we have the highest Republican authority for saying that they still occur in vast numbers, and will not cease until there is one more "rousing Republican victory." Why, then, does news of them not come in? The answer to this, we think, must be that Grant's "boom" is not based on murders, but on "counting-out schemes" of the Democrats in Congress, it having become a little too absurd to maintain that he would put down outrages at the South in view of the accounts given by his friends of the condition of the South during his two terms. On the other hand, the inner chamber of the Blaine and Sherman boom is stuffed full of outrages, but it has been discovered in practice that when produced they only help the Strong Man, and do nothing for the Magnetic Man and the Financier. Accordingly they are, as it were, by tacit common consent dropped, and the poor negro is left to his fate or to the secretary of the British Anti-Slavery Society, who seems to be taking up the old 1876 outrages and using them as new, with some additional particulars fresh from Louisiana.

The Smyth case in Albany has presented another phase; in fact it grows more interesting every day. As soon as Smyth found that the *Evening Journal* was turning against him, he wrote to the Mutual Insurance Company of this city, in his official capacity as superintendent, informing the president that a loan of the company's to Weed, Parsons & Co., the proprietors of the *Journal*, on mortgage on their building was much too large for the security, which was greatly overvalued, and urging his calling it in or reducing it, and giving a very low estimate of the premises which he said had been recently made by "an experienced, skilled person." The property was carefully appraised eighteen months ago, during the depression, at $115,000. The sum lent on it is $50,000. Smyth's valuation by his "experienced, skilled person" was $45,000, and he maintained that at a forced sale it would only bring $35,000; even if his statement of the facts were correct, this use of his official position to harass a political enemy would have been bad enough. But it appears his "skilled and experienced person" was another "henchman," or "pet henchman" as he is called, named Oliver, who "works" for Smyth in politics, and whose estimate of anything is worthless. This makes the transaction exceedingly useful as a fresh illustration of the kind of thing the Machine is, and the kind of men Messrs. Cornell and Conkling, whom Smyth serves, are. He has been a "pet henchman" of Mr. Conkling's for twenty years.

Last June we witnessed an attempt on the part of the majority in Congress to use the select Committee on Civil Service Reform to

worry the Republicans by introducing a bill "to prohibit Federal officers, claimants, and contractors from making contributions for political purposes." The measure has just come to the surface for debate, and occupied the House during the past week more than any other business. It was too clumsily drawn to vindicate either the sincerity or the reasonableness of its projectors, and the consequence was that the discussion had no great value for determining the real sentiments of either party. The inherently corrupt nature of the Republicans was assumed to justify the preposterous provisions of the bill; and the retort courteous, that the Democratic party was not and never had been pure or reformatory, could not be ruled out of order. Mr. Butterworth, of Ohio, who offered a substitute from the Republican side, made an interesting historical allusion to similar measures which failed in both Houses forty years ago, under Democratic censure. Nobody, however, cared to show that the bill (so far as it affected Federal officeholders only) would be rendered superfluous by the simple establishment of tenure of office during good behavior.

After a rejoinder to Messrs. Logan and Carpenter by Senator McDonald, the bill for the relief of General Fitz-John Porter was tabled, both parties being convinced of the inability of the Senate to regard it as any other than a political question. On Tuesday Mr. Edmunds on his own motion introduced a bill to regulate the electoral count. It is a modification of the one passed by the Senate of the Forty-fifth Congress; but though the rules laid down in it are absolutely impartial, its author is probably not sanguine of its adoption. At least the Democratic arithmetic men will doubtless take a long time to study its working in every possible contingency.

Kearney's arrest and conviction for using "vulgar and threatening language" have been promptly followed by his sentence to six months' imprisonment in the House of Correction and a fine of $1,000. He was, however, so persuaded of the reality of the harmonious settlement, "honorable to all parties," lately announced that he was thunderstruck by the result of his trial. He has managed to get bail for an appeal. The incident confirms the reflections which we offer upon another page in regard to the situation in San Francisco.

The Stock Exchange markets were variable during the week, but the tendency of speculative stocks was to lower prices. One bubble recently blown collapsed, namely, the stock of the Nashville & Chattanooga R.R., which was lately advanced to 128 and fell to 84. Pacific Mail stock, which was recently run up to 62, fell to 44¼. The general depression was due to disappointment at the small purchases by the Treasury of U. S. bonds for the Sinking Fund, and to a reversal of the efforts of the leading speculators. The small purchases of bonds for the Sinking Fund deprived the money market of a resource upon which it had counted, and left the rates for loans subject to the easy manipulation of speculators, who on several days made borrowers pay commissions of $\frac{1}{16}$ to $\frac{1}{8}$ of one per cent. per day. The reserve of the banks was reduced so that the associated banks of the city together held last week less than two millions of dollars more reserve than the law requires. Although money in London is active at 2¾ to 3 per cent., bills on London were borrowed and turned into cash here as a means for getting time loans. Notwithstanding that the sterling-bill market was supplied with these borrowed bills, as well as with a considerable amount drawn against the sale during the week in Germany of about $7,000,000 Southern Pacific 6 per cent. gold bonds, the market was firm at the close at less than two points below the rates which would cause gold exports. The imports of foreign goods continue largely in excess of the exports of domestic products; the imports during February having been valued at $40,160,000, and the exports at $26,968,000. During the first two months of the calendar year the total imports were $81,062,000, while the total exports were $50,730,000. Silver bullion in London closed at 52*d.* per oz.; and the bullion value here of the 412½-grain silver dollar at $0.8759.

The Virginia repudiators have met with a serious repulse in the veto of the "Riddleberger" bill by Governor Holliday, which the Senate by a close vote has just sustained. Governor Holliday's message on the subject is indignant in tone. He very justly points out to the Legislature that what they call an "elimination" of debt is known to the world at large as repudiation, and that "a State cannot give its own definition of terms and expect them to be adopted by the world." The Riddleberger bill is the most impudent scheme yet put forward in the South for the purpose of cheating creditors. It begins with a solemn preamble that the people of Virginia "will never acquiesce in any settlement which will obligate them and their posterity to pay any part of the interest upon the public debt which accrued during the war and the period of reconstruction," and where it does recognize any right in the creditors at all, proposes that they shall get their interest "out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated." He calls attention anew to the fact that the Virginia debt is not a war debt, but represents internal improvements for which the money was advanced to the State forty years ago. According to the *Herald's* Richmond correspondence, the debt question has created an almost hopeless division in the Democratic ranks. The debt-payers have control of the State organization, while the "readjusters" have a strong following among the negroes. The "colored readjuster's" view of repudiation seems to be a simple one. The negro politician feels that emancipation without some tangible material results is a hollow mockery. He has seen white debt-paying carpet-baggers carry off all the available plunder, in the shape of Federal offices, while the white debt-paying "brigadiers" have all the State offices. To the "colored readjuster" this looks very like a conspiracy between Democratic and Republican debt-payers to "perpetuate the color line," and he accordingly favors repudiation as a means of splitting up the dominant parties and giving his race a chance.

The abuses of the referee system in this city have from time to time attracted the attention of reformers, but efforts to reduce the evil have never had much success. A new movement has lately been set on foot which we trust will result in some intelligent consideration of the subject. There is very little dispute as to the facts. There are in New York a large number of what may be called "habitual" referees, who get their positions through politics or judicial favoritism. They are frequently men of no character, property, or responsibility, barely competent to discharge their duties, who are made referees solely to give them some means of support. As to the results of such a system there cannot be room for doubt; but in the discussion of the matter in the newspapers the mistake is frequently made of supposing that the root of the abuse is the constant employment of the same person as referee. It is not this, but the constant employment of an unfit person that constitutes the abuse. If a law were to be passed forbidding judges absolutely from appointing the same person twice as referee, the character of the appointments would not necessarily be affected by the change. Indeed, it may be doubted whether it would not produce better results to recognize the "habitual" system, compelling judges to appoint formally their referees, and compelling the referees to give bonds for the proper discharge of their duties, and making the referee removable for cause like any other judge. The referee really acts as a judge, but under the present system as a judge superior to all human responsibility.

Mrs. Belva Lockwood, a lawyer recently admitted to the bar in Washington under an act of Congress passed last session, and who sent bouquets to the supporters of the bill, appears to have got into what is, in more senses than one, an "active practice." She recently began to "stir up Ben Hill" by a bastardy suit, her client being

a woman from Georgia about whom little seems to be known. No sooner had the papers been served, however, than the plaintiff was induced, she says by a small payment in money, to disown the suit and repudiate her counsel and sister-woman, Mrs. Lockwood. Whereupon Mrs. Lockwood, instead of dropping the matter, as a cold-hearted male lawyer would have done, resolved to pursue the defendant in the newspapers, and wrote for publication a "scathing" letter to Mr. Hill, accusing him of carrying "ruin" into divers households, and using the civil service of his country to "cover up his tracks." As Mr. Hill cannot refute this new charge, even if untrue, without bringing shame and confusion on some family, naturally Mrs. Lockwood has thus far the better of him. In fact, by this mode of attack she has all men at her mercy, including the judges before whom she practises, the lawyers whom she opposes, the litigants against whom she fails to get verdicts, and clients who do not pay her bills. By keeping charges of "a delicate nature" hanging over their heads she can make the proudest and ablest men in the community dread her displeasure more than loss of either health or money. The pity of it is that this is exactly the kind of element which the foes of woman predicted she would introduce into legal practice if she was ever admitted to the bar, and which they predict she will introduce into politics if she ever takes heartily to voting and legislating.

The facts with regard to the compulsory pilotage question now being investigated by Congress are, we believe, so far as they relate to the port of New York, as follows: The whole system of pilotage is governed at present by State law. Pilots are licensed by the Pilot Commissioners, and every vessel entering the harbor is compelled to employ one. The number being restricted, the business is a valuable monopoly. It appears that the gross annual earnings of a Sandy Hook pilot-boat are now over $25,000. This sum is, of course, reduced by expenses, and has to be divided among a number of men. The service, too, from the intelligence and capacity required by it, ought to be well paid. Still, there is a general belief among the employers of pilots in New York that the remuneration since the war has been too high. At the time of the war the fees were increased fifty per cent. on account of the inflation of the currency, and they have never been reduced. The present agitation is the result of an attempt to lower them. The contest began at Albany and has been transferred to Washington by the merchants, who, finding that the result of domestic legislation was not likely to be satisfactory, set on foot a Congressional investigation of a minatory character. Practically the investigation is intended as a warning to the pilots that if they persist in their unconscionable course with regard to fees the whole system will be done away with by Congress, a Federal law passed on the subject, and pilotage thrown open to competition. As an abstract question a good deal is to be said both for and against compulsory pilotage. The arguments against it are very obvious. The argument for it is that the self-interest of owners is not a sufficient motive to ensure the proper precautions being taken on entering a harbor, and that the public must therefore regulate the matter by law.

The London *Anti-Slavery Reporter*, the organ of the British and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society, refers in its issue of March 1 to our suggestion that the official superiors of their Secretary, Mr. C. H. Allen, should "restrain his activity," in view of his publication of stories of mutilation committed on negroes in Mississippi, of which he was obliged to confess in the London *Times* that he had no proof whatever. The Committee of the Association now make on this subject the following singular declaration: "So far from Mr. Allen's action in this matter being disclaimed by the Committee of the Anti-Slavery Society, the *Nation* may rest assured that the Committee are taking every means in their power to spread abroad both in England and America the sad story of this great negro exodus, as made known to them by their friends and correspondents in the United States." But the *Nation* said nothing about "the sad story of the negro exodus." It called attention to the fact that Mr. Allen sent to the English papers a story of two negroes having had their arms cut off, by Southerners, for attempting to emigrate to Kansas, and when challenged he was unable to substantiate these stories by a particle of proof. He had no evidence whatever of any such mutilations having ever taken place. No one had seen the mutilated men. No American newspaper, at a time when such stories had great political value, had printed one word about them. What we asked the Committee to do was to restrain Mr. Allen from circulating such stories again. But his anecdotes cannot have been part of "the sad story of the exodus," because, of course, the story of the exodus is true and rests on testimony. Does the Committee intend to allow him to embellish it at his discretion?

The Marquis of Hartington and Mr. Gladstone have both opened the canvass in England by addresses controverting Lord Beaconsfield's key-note about Liberal sympathy with Home-Rulers and foreign enemies. But there is no news calculated to throw fresh light on the prospects of the two parties. Both are apparently equally confident of victory, and it may be interesting to Professor Sumner to know that the election expenses are estimated at $10,000,000, and that the announcement of the dissolution depressed consols, as likely to cause a temporary drain of money to the country districts. Considering the extraordinary severity with which the English judges now construe the statute against bribery and intimidation, it is hard to see what can be done with so much money.

The course to be taken by the French Ministry in consequence of the defeat of Article 7 of the Educational Bill in the Senate has been settled by a positive announcement from M. Ferry that he would accept the excision of Article 7, but would enforce existing laws in regard to the Jesuits. Upon this he demanded a vote of confidence, which was readily given. This appears to be at present the only topic which greatly occupies the public mind. The Emperor William has taken great pains to prevent the growth of anxiety about the pending additions to the German army by dining ostentatiously with the French Minister, and uttering loud protestations at the dinner of his desire to be on good terms with France, and of his esteem for President Grévy and M. de Freycinet. General von Moltke, too, has in the Reichstag made a speech declaring that the additions to the army indicated no fear or expectation of war with anybody. They were simply ordinary precautions, and he showed that the German army still fell below the Russian and French, both in numbers and length of service, though it had to defend a territory exposed on every side, while the French had the ocean and the Russians the desert at their back.

In Russia things seem quieter. General Melikoff, the Armenian, who now really holds a dictatorship, his powers far exceeding those of a military commander even in a state of siege, is said to be a man of much cultivation and enlightened views, and his administration is winning good opinions and restoring confidence. The press is enjoying greater freedom, and is venturing to preach the necessity of reforms, and the public are treated with a consideration to which they have never been accustomed from the official class. Nothing has done more to restore confidence than his calling on the Municipal Council of St. Petersburg to send delegates to the council or board which assists him, and the discovery that their presence will not be an empty form, but that they will be consulted and heeded. It is already begun to be said that there may be in this the germs of representative government. He has adopted also a more conciliatory policy towards the students, and its effect on them is already seen. That the Russian Empire should be reorganized by an Armenian is one of the striking illustrations of the way in which long-forgotten or obscured races are beginning to appear once more in our day on the stage of events. The resuscitation of the Armenians Russia may fairly claim as her work, and that England should be virtually engaged in keeping them under the Turks is one of the oddest phenomena of the day.

THE SAN FRANCISCO TROUBLES.

IF the last news from San Francisco be true—that Kearney has succumbed, and that in two or three days "arrangements will be consummated ensuring a harmonious and mutually honorable settlement of the questions which have so long vexed the community, and a restoration of good will, business confidence and activity, and general prosperity"—if this is really a correct description of the state of affairs, it would seem as if the respectable people of the city owe an apology of some sort to the rest of the country. For some months back we have been assured that business in San Francisco was declining; that the bank deposits had greatly diminished; that real estate had fallen heavily and building had ceased; that capital was emigrating, and that every branch of business was in a state of stagnation. The cause of this deplorable state of affairs was the presence in the city of a large armed mob, which drilled by night and marched the streets by day, and held meetings in "the sand-lots" at which the speakers threatened many citizens by name with death, and the community at large with fire and sword. Private persons were called on by the mob and directed to discharge some of their servants and make changes in the mode of conducting their business. An adventurer of the worst type, who had been travelling for years in the attempt to escape from his reputation, had been elected mayor, and in office made himself publicly the champion and sympathizer of the mob. The chief agitator, Kearney, a foul-mouthed vagabond, daily threatened publicly to kill his enemies, and collected subscriptions to build a gallows to hang them on. Ministers were interrupted with insult in the midst of their sermons by emissaries of the mob. Merchants and manufacturers were compelled to sit still and listen to public discussions on the side-walk as to whether they ought not to be executed. Rich men bought cases of rifles to arm their retainers for the defence of their houses, as in Rome and Florence in the Middle Ages.

This state of things, though not in its most acute form, has now lasted for nearly a year. Lately, owing to a decision of the Board of Health that the Chinese quarter was a nuisance which must be abated within thirty days, the disorder and alarm became greater, and the language of the mob more threatening. We have, in fact, in this part of the world, been led to expect any day during the last fortnight or three weeks an outburst of bloody violence in San Francisco, not through an attempt on the part of the constituted authorities or of the orderly citizens to put down the mob, but through an attempt of the mob to visit the city with pillage and massacre. This expectation was strengthened by the formation, a week ago, of an organization outside the law called the "Citizens' Protective Union," which published a manifesto indicating that they were about to undertake the duties which in civilized communities are usually performed by the police and by the courts, viz., the protection of life and property. This, instead of allaying our anxiety, increased it, for we assumed that such a step would only be taken in the last extremity, and it seemed to increase the probability of a desperate armed conflict. The United States troops, we were told, had been concentrated so as to take a hand in it, and the arms of the militia regiments were, as a measure of precaution, removed from the armories to a place of greater safety.

On Tuesday, however, the Chief of the Police arrested Kearney for using "vulgar and threatening language," and took him before a police magistrate as quietly as if he were an ordinary pickpocket. He was found guilty and is awaiting sentence, and immediately afterwards there occurred that restoration of harmony, on "mutually honorable terms," which we have already referred to, and the "arrangements" for the return of peace and prosperity are at this moment being perfected. At this distance it seems, if all this be true, either that the dangers of the situation were grossly exaggerated or that the present settlement is ridiculously inadequate. Neither view is very flattering to the courage and good sense of the real people of San Francisco. If Kearney's arrest was all that was needed to restore "peace and prosperity," we cannot help asking how it came to pass that the business of a great commercial city was allowed to be put in peril before it was attempted. If it was not sufficient, and the present settlement is only a truce, does not the importance attached to it indicate either great timidity or great simplicity? What "mutually honorable" settlement, too, can the peaceable, industrious inhabitants conclude with a brutal mob of loafers who have been threatening to murder them and destroy their property? What negotiation is it possible to carry on with Kearney and his followers which will not contain the seeds of future trouble? Is there any "honorable" settlement with them possible which does not involve their pleading guilty and going to jail?

These are questions which we have no means of answering. They can probably be only answered on the spot, but until they are answered we must consider the history of the past six months in San Francisco very mysterious, and, on the surface, not very creditable. If the law is for any reason, in any community, insufficient for the protection of life and property, organizations outside the law for that purpose are undoubtedly justifiable, for the law is made for man, and not man for the law; and security, being the foundation of civilization, is the first consideration of every good citizen. But certainly when such an organization is found necessary, all compromise with law-breakers ought to be at an end, and nothing short of their unconditional submission be accepted.

It is very difficult, also, to form any rational conjecture as to the future of California from anything one hears or reads from Californians about the present condition of the State. The pictures drawn of the way in which the Chinese live in San Francisco are very horrible, but the fault plainly lies with the city authorities. The crowding in the cellars, the open drains, and all the other foulness and nastiness of "Chinatown" are phenomena that would rapidly show themselves in any large city in the Union or in the world where there is a poor population, if the police and the health officers permitted them. Horrors almost as great have been witnessed in tenement-houses here. In all the great modern cities of the western world precautions more or less effective are taken against such nuisances by municipal regulation. But in San Francisco the public apparently has not thought seriously of this remedy, and when we first hear of the loathsomeness of the Chinese quarter it is in connection with the proposal of a mob to destroy it with fire and murder the inmates. In an article on the Chinese question in the last number of the *California*, a San Francisco magazine, by General Miller, a prominent Californian writer, we find the extraordinary statement that the Chinese in San Francisco live as they live "in spite of American laws and in defiant contempt of American police." Elsewhere we have read accounts of their living in some of their cellar abodes over open drains, the drains being municipal works, and the prevention of disease through public nuisance a municipal function.

Surely, all this, if true, points to deplorable apathy about city government on the part of the well-to-do classes, and prepares one for the spectacle of a mob dominating the city for months, when all that was necessary to cow it was to take its leader before a police magistrate for being abusive and insulting. It may be said, of course, that he would not have submitted to arrest quietly if he did not know that the Citizens' Protective Union was behind the police; but this only removes the difficulty one degree further back. The Citizens' Union does not seem to have been a very expensive or complicated organization. In fact, one or two private meetings seem to have put it in motion, and yet it was not thought of until the city had been living for nearly a year under a most degrading tyranny. The one thing which appears clearly in the whole story is the break-down of municipal government by universal suffrage. Somehow or other the law-breakers elected men of their own stamp as mayor and sheriff, who made no secret of their sympathizing with them in designs, and the better class of citizens were unable to prevent it. The formation of the Protective Union was neither more nor less than the assumption of the municipal government over the heads of the mayor and sheriff by a selected constituency; and if peace and prosperity are now to reign it will be because the mayor and sheriff will act under the supervision of a body unknown to the law,

or in fear of it. It cannot be said that this promises much for the permanent security. The new constitution is not doing as much mischief as it was feared it might do; but is not this because it is being systematically evaded? Is an organic law, however, which is made workable by evasion, a good foundation for the lasting prosperity of a State? In fact, from whatever point of view we look at the Californian crisis, it seems as if those who are most interested in the material and moral welfare of the State would have to go down deeper for the foundation of their peace and security than they have yet done. The Chinese apparently are at present by no means the worst danger with which the State is threatened.

THE POLITICAL PROSPECT IN ENGLAND.

THE coming election in England will bring a Parliament into existence which will probably have more important matters to settle than any which has met since the passage of the Reform Bill. First and foremost, it is plain that the crisis of the "Eastern Question," which has hung over Europe like a black cloud ever since 1815, is very near at hand. The Turkish Empire has, of course, long been thought to be in process of dissolution, and it has been in slow process of dissolution for over fifty years, but the process has now become very rapid. The Government has no revenue, and apparently no armed force worthy of the name, and the provinces it still retains are ravaged with impunity by brigands. All departments of the state at Constantinople seem to be in a condition of complete disorganization, and famine is raging over large areas to add fresh horror to the scene. It is, therefore, not certain, but highly probable, that England may have within the next five years to say positively, either alone or in conjunction with other Powers, who is to have Constantinople and the territory around it. That the Tories will get through such a crisis without a war with Russia seems unlikely. They would find a peaceful settlement made difficult, at best, both by their previous attitude of defiant and distrustful rivalry, and by the strong stimulus they have given to the mysterious thing called "imperialism." But in addition to this they have succeeded in making Russia take the place in the mind of a very large portion of the English public of "a natural enemy" which was so long held by France. The "natural enemy" to an average Englishman is not simply a foreign nation which stands in the way of the growth and security of the British Empire, but a thoroughly deceitful and vicious people, whose policy is directed by the basest motives, whose conquests and annexations are prompted by pure lust of power, whose armies butcher and ravish indiscriminately, whose officials all take bribes, and whose government, whatever its form, is a despotism of the meanest kind. It was undoubtedly under the influence of the "natural-enemy" feeling that the London Common Council the other day voted down by a large majority a proposal to congratulate the Czar on his recent escape from assassination. The councillors felt he was too bad a man to be congratulated about anything. During the civil war in this country the North rapidly put on the moral deformity of the "natural enemy" in the Tory newspapers and drawing-rooms, and Lincoln became a more repulsive monster than the Czar, and one more wholly given up to evil. The view died out at the close of the war through influences needless to mention, but it is questionable whether it would have died out if the United States had continued to cross English foreign policy in any field. A more powerful aid to a ministry with an aggressive turn than this tendency to associate moral deformity with political hostility to England it would be impossible to devise, and the Tories are masters in the art of fostering it. It causes everything on which the nation most plumes itself to contribute to make the enemy detestable. It has now acquired such strength with regard to Russia that it is difficult to see how, in case of another collision, the Tories could keep out of a fight which would have all the flavor of a crusade. The prospect is made the more serious by the improbability that the present Premier could stand the strain of a great war. It is said to be as much as he can do to bear the pressure of his present responsibilities, and they are nothing to what they would be if England were engaged in keeping Russia out of Asia Minor, or checking her advance in Central Asia, and trying to prevent anybody but the truly good from getting possession of Constantinople. And yet he may be said to constitute the cement of the Tory majority in the House of Commons. They have no other leader they can trust, and they live by leadership rather than by opinion.

It must not be supposed, however, that even the worst outlook for the Tories makes the prospects of the Liberals altogether bright. There is undoubtedly a division in their ranks which it is impossible even under the pressure of adversity altogether to cover up. Mr. Gladstone is the natural leader of the party, and yet he cannot lead it. The Moderates are a little afraid of him. The impression has spread through the middle class that he is not altogether a "safe man." He writes and talks a great deal, and people love to hear him and read him, but nobody can write and talk so much without saying a great many indiscreet things and suggesting a variety of startling possibilities. He has been a magnificent legislator, and is one of the three or four first-rate financiers the world has produced, and yet he has apparently been overtaken by somewhat the same kind of distrust which made the late Horace Greeley's Presidential candidacy so much of a farce. We say the same kind, not the same degree, because Mr. Gladstone has proved himself a great statesman. But how few of those who accepted Greeley as a political apostle were willing to see him charged with high executive functions. The actual leader of the Liberals—the Marquis of Hartington—only obtains allegiance from the Radical wing of the party by a great sacrifice of feeling on the part of the latter. Radicals have often shown readiness to accept the generalship of an aristocrat and man of pleasure, as Lord Hartington is, but only when, like Fox or Mirabeau, he is a genius. Lord Hartington is anything but a genius, and, in fact, is mainly useful to the Liberals as a sort of guarantee to the cautious and conservative people that the party does not cherish revolutionary designs. It is as much as he can do to serve even this purpose, however. He really likes horses and dogs and game much better than politics, and finds even the function of guaranteeing Liberal respectability, it is said, somewhat tiresome. He has borne his responsibilities very well thus far, but he is clearly not the man to head a party which needs ardor and enthusiasm either to hold its own or to make fresh conquests, even if he were what he cannot be as long as Mr. Gladstone lives—the leader to whom the party looks for its inspiration and its policy.

The most difficult problem of all for the Liberals, however, is the Irish problem, to the solution of which they seem to be fully committed. The Tory theory is that there is no Irish problem or anything Irish to be dealt with except a parcel of turbulent and unreasonable Irishmen, and it seems probable that on this point the bulk of English voters agree with them. The damage done to Lord Ramsay, the Liberal candidate at Liverpool, by his simple promise that he would be willing to enquire into what is termed Home Rule, and the exceeding care the Liberals have since been taking in the House of Commons to clear themselves of any suspicion of sympathizing with what the English constituencies believe Home Rule to be, show very plainly what the state of English opinion on this subject is. In fact, there is probably greater exasperation in the English mind against Ireland than there has been since O'Connell's day, and the Tories have of late been taking some pains to stimulate it. For much of it, it must be said, the Irish themselves are responsible. The Fenian agitation, with its resort to murder and explosion in the hearts of English cities, gave a great impetus to the natural English tendency to take unreasonable views of Irish affairs. The course of the Irish obstructionists in the House of Commons since then has operated powerfully in the same direction. It may be true enough that, as Mr. Sullivan showed in the House of Commons the other day, the Tories were in 1874 guilty themselves of the grossest obstruction, but then there is a difference, which every Englishman feels, between obstruction undertaken for

the purpose of defeating a measure and obstruction undertaken for the purpose of bringing the legislative body itself into contempt; and of the latter the Irish Home-Rulers are not unreasonably suspected. Nevertheless, that something much more radical than anything which has yet been attempted must be done for Ireland is probably plain to many reflecting Englishmen, and it is to the Liberals the task must fall, as representing almost exclusively what may be called the sympathetic power of the English people. That enormous defect of the English mind, which has done so much to dim the splendor of English history—its inability to enter into the social and political ideals of alien or quasi-alien races, and its tendency to contemn what it does not understand—has been cultivated, if we may use the expression, steadily by the Tories, and is one of the forces on which they have always relied when hard-pushed. Many races and communities have suffered from it, but none so severely as the Irish, owing to their nearness to the seat of British power. Such progress as has been made during the past fifty years in securing a recognition of the fact that Irish ideas of how Ireland ought to be governed may have some merit, even if it be not apparent to Englishmen, has been due, on the whole, to the Liberal party.

It must be admitted, however, that it is not a kind of work which is likely to help them with English constituencies, and it will probably burden them heavily for some time to come. Some of the Irish members have of late begun to assist in lightening it by sober-minded argument of Irish grievances in the English press. The *Nineteenth Century* and other monthlies of the same character have recently contained several articles from the pens of prominent Irishmen, which are a far more effective statement of the Irish case than anything that has been heard in the House of Commons. The failure of Mr. Parnell's tactics in this country, which have had a striking resemblance to those of Denis Kearney, by robbing him of much of his influence after he gets back, will probably be useful in the same direction. For there is, after all, an Irish case against English legislation of unanswerable force. There are Irish grievances which cannot be disposed of with a sneer, or by charges of disloyalty against those who produce them. To make their way in the English mind, however, they must be presented with clearness and vigor, and in a form in which Englishmen will not be ashamed to handle and support them. For the follies and indiscretions of Irish agitation at home and abroad there has hitherto been an excuse which Irishmen might offer not only without shame but with a certain pride, but which has now done all the work of which it is capable. These follies and indiscretions are, after all, the excess or overflow of a tenacity in clinging to the sentiment of national life such as probably no people has ever before displayed, and which is one of the most curious phenomena of modern history. It is safe to say that there is no other people whose history had been, on the whole, so barren of stirring incidents and so little marked by epochs of fruitful and glorious toil, and whose yoke has been for ages so heavy, who would not long ago have lost all trace of national feeling or aspiration or tradition, and have accepted absorption and oblivion in dumb despair. The struggle the Irish have continued to make in all lands, and for many generations, against political extinction—a struggle which has been kept up in the main by the very humblest class—ludicrous and even grotesque, turbulent and disorderly as it has been in many of its aspects, undoubtedly indicates the possession by the race of qualities to which another step in civilization may give extraordinary political value, and which it seems little short of madness for English statesmen of this generation to ignore or despise.

THE SEASON AND THE SESSION.

LONDON, Tuesday, March 2, 1880.

THE season has begun with maimed rites. There is now no Holland House, or Cambridge House, or Gore House, because there is no Lady Holland, or Lady Palmerston, or Lady Blessington. The buildings remain, and there is in one case, at least, a wearer of the title. Holland House stands where it did; it is occasionally inhabited; garden parties are given on its historic lawn when weather permits. But the place is merely the ghost of itself, a monument to its own literary and political associations. Strangers visit it as they do the Cluny Museum in Paris. Cambridge House, where Lady Palmerston held those receptions in which the suspicious virtue of Mr. Cobden saw the instrument for the seduction of Radical manufacturers and pliant journalists, has become one of the innumerable military and naval clubs to which every year seems to make an addition. The half-world (to translate the French phrase) which Lady Blessington gathered around her at Gore House has no longer any centre of its own. Indeed, the half-world itself has disappeared. The people who hovered on the dim confines between what is respectable and what is not respectable seem now to choose their side definitively, and to cross the border either way once for all. Clever Bohemianism has sunk to a lower social stratum than that at which Count D'Orsay maintained himself. It is found chiefly among journalists, artists, and novelists of the struggling and out-at-elbows order. Lord Houghton in a recent essay misses the old interchange of social amenities between the great houses which marked his earlier days. There is, perhaps, an explanation if philosophy cared to find it out. All the material conditions survive. There are stately mansions, long suites of spacious and luxurious rooms, staircases which are themselves saloons and lounging places, wealthy hosts unsparing of expense, graceful hostesses willing to die for their party, and to undertake the fatigue of an American President in bowing and shaking hands—and the result is a discordant rabble, and not an organized company. In former days the aristocratic class confined its intercourse to its own order, and to the artists and men of letters whose distinction and social qualities adorned or enlivened these assemblies. People knew each other. Receptions and other entertainments brought together society in organized and living groups. Now the necessity of asking the manufacturer who has won an important borough for his party, and his wife and daughters, with the logical consequence that if you ask him you cannot avoid asking the retired tradesman, with his feminine belongings, who has managed to wrest another constituency from the enemy, makes our great houses on their open days little more than public houses. They are houses of call for the party to which they belong. People are in local contact, closer than is agreeable, without being in social intercourse.

The season opens this year under more than the disadvantages inseparable from existing social and political conditions. There are accidental drawbacks to its efficiency. The traces of the fire which, at the beginning of last year, destroyed or damaged the upper part of Lord Granville's house in Carlton House Terrace have been effaced; and the Liberal leader is restored to it, and is able to make it the scene of the smaller hospitalities of the dinner-table and the drawing-room. But it is not yet in a condition to receive the Liberal party, rank and file, and its camp-followers. The Countess of Cork, with frank and kindly hospitality, has taken up the mantle which for the moment has fallen from Lady Granville's shoulders, and her house in Grafton Street has been, on several occasions, the scene of those receptions at which the members of the Liberal party meet each other and exchange greetings with the smiling faces and cordial hands of friendly antagonists. Lord Derby's secession from the Conservative ranks, and his attitude of benevolent neutrality towards the Liberals, and of a neutrality not quite so benevolent towards his old colleagues and followers, has removed the mansion in St. James's Square from the list of great Conservative houses. Lord Salisbury's long illness has shut his place in Arlington Street to society. Lady Stanhope, whose husband is the son and successor in the earldom of the well-known historian, receives the Conservative party, with a sprinkling of personal and literary friends of no politics, or of opposing politics, in Grosvenor Place. The hereditary intellectual reputation of the Stanhopes seems less likely to be maintained by its titular head than by his younger brother, Mr. Edward Stanhope, at present Under-Secretary of State for India, and probably the ablest of the rising Conservatives in Parliament.

If the season is languid the session has not hitherto been particularly interesting or promising. Both parties have their eyes fixed on the general election, and each is bent on out-manœuvring the other. They pretend to be thinking of public business; but they are really thinking of the cries on which it will be most convenient to go to the country, and the accusations which they can make against each other with most chance of being believed. One great source of perplexity to both is the Irish vote. The leaders, Conservative and Liberal, have had very seriously to consider whether they will be most likely to secure a majority in the new Parliament by courting Irish opinion or by defying it. Their conduct and language have fluctuated according as the one impression or the

other has been predominant. The question for both of them is whether concession to Ireland will gain more Irish than it will lose English and Scotch votes. This is one of those perplexing points on which it is impossible to have assurance in advance. The leaders on both sides, or their followers, with the tacit or more than tacit approval of the chiefs, have tacked and trimmed. When Mr. Gladstone's Irish University Bill broke up the alliance between English Liberals and Irish quasi-Liberals, overtures were made by the Conservatives to the Home-Rulers. A Conservative Home-Ruler was a political being to be as much recognized and tolerated as a Conservative working-man. Irish seats which could not be won by a Conservative without profession of Home-Rule principles were to be purchased by that profession. A leading Conservative Home-Ruler was significantly rewarded with the lord-lieutenancy of his county. The Intermediate Education (Ireland) Bill of 1878 and the Irish University Bill of 1879 were additional overtures to Irish opinion. The Irish vote, however, was not gained by these measures, while stolid English Conservatism and Protestantism were shocked by them. Having tried "concession to the legitimate claims of Ireland" without success, the Conservative leaders bethought them that "resistance to her factious demands" might be a better card to play. The defeat of Lord Ramsay at Liverpool, partly on the false pretence that he had acquiesced, with Lord Hartington's sanction, in Home-Rule principles, gave the Ministers the cue to their future conduct. The Liberals were charged with coquetting with a party bent on dismembering the Empire and entering into relations with men false to their sovereign and their country. This was Lord Beaconsfield's language.

Nothing would be easier than to create an anti-Irish Jingoism throughout England and Scotland, compared with which the anti-Russian Jingoism of the past three years would be as nothing. To the charge against the Liberal party of associating itself with foreign intrigue and aggrandizement abroad would be added the accusation of associating itself with the internal disruption of the Empire. If Liberals could be further inveigled into a position which would lend itself to the imputation of countenancing Irish obstruction in the House of Commons, a good case would be presented for at once appealing to the country. Sir Stafford Northcote's resolution, which has now become a standing order of the House of Commons, was produced with this view. It was hoped that the Liberal leaders, not having been consulted about it—an omission contrary to the courteous usages of Parliament—might oppose it. In that case, as it soon became known to Lord Hartington and his friends, there would have been an immediate dissolution. The Government would have appealed to the country against the Opposition which had shown itself the friend of the foreigner, the patron of a semi-seditious Irish faction, the ally of unscrupulous Irish obstruction. The trap was too openly set and too clumsily baited to be capable of ensnaring anybody. The question whether Parliament shall complete a seventh session of the ordinary length, or whether there shall be a dissolution at any earlier time, is probably once more an open one in Lord Beaconsfield's mind. If he can snatch a victory by surprise he will do so. If the opportunity fails, he will endeavor to go to the country with the credit of a last session of useful and productive work. If to this claim could be added a settlement in Afghanistan and an honorable accommodation with Russia the odds would be in his favor. A little juggling might conceal for a twelvemonth the financial embarrassments of the Government. A last session of Parliament brings into prominence the least worthy arts of management on both sides and the less creditable tricks of the game. They are not, however, the whole of politics in England, and are practically compatible, if not always theoretically consistent, with much that is pure in motive and honorable in conduct. † † †

THE GERMAN SCIENCE.

LEIPZIG, February 7, 1880.

THERE was a time when philosophy was in a peculiar sense the national passion of the German mind, and when every intellectual man, if, indeed, he had no system of his own, was proud to be called a disciple of some great thinker, who had construed the universe to his own mind, and dictated his own terms to every special science. Even Krause planned a congress of philosophers to organize the departments of human knowledge into some solidary encyclopædic form for purposes of both education and research. His plan came to naught only because it was a little too late, and if people laughed it was because they had just begun to realize that philosophy in the sense then current meant individualism sharpened and defined to the utmost, and that if a philosopher would enjoy in peace the full fruition of his own opinions he must keep aloof from other philosophers.

Physiology is not a little indebted to philosophy. Medicine first became a science, according to Helmholtz, with the establishment of the law of the specific energy of the nerves, which he compares in importance to the discovery of the Newtonian law of gravity. For this law, in the wide sense of Johannes Müller, science is unquestionably indebted to the Kantian philosophy; and on the basis of this principle, and led by impulses which are more or less directly traceable to the Herbartian system, men like Lotze, Wundt, and others have been led from physiology back to philosophy again; and, what is far more important, the medical profession is once more slowly gaining a position of influence in the intellectual world such as it never occupied before. In the middle ages physicians were always the *Aufklärer*, and now individuals among them have done work for science which actually recalls to mind the old Hippocratic maxim, "God-like is the doctor who is also a philosopher."

Physiology has been characterized as just now pre-eminently *the* German science. This is probably true, whether it means that German philosophic methods and results are less known in other countries than those of other sciences, or that they reflect more peculiarly the national characteristics. Till Foster's text-book appeared very little was known in England and America of German physiology save by specialists who themselves had studied in Germany. The German observer is no more acute in studying morbid symptoms or anatomical forms of animal life than the English or French. But the former is not satisfied merely to observe: he has a passion for making his own conditions. It is not enough to record the normal functions of a tissue, but it must be made to work under artificial conditions—*in vacuo*, with electrical and thermal stimulation, and under the influence of divers gases and chemical compounds. The action of organs is studied by extirpating, laming, or poisoning them all, with a view to learn how to reproduce normal conditions. If the German observer sometimes forgets that his science is but a part of man's world-old fight against his greatest enemy, disease, and pursues his science merely for love of the strangely fascinating insight it brings him, it is a noble error, more than excusable, even on the ground of the greatest practical utility, in which the pursuit of truth for its own sake has issued so often in the history of science. Again, in England and France a scientific man may be a merely descriptive physicist without much knowledge of mathematics—a thing almost unknown in Germany, where even the physiologist finds it indispensable to understand at least the elements of the higher mathematics, so universal are mechanical ideals, and so needful is it to bring his results into at least approximately exact form.

As an illustration of the scope of these methods we may mention Dr. Lilienfeld's volumes in politico-social science, on the physiology of the state, in which commerce is treated under the rubrics of the circulatory system, schools and printed matter under that of the nervous system, etc., in a way which would have delighted Hobbes himself. And again, to borrow an illustration from Helmholtz, as the microscopist when he reaches the limits of visibility must turn all his attention to the study and improvement of his instrument, so now more than any other the physiologist of the nervous system has reached a point where he must turn the greater part of his attention to the chief instrument with which he works —viz., the human mind. In a peculiar sense true science here can be grounded only on the fundamental laws of psychic processes. Fick terms physiology "the highest and most fruitful generalization of the collective natural sciences," of which Du Bois-Reymond calls it the queen. Czermak, who devoted his wealth to building and equipping a magnificent laboratory and lecture-room, and his time to the end of his life to the popularization of physiology among the general public, was never weary of insisting that it should be taught in every high-school. Once more, evolution in the sense of either Darwin or Haeckel is far from being a finality for the physiologist. It is for him rather a morphological assumption that all animals and men belong to one family, and he defines his science, with Pflüger, as the chemistry and the physics of living matter. Czermak defined its object to be the development of the phenomena of life from the laws of these two sciences by experimentation. Accordingly, most of the younger men devote themselves more or less exclusively to one or the other of these halves of a science which is rapidly growing beyond the possibility of mastery by any single mind; and some laboratories, like those of Heidelberg and Bonn, are pre-eminent in the chemical, others in the physico-mechanical, side of physiology. If a single professor is generally at the head of a laboratory, it is in many if not most cases rather on account of the practical difficulties, such as interference of authority,

etc., of having two professors of co-ordinate rank, than because it is now regarded as a strictly integral science.

About three years ago Professor Hermann, of Zürich, was induced by Vogel's publishing house to edit a brief but comprehensive encyclopædia of physiology. The same thing was undertaken thirty years ago, in the youth of the science, in Wagner's still famous hand-book, where, in the compass of four good-sized volumes, a dozen professors treated most of the leading topics of the science monographically in so thorough a way that the book gives an admirable picture of its condition at that time. The sixth volume, completing the first half (or over 2,300 pages) of Hermann's work, has just appeared.* The first volume is devoted to the contraction, excitation, and fatigue of muscles. It contains an interesting chapter on that most fascinating of all the topics of myology—the electrical current of muscles. This, by Hermann himself, affords him a chance to restate his objections to Du Bois-Reymond's molecular theory, which is becoming more questionable every day. Professor Nasse describes the chemical properties of muscles, and Professor Engelmann, on protoplasmic and ciliary motion, concludes the volume. The larger part of the second volume is taken up by Professor Grützner's physiology of the voice and of language, which shows us among other things how completely the training of the voice, the nature of vowels and consonants, accent, and even perhaps the origin of words, have become matters of physiological science. Professor Fick concludes with a chapter on the mechanics of movement. The third volume is devoted to the general properties of nervous tissue and to the special characteristics of the spinal and cerebral nerves. In the third volume Professor Eckhard discusses reflex action and the other properties of the spinal cord and cerebellum and the cerebral ganglia; and Professor Exner, under the head of physiology of the cortex of the brain, treats sensory and motor impulses, the time of various psychic processes, attention, sleep, localization of functions, etc. The fifth and by far the ablest volume is devoted to the sense of sight. The dioptric and retinal functions of the eye are presented by Professor Fick. Professor Kühne writes a chapter on his famous retinal-purple, or the photographing powers of the retina, and Professor Hering, the great apostle of nativism as opposed to the empiricism of the Helmholtz school, concludes with a psychological chapter on the sense of space and the movement of the eye. The sense of hearing, by Professor Hensen, takes up the first part of the sixth volume; and taste, smell, touch, and the sense of temperature, by different authors, conclude it. The bibliography throughout is very full and valuable, and the work will of course supersede the score of smaller text-books which are still in the market.

In spite of the great merit of the work of Profs. Hermann, Exner, Hering, and Fick, perhaps of Grützner, the book, as a whole, has several grave defects, and does not, as Wagner's 'Handwörterbuch' did in its day, give us, in all respects, an adequate view of the physiology of its time. I will not speak of the occasional repetitions, trifling defects of arrangement, the omissions of the department of development history, the somewhat stultifying effect upon many German investigators of writing pages which cannot by contract be made the vehicle of communicating original researches, but only mention, first, that the names of the four most eminent German physiologists, Ludwig, Brücke, Reymond, and Pflüger, do not appear in the list of authors, and the two large universities of Berlin and Leipzig are not represented at all. The two last professors in particular, and all four to a degree, are representatives of views which have been more or less hotly contested for years, and their antagonists, doubtless with the truest aim to be impartial, have written with a decided *tendance*, if not occasionally with a partisan spirit. There are certainly important phases of the science of which the advocates are still living, and which are very meagrely presented. It would be interesting to go somewhat into details here, but I have left myself no space. The book is often uncritical and not well digested. The most striking instance of this is the work of Professor Eckhard, whose introductory historical sketch is little more than an advertisement of a book he intends to write, with copious citations of authorities which it often seems as if he could not possibly have read, so inadequate is his treatment of their contents. The same may be said, though in much less degree, of Prof. Funke's work, which, it should be observed, however, was finished and reviewed by another hand after his death. Moreover, it will hardly be regarded as a merit by many that the optical part is made supplementary to Helmholtz's Optics, since the latter, valuable as it is, is and will long be out of print. In spite of all this the work is, of course, indispensable to every physiologist, and it is to be hoped that the remaining half, promised before the end of the year, will be still more satisfactory.

* 'Handbuch der Physiologie, bearbeitet von 24 Professoren, herausgegeben von Dr. L. Hermann, Professor der Physiologie an der Universität Zürich.' Zürich. 1879-80.

Correspondence.

PROGRESSIVE INCOME-TAXES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Readers of this week's *Nation* who are also readers of the *North American Review* must be puzzled by two statements which flatly contradict each other. In his article on income taxation in the current issue of the *Review* Mr. D. A. Wells says: "All incomes subject to taxation in any European country are invariably assessed at one and the same rate," and he reiterates this assertion at various places and with increasing emphasis; the *Nation* says, in the leading article on "The Socialistic Legislation in Germany," that "the *Klassen-steuer*, on which the representation in the Prussian Landtag is based, is an income-tax increasing from one-half to two and three-quarters per cent. as the incomes rise." How shall this difference be explained?

Mr. Wells is wholly wrong—inexcusably wrong, one might add, since any enquiry into the practice of Europe ought to have included Prussia, and any enquiry into the Prussian revenues ought at once to have revealed the *Klassen-steuer*, or, more strictly speaking, the *Classificirte Einkommen-steuer*, which you correctly describe as a progressive or graduated income-tax. Indeed, Prussia may be said to have two taxes of this sort, one state or national and one municipal. The cities are authorized for their part also to levy an income-tax, the *Gemeinde Einkommen-steuer*, which is a certain percentage of the state income-tax, the rate being determined in each case by the local authorities. Thus, in Berlin it is now, I believe, seventy per cent., so that a citizen who pays one hundred dollars on this tax to the state, pays also seventy-five dollars to the municipality. No new assessment is, of course, made for this second tax, but the progressive feature in the state assessment is evidently retained.

I have the honor to be, etc., H. T.

March 5.

MR. BAYARD'S AVAILABILITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A place in your columns is solicited for the following observations suggested by the article in your last number relating to the alleged unavailability of Senator Bayard, as a Presidential candidate, by reason of the peace predilections expressed in his Dover speech of June, 1861. Mr. Bayard's entire career since he has entered public life has been so preeminently conscientious, courageous, and patriotic that he has confessedly won the admiration and confidence of all, and been regarded by many as an indispensable candidate. Under these circumstances his exclusion from the list of available candidates would occasion profound regret, and by many would be deemed a national misfortune. It is, therefore, proper to pause and enquire what is the real extent and weight of the objections to Mr. Bayard's availability, and to consider whether, if they exist, they cannot be removed or entirely overcome.

As objections to his candidacy, it has been urged that his nomination would raise the "sectional issue," and also would arouse the prejudices which were entertained by many of the Independent Republican voters of the North against those who believed, in 1861, that the secession problem could be better solved by pacification than by war. But, inasmuch as the nomination of Seymour and Blair in 1868, of Greeley and Brown in 1872, and General Ewing and other "war candidates" in 1879, did not avert the "sectional issue" and banish the "bloody shirt" from the political arena in the campaigns of those years, it does not seem reasonable to claim that a Democratic candidate with a war record will do so in 1880, especially when it is expected that the coming campaign will bring the Democratic party and its independent allies, through the Southern electoral votes alone, within forty-seven votes of the Presidency, as Mr. Conkling has so significantly remarked. Since, therefore, the "sectional issue" is inevitable in 1880, whether the Democrats have a war or peace candidate, such an objection can have no more weight against Mr. Bayard than against any other candidate Indeed it is most probable that it will have little or no weight in the approaching canvass. It was most vehemently urged against the election of even such unwarlike Democratic veterans as Tilden and Hendricks in 1876, and yet, unsuccessfully, because the influence of the sectional issue was counteracted and outweighed

by considerations of graver importance and more vital interest to the welfare of the country.

And so it will be in 1880. For the people are weary of sectional strife, surfeited, *ad nauseam*, with politics and politicians, political issues and partisan legislation, and they long for the return of an enduring era of good feeling and zealous devotion to the public interests instead of to party ends. They want public servants, not political dictators; and the methods of peace, not the measures of war. For President they want a statesman, not a warrior; one who in character, training, and long experience in public affairs is conspicuously qualified for that high office, and who is perfectly in accord and sympathy with the present aspirations and needs of the nation; who is right to-day, and not who was right twenty years ago and wrong now. And they especially demand a man of positive, not negative character; one who will be actually President, and not the dupe or willing tool of corrupt political managers; and who will restore a decent administration of the public service, and courageously and unflinchingly discharge his sworn duty regardless of fear or favor within or without his own party. Utopian as these sentiments may seem, in juxtaposition with present political practices, it will be found that, in the next Presidential election, the people will evince a decisive preference for such a candidate, and especially for such an one as shall have been tried in the ordeal of national affairs and found trustworthy, rather than for a new man whose fitness is untested and uncertain.

Now, if Senator Bayard is such a candidate, if he does realize the popular ideal and is in full accord with the living issues of to-day and the present needs of the country, as the newspapers—Republican, independent, and Democratic alike—have so often confessed, how are the enlightened, patriotic, and independent voters of the country to answer to their consciences and their country if they themselves become the cause of his unavailability?—as they surely will become, if they permit a mere prejudice against his peace opinions in 1861 to defeat his nomination and election, when the reasonably certain consequence will be to give over and continue the control of the Government in the hands of those President-making politicians who will conduct it in the future, as in the past, in a manner detrimental to both the welfare and decent reputation of the country, and contrary to the professed views and wishes of the entire body of independent voters themselves.

Surely, so suicidal and so fatal a prejudice cannot prevail among those who claim the proud title of the enlightened and independent Republican voter. Its existence, therefore, must be an utter assumption, or its extent and influence greatly exaggerated. In the border States, during the war, the passions and resentments were undoubtedly fiercer than in the North, and the prejudices against the advocates of the "peace policy" naturally more lasting. And yet in Delaware more than five thousand voters who were opposed to Mr. Bayard's peace sentiments in 1861 have joined his party since the war, and are now among his stanchest supporters. Indeed, in Delaware, where his whole record is familiar to all, Mr. Bayard is stronger than his party, and can attract to his personal cause a host of voters—particularly the young—who have hitherto voted the Republican ticket, as is shown by their own public avowals of late, and by the spontaneous outpouring of the best elements of all parties during the unprecedented reception given him in November upon his return from Europe.

If these indications demonstrate how little influence can be wrought by "prejudice" even in a "border" State, how insignificant must it be elsewhere, and how little, if any, can it affect Mr. Bayard's availability! In truth, is there not reason to believe that this prejudice is an imaginary political bugbear, and will obtain only with the unreflecting or with those who, from sinister motives, wish Mr. Bayard to be reputed "unavailable"? But even if such an unpatriotic and perilous prejudice be found to exist, what will be the true mission of the independent press which has so often lauded Mr. Bayard as the ideal Presidential candidate, and also the obvious duty of the truly independent citizen at this juncture? Will it be to yield and pander to a baneful popular prejudice, or to utter the voice of warning and strive manfully and zealously to control and dispel it, and in its place create and direct a wholesome public sentiment?

If the independent press, which declares that the people are "perfectly in sympathy" with Mr. Bayard upon all present public questions affecting their dearest interests, as well as those party papers which have so often proclaimed that he, *par excellence*, possesses the qualifications required by the next President, will cordially, vigorously, and persistently unite in reiterating these utterances and in denouncing the suicidal folly of subordinating reason to passion and patriotism to prejudice, it is not at all improbable that the politicians will suddenly become convinced that "sentimental considerations" against Mr. Bayard's availability will promptly and most obligingly yield to the patriotic considerations requiring his election to the Presidency. J. C. G.

March 6, 1880.

RAILROAD COMPANIES AND THEIR EMPLOYEES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a late number of the *Nation* (No. 764) there was published a letter from Charles Francis Adams, jr., on the "Care for Railroad Employees," wherein Mr. Adams endorses and gives the sanction and the influence of his name and reputation to a scheme of which he says he has no doubt "that in itself the plan is not only perfectly practicable, but one dictated by the soundest considerations of pecuniary interest." The plan is that railroads shall obtain the "moral support and political help" of their employees (which are, it is assumed, not paid for by the ordinary wages) by creating a "Special Employee Loan Fund," to be lent to deserving men after three years' service at less than the current rate of interest. The money is to be used by the employees to procure homes, and the rate of interest named is 4 per cent.

The ruling rate of interest in the West being 8 per cent., this plan would in effect establish a special fund from which the company would donate the difference, say $40 a year (4 per cent. on $1,000) for five years, to an indefinite number of men for an indefinite service. It is obvious that anything which will promote *esprit de corps*, zeal, and efficiency among railroad operatives is a good thing for railroad owners; but whether zeal and *esprit de corps* can be promoted by the plan which Mr. Adams recommends, or by any other similar plan, is a fair question. Paternal methods of dealing with large bodies of men are apt to attract the attention and sympathy of philanthropic people, but the wisdom of such methods, especially in this country, may well be doubted. At all events, no step in that direction is safe until the ground has been very carefully and thoroughly surveyed in advance. Many of our great railroad companies employ from ten to twenty thousand men each, and the first thing for the employer to do in dealing with such a body of operatives is to make clear to them the true character of the business relation which exists between him and them, and this is all the more important if the employer be a corporation. Rules of conduct or the absence of rules, which might be safe or even salutary in the case of the individual employer of small numbers of men, might be destructive of discipline and an encouragement to the worst doctrines of communism if adopted by a corporation employing thousands.

Against this particular plan I beg to submit the following suggestions:

I. Making loans of money on favorable terms by an individual to secure to himself personal adherents of especial loyalty, may or may not be considered a success; the result varying with circumstances. This is essentially a personal matter, depending upon personal considerations alone, and the sphere of such operations is always quite limited, and, therefore, easily commanded. But the proposition to make it a branch or department in railway management, and effective as a means of influencing large bodies of employees, is a very different matter.

II. If it is proposed as being a remedy for too low wages, a better remedy can be suggested—namely, to raise the wages. Upon this point any one interested in the principle involved will find it discussed and condemned in the comments of Mr. Mill upon the "allowance" and "allotment" systems of England ('Principles of Polit. Econ.,' book ii. chapter xii. §§ 3 and 4'). Concerning allotments, which are commended as the better plan of the two, he says:

"As affecting the general condition of the laboring class the scheme, as it seems to me, must be either nugatory or mischievous. If only a few laborers have allotments, they are naturally those who could do best without them, and no good is done to the class; while if the system were general, and every or almost every laborer had an allotment, I believe the effect would be much the same as when every or almost every laborer had an allowance in aid of wages."

III. If the wages are high enough, they need not and should not be increased for the purpose of inducing men to do their duty to the company's interests. If not high enough to command the kind of service wanted, raise them. All the fidelity and "political help" which a company desires from employees can be secured by good treatment and the prompt payment of fair wages—that is, wages which will command in the market the services of the kind of men you want.

IV. All employees whose merit and service are the same should have equal reward from the company as such. But this gratuity is only to be

given for the purpose of securing homes, and to those who have already paid one-third in value on the property. If the fund is large enough to be made available to *all* who could buy homes, the number of these would still be comparatively small. Many workingmen do not need homes of their own—have no families and no occasion to buy homes. Of those "in meritorious service over three years" probably not one in ten would go upon the list as a borrower from the fund. Nothing will produce more discontent among employees than a feeling that they are being unequally dealt with in a distribution of this kind. The gratuity should not be restricted to those alone who are able and willing to buy homes. If it is urged that the very object of the plan is to discriminate in favor of those who buy homes, to give them a premium because the possession of homes makes better citizens, and, therefore, better employees, it is nevertheless true that the plan would not tend to promote the zeal and *esprit de corps*, but the reverse, among the nine out of ten or four out of five meritorious employees who, from various causes, would not share in the bounty. Besides it is, to say the least, doubtful if on general principles it would be wise to offer special inducements to employees to run in debt.

V. Under the proposed plan the money will as a rule be given to those who need it the least, which, if not an injustice, is nevertheless not what the plan aims at. As the fund is limited some test for applicants is necessary, and the one named is that the borrower shall be "deserving." But he who is most deserving and meritorious would probably have been the most frugal and saving, and would be least in need of the money.

VI. It is doubtful whether actual experience will demonstrate that the effect upon the few who receive the loans will be to increase their efficiency or devotion as workmen. Shakspere says:

> "Neither a borrower nor a lender be,
> For loan oft loses both itself and friend,
> And borrowing dulls the edge of husbandry."

VII. As the fund is to be provided by the "absentee owners" of Western railroads, so the placing of it must be confided to the local management. Employees will claim that they are interested in the fund, and if the manager fails to divide it fairly and to decide rightly who are *most* "deserving" and "meritorious" in accordance with their ideas of fairness they will think they have just cause for dissatisfaction; this will not promote efficiency in the service.

VIII. Assuming that this is not proposed as being in any sense a remedy for low wages, but in "reward" of merit (as if "merit" were not expected for fair wages), and that an early result of its sincere adoption will be to extend its privileges to *all* deserving workmen of three years' standing, it not only involves the use of very large amounts of money, but it introduces a new element into the relations of employer and employee. The doctrine now generally accepted as sound is that personal service is a commodity worth the market price, good and zealous service always commanding a better price than poor or indifferent service in the long run; that great railroads are peculiarly dependent upon the general labor market for their supply; and that whatever disarranges it is to their detriment. Paternalism, however well meant on the part of railroad companies, will weaken the conviction in the minds of working people that wages are solely dependent upon the law of supply and demand, and there will be substituted the feeling that the owners of the property are adding, can add, will add, and soon that they *should* add something "reasonable" as a reward of merit, as if a man were not employed and paid good wages to do his duty.

IX. Employees who reflect upon the subject will probably prefer to be paid fair wages and receive fair treatment, and then pay the market price for the money they borrow, as they do for other commodities. Gratuities, if not regarded as a right, would put them under obligations to the company independent of their employment. They would prefer that the regular laws of property and values should control the relation, and to feel at liberty to exact higher wages if the wage market justified it.

X. It is a business necessity in the operation of railroads that there shall be on the part of the managers freedom to discharge any employee, without being required to give a reason for it. *Any* paternal arrangements will interfere with that freedom, and to that extent impair the efficiency of the service.

XI. The general object of the plan is to stimulate men to greater zeal and efficiency. But men are stimulated, if at all, by the hope of something of more value to them than the loan of $1,000 at 4 per cent., namely, an advance or promotion in place and pay; and if the hope and desire for these will not make a man work with zeal, the added possibility of getting $40 a year given to him for five years after three years' service, will have no effect. In fact, zeal and efficiency among railroad employees depend on the kind of discipline and management which assures a man that with these qualities he can get ahead in the natural way. No artificial stimulus is needed.

XII. The establishment of hospitals, and of libraries and reading-rooms, at points where large numbers of men congregate, is a somewhat different matter. There is some reason to doubt whether mankind appreciates what it does not have to pay for; but within limits, and rightly managed, it is possible some good may come from this kind of provision for the employees all alike. The writer has had some experience and spent some money in trying the library and reading-room scheme, and while the result is as yet not altogether satisfactory or encouraging, the indications are that in this direction is the best prospect for a satisfactory result.

GRADGRIND.

Notes.

IN token of the centenary of Channing's birth, the Unitarian Association will issue a new edition of his life, by his nephew, Rev. W. H. Channing, compressing it into one volume. Roberts Brothers, also, will publish 'Reminiscences of Dr. Channing,' by Miss Elizabeth P. Peabody, another book about him by the Rev. Charles T. Brooks, and 'Principles and Portraits' by the Rev. Dr. Bartol. The same house, in order to head off an unauthorized edition of Arnold's 'Light of Asia,' will issue a cheap paper edition of their own, with additional matter.——Houghton, Osgood & Co. have in press a 'History of Marblehead,' by Samuel Roads, jr. ——D. Lothrop & Co. will shortly begin publication of a "Library of Entertaining History," edited by Mr. Arthur Gilman. 'India,' by Mrs. Fannie R. Feudge; 'Egypt,' by Mrs. Clement; 'Switzerland,' by Mrs. Julia S. Tutwiler; 'Scandinavia,' by Mr. Chas. E. Hurd; and 'Spain,' by Prof. J. A. Harrison, are among the volumes projected.——'Free Trade and Free Land,' by Representative S. S. Cox, is in the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons.——Austin Dobson's 'Vignettes in Rhyme,' with an introduction by E. C. Stedman; and William Cory's 'Guide to Modern English History—Part I., 1815–30,' will be published at once by Henry Holt & Co.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in preparation 'King Lear,' the fourth volume of Mr. Horace Howard Furness's Variorum Edition of Shakspere; the 'Summerland Sketches' of Mr. Felix L. Oswald, which have formed an agreeable feature of their magazine; and 'New England Bygones,' by E. H. Arr.——Mr. John Springer, of Iowa City, is printing by easy stages an expanded edition of his Catalogue of books, etc., in his possession relating to the art of Printing. It will be limited to 85 copies on tinted and as many on plain paper.——Mr. Alexander Mackintosh Shaw, of Chipping Barnet, Herts, England, invites subscriptions at a guinea a volume to his 'Historical Memoirs of the House and Clan of Mackintosh and of the Clan Chattan' (large 8vo, pp. 700). The work has been for several years in MS., and will be published if the cost of printing is assured. It contains separate accounts of the Macphersons, Macgillivrays, Macbeans, Shaws, Farquharsons, and other septs of the Clan Chattan, and has an important relation to the general history of the Highlands.——Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, have just brought out a very useful and timely compilation, by Florien Giauque, of all constitutional provisions and laws of the United States relating to elections, the elective franchise, citizenship, and the naturalization of aliens. It makes a not bulky pamphlet even with the addition of notes of all the United States courts' decisions, and in naturalization cases of the State courts also. There is a full index.——A. Williams & Co., Boston, are about to issue, under the title of 'Our National Domain,' Mr. Edward Atkinson's graphic chart of State and international areas, etc., published at Thanksgiving by the *Herald*. It will be folded within covers.——The fourth annual report of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts shows an attendance during the past year of nearly 160,000 visitors, the free Sunday having an average of more than 300 over the free Saturday, and once (during the exhibition of Mr. Hunt's pictures) attaining the large total of 4,400. The Museum has now "by far the best collection of casts in the United States, and one of the best in the world." Among the more important acquisitions of 1879 were the Tanagra figurines, and casts of some of the Olympian masterpieces. ——From the fourteenth annual report of the Sheffield Scientific School and the fifteenth of the Rutgers it appears that the State scholarships in both these institutions go a-begging.——The *Oriental Church Magazine* enters with the number for this month on its second volume (American News Co.) In addition to the features which give this quarterly a peculiar interest is its aim "to promote the reunion of the divided churches of

Christendom."——The *Bystander*, a monthly review published at Toronto since the beginning of the year by Hunter, Rose & Co., deserves the attention of all who are politically-minded, and who like fresh and vigorous comment on the leading events of the day in both hemispheres. Apparently the entire contents of this periodical are the production of one writer, and he the author of the paper in a recent *Atlantic* "On the Prospect of a Moral Interregnum." To say this is to bestow the highest praise upon the literary style of the *Bystander*, and to indicate its liberal and independent view of public affairs. Imperialism, flunkeyism, and toryism are, when Canada and the mother country are concerned, the editor's chief objects of aversion.——M. Ernest Boysse has recently published (Paris: Vaton; New York: F. W. Christern) 'Le Théâtre des Jésuites,' some chapters of which had previously appeared in the *Revue Contemporaine*. To most readers even his title is a surprise. In the popular mind the principal connection of the Jesuits with the theatre is their having sat as model for *Tartuffe*. As a fact, however, a Jesuit defended Molière against attack after *Tartuffe*. M. Boysse's book is a history of the plays written for acting by the pupils of the Jesuits' College in Paris—at which, as it happened, Molière was a scholar. Most of these plays were original with the worthy fathers, who wrote them for the practice of their pupils. Female parts were omitted as far as possible, and classic and sacred subjects were most frequently treated. The most amusing of M. Boysse's chapters are those describing the ballets (!) in which the scholars appeared.

—The citizens of Baltimore are thinking of celebrating the hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the founding of that city in some fitting way. A committee to whom the matter was referred by the Maryland Historical Society recommend that, in addition to a public dinner, with appropriate addresses, a series of papers be prepared for publication by competent writers, "to illustrate the history of the city in every important particular from its settlement to this time. These papers should include not only those events and subjects which usually fall within the range of history, but all such as belong to the life and growth of the city." To give sufficient time for preparation, they recommend that the celebration shall take place in the coming autumn.

—The appearance of the quarterly *American Journal of Philology*, under the auspices of the Johns Hopkins University, is a notable event in the annals of American scholarship. It is, indeed, singular that the professorial corps in our higher institutions of learning, who, whatever else may be said for them, have been remarkably free from jealousy and bickerings, should not long ago have felt the need of a means of communication in their kindred studies. We have especially in view the professors of languages, ancient and modern, because a comparison of notes on their part is a direct contribution to pedagogy, and because the educational journals in which something of this might have been done, have not succeeded in rising above the grammar-school level of interest and support. We expect to see a good influence exerted upon these by the new *Journal of Philology*. Its editor is Basil L. Gildersleeve, the Johns Hopkins Professor of Greek, and the publishers Macmillan & Co., though subscriptions are payable to the editor (P. O. Drawer 18, Baltimore). The first number runs to Greek decidedly, as Prof. Gildersleeve admits; but this is the accident of a beginning and not the result of bias on his part. His own contributions are supplemented by those of Prof. Goodwin, of Harvard, and Prof. Packard, of Yale, among the leading articles; and by Messrs. Thomas Davidson and A. C. Merriam among the Notes. German is represented in Prof. Franklin Carter's article, "Two German Scholars on one of Goethe's Masquerades," and abundantly in the Reports—*i.e.*, careful and readable summaries of the contents of the leading philological periodicals. This is something quite apart from the Reviews, which have also their place. The number closes with a long list of serial publications on philology already at the command of the *Journal*, and with eight pages of Recent Publications, classified by national origin. Single numbers can be procured of Macmillan & Co. at $1 each, while the subscription price is $3 for the volume of four numbers. We wish the *Journal* all the success which its founders can desire.

—From the office of the *Railroad Gazette* we have received the 'Car-Builder's Dictionary,' compiled by Mr. M. N. Forney, one of the editors of that excellent paper, with the assistance of Mr. Garey, superintendent of the Car Department of the N. Y. Central and Hudson River R.R., and Mr. Smith, secretary of the Master Car-Builders' Association. The design of the work is primarily to meet the necessities of the extended interchange of rolling-stock among different and distant roads, when repairs are to be undertaken; and secondarily to fix the nomenclature, of which the diversity is at present great and marked by all the qualities of the American genius for invention in language as well as in the arts. A third result will probably be to encourage uniformity of construction. The work is in two parts: the vocabulary, printed on green paper; and the illustrations, on white. In the alphabetical list of terms each one is briefly defined, and a reference is given by numbers to the figure and its part which represent the object. Thus, *fare-wicket* is defined as "an opening in the main door of a street-car, through which the conductor collects fares from passengers on the platform without opening the main door," and is numbered 89 in fig. 753. But how shall one, looking first at the figure, discover the corresponding technical term for 89? On the same page he is referred back to p. 477, where, under the heading "Street-Cars," is a numbered list of names of all the parts represented in the subsequent group of illustrations. This gives him the name, and then the vocabulary gives him the definition. The labor and ingenuity displayed in this dictionary can hardly be too highly praised. As every nation has its own mechanical terminology, the work might challenge a place beside the 'Dictionary of Americanisms' not less than beside (say) Knight's 'American Mechanical Dictionary.' It does not, we ought to add, profess to be complete, but only to embrace the parts and objects in common use.

—We described briefly, the other day, the Coast Survey volume on Alaska, compiled by Mr. Wm. H. Dall, and containing all known meteorological records kept in Alaska and Eastern Siberia during many years, together with a list of all books, pamphlets, and newspaper articles written concerning the extreme Northern Pacific Ocean and its coasts and islands, in any language. The meteorological portion covers 150 pages. Among the stations included are Hakodadi, in Japan; Petropavlovsk, in Kamtchatka; and Point Barrow, in the Arctic Ocean, latitude 71°. The records quoted from Sitka extend back more than forty years. The interest of these records is diminished by incomplete habits of description—*e. g.*, as to whether inches of snowfall are supposed to be melted, whether dates are N.S. or O.S., whether baric data are "corrected" for elevation, and further by the confounding of relative with absolute humidity. The compiler occasionally expresses doubts as to the credibility of the materials he has collected—thus: "The table of the force of the wind seems unsatisfactory, as it does not accord with experience, and seems altogether too uniform for accuracy." Moreover, he confesses to the doubt which we have often insisted on as to the veracity of data from low-lying vanes: "In regard to winds a good deal of material has accumulated; but it is almost impracticable to free it from station-error or bias, due to the conformation of land at each particular station." Of Dove's observations he says: "They conflict with my own experience . . . and with common sense . . . to such an extent that they cannot be considered as having any value." Among hypotheses disproved is that of the existence of a gulf-stream from Japan to Behring's Strait; among those proved is that of an area of very low pressure over the Northern Pacific Ocean in winter. The climate of the Alaskan coast closely resembles that of Norway. Mr. Dall will spend the coming season in studying the configuration and currents of Behring's Straits.

—A chapter from Gregorovius' 'Wanderjahre in Italien' has been translated, with the author's permission, by Miss Lilian Clarke, and published as a small volume, with the title 'The Island of Capri' (Lee & Shepard). It has been turned into very pleasant English, and can be cordially recommended to the large number who read with delight every new description of Italian scenes, especially when, as in this case, the description is more than commonly full. The author has not mentioned the distance of the island from the mainland, or the circumference of it (about nine miles), but while speaking of the grottoes, into more than fifteen of which he penetrated, says one can easily make the circuit of it in three hours. It is well known that the Emperor Tiberius made the island his residence during the last eleven years of his life, and built there twelve villas. It was also inhabited by other emperors, and had been bought by Augustus; but Tiberius is the only one who survives in the popular tradition, and he as a monster of iniquity. His name has become hardened in the popular language to *Timberio*, and the inhabitants also call their island Crap. Tiberius's character we are hardly expected to discuss in a notice of a pleasant description of a lovely island, but it may be said that Gregorovius appears to hold to the correctness of the popular tradition, in which he agrees with the Emperor's near successors, Tacitus and Suetonius, and also Dion. Miss Clarke observes that, although this harsh view has been seriously questioned by recent scholars, she has not thought proper to alter the author's expressions, meaning,

probably, by notes referring to other opinions, as, of course, without the author's approbation, she would not undertake to alter the text. Perhaps Merivale says about as much in apology of Tiberius, or redintegration of him, as the case requires.

—Among the many men to whom Mr. Matthew Arnold has for a number of years been a source of almost nervous annoyance, it is probable that even the aggressive sceptics have been less keenly exasperated than the dogmatic theologians, of whom he once remarked: "It is clear that dogmatists love religion, for else why do they occupy themselves with it so much and make it, most of them, the business, even the professional business, of their lives?" When he talks about religion being something quite independent of the current theology, it seems to them, remembering how dogma is the bone and sinew of religion according to all traditions, grossly impertinent. And it is doubtless with this thought in mind that Principal Shairp, Mr. Arnold's and Mr. Ruskin's successor in the professorship of poetry at Oxford, expresses a civil surprise in the current number of the *Princeton Review* at the recent utterances of Mr. Arnold concerning Wordsworth. Mr. Arnold had said in effect, every one will remember, that morality formed a main part of human life, and that English poetry was great chiefly because it had recognized that truth; Voltaire, by the way, had said it before him. In an article on "Poetry *versus* Agnosticism" Principal Shairp quotes this, and adds: "We are glad to hear it asserted from quarters whence we should hardly have looked for it." Mr. Arnold can certainly take very good care of himself, and we do not propose to defend him or any "theories" he may have against the affronts of Principal Shairp. What is curious, however, is that Principal Shairp has probably no notion whatever that his remark is an affront; and this state of mind in the professor of poetry at Oxford is worth noting. Nothing could be clearer than Mr. Arnold's attitude towards all such matters. Aside from his direct dealings with religious subjects it is impossible to read any of his literary essays without seeing how largely in his view morality enters into all questions, and how necessary it is in everything. The Continental criticisms upon his "Literature and Dogma" were, we remember, expressions of astonishment at this; M. Challemel-Lacour in particular took him roundly to task for his absurd overestimate of the importance of morality. To associate him by implication with the school of criticism of which Mr. Swinburne and Mr. Rossetti might fairly be taken as examples, is simply to make a mistake in information which no Oxford professor ought to be without, or to be guilty of misrepresentation, too clearly misrepresentation to every well-informed person to be successful.

—In religion, however, Mr. Arnold is undoubtedly an agnostic, and therein, it is patent, lies the objection that would vitiate anything he might say in such minds as those of Principal Shairp. It is probably impossible for the latter to believe Mr. Arnold when he professes himself a Wordsworthian. His whole article proceeds upon the impossibility of true poetry being written by any one who does not believe the Christian eschatology, because a true poet must be moral, and no one can be moral without dogmatic belief about supersensible things. This we believe to be a fair epitome of his article as nearly as we can make it out, and it is worth mention because it illustrates the vice of much criticism now current, and inverts the proper order of procedure with what may be aptly termed intellectual unscrupulousness, careless of everything but the moral effect on the reader. The evident and fatal objection to it is that there have been precisely such men and conditions as Principal Shairp says cannot exist. He quotes a celebrated passage from "The Excursion" to show that "not merely moral qualities" are suggested by landscape, but that they lead man "into greater nearness to Him who makes that beauty and order"; and the famous passage from the "Eve of St. Agnes" to show that Keats "does not much pass beyond . . . very intense sensuous delight in graceful form and gorgeous color." Unfortunately for the *ergo* here, Keats's verses are incontestably the higher poetry. Further on he says it hardly makes more difference in the color of a man's practical life whether he really believes that "this world is but the vestibule of an endless state of being," than it does "in the complexion of a poet's work." It is idle to follow such criticism as this, or one might ask Principal Shairp how far inferior this would make the author of sundry Hebrew psalms to the late Dr. Isaac Watts. If it means that Lucretius would have been a greater poet if he had not been a materialist, one can only say that upon Principal Shairp rests the burden of proof.

—The fifth concert of the Symphony Society cannot be called a success. The fault lay chiefly with the programme, which was, in the first place, of unusual length, consisting of four elaborate orchestral pieces, without the interruption of an instrumental or vocal solo, and which, secondly, was not put together with Dr. Damrosch's usual felicity. The opening number was Goldmark's overture to "Penthesilea," which Dr. Damrosch introduced here at his second concert last November. The first favorable impression of this brilliant and interesting work, which is distinguished by a remarkably powerful and effective instrumentation, was fully confirmed on a second hearing. The next number was a novelty, a Slavonic Rhapsody (No. 2, G minor), by the Bohemian, Anton Dvorak, whose compositions have of late created a sensation in Europe, particularly in England. To judge from the specimen performed on Saturday last, it is difficult to imagine on what merits the enthusiastic opinions which have been expressed in English musical papers are based. Dvorak's rhapsody is a work full of pretty and pleasing subjects, with a bright, sometimes effective, instrumentation, but that is all; the ideas are neither striking nor new, and they are treated in a restless and unfinished manner, which is not excusable even in a rhapsody. It was a mistake to place this number immediately after Goldmark's overture, for the two have so much in common that the second number seemed only a weak finale of the preceding one, and the hearing of both together was wearisome and exhausting. If there was not enough contrast between the first and second numbers, there was too much between the second and third. Like a Titan among dwarfs appeared Beethoven's "Eroica," while Liszt's Symphonic poem "Tasso"—a delightful composition, often heard before, and always with pleasure—never fared worse than on Saturday night, when it immediately succeeded Beethoven's symphony. If the arrangement of the programme was inartistic, the performance, too, was somewhat spiritless, and altogether the fifth concert was decidedly the least meritorious which Dr. Damrosch has given this season.

—The most noticeable event in the week's Italian opera was the appearance of Mlle. de Belocca, who made her début in Col. Mapleson's company on Monday last in Bizet's "Carmen." We spoke a few weeks ago in terms of great praise of this charming artist's rendering of the same part with the Strakosch company at Booth's Theatre. Mlle. Belocca was evidently very nervous before the more critical audience of the Academy; nevertheless she sang and acted her interesting part very acceptably. "Lucia," "Linda," and "La Figlia del Reggimento" were repeated; and an excellent performance of the "Magic Flute," with Mlle. Marimon for the first time in this city as *Queen of the Night*, and Mlle. Valleria as a very delightful *Pamina*, completed a highly enjoyable week of Italian opera.

—Professors Sophus Bugge and A. Bang, of the University of Norway, continue to make a good deal of stir among the scholars of Europe on the subject of Teutonic mythology; and if they succeed in establishing their thesis, that the eddic myths are derived from early Jewish-Christian, Keltic, and Græco-Latin legendary tales, we shall have to give up much that we have hitherto regarded as purely Teutono-Scandinavian, and tear out many leaves from the mythologies of Grimm, Simrock, Keyser, etc. The theory presented by Dr. Gudbrand Vigfússon, of Oxford University, in his prolegomena to the Sturlunga Saga, recently published by the Clarendon Press—namely, that the Elder Edda originated in the Western Isles—seems to be confirmed by subsidiary evidence, and the latest investigation (by Prof. Rhys) proves that the word "edda" does not, as has so long been supposed, mean "great-grandmother," but is from an old Irish word, *aideadh*, meaning death or destruction, and referring in this instance to the *ragnarok* of Teutonic mythology. It is now asserted that the author or authors of the Elder Edda drew most of their materials from the libraries of the Irish (or Keltic) monasteries. Prof. Bugge alleges that Balder is the Anglo-Saxon *Bealdor* (= lord), and that the whole Balder myth is based on early legends of Christ. The white Balder is thus identified with the white Christ; Loke is Lucifer; Nanna, Balder's wife, is the Greek Œnone; Geirrod is Geryon; Angantyr is Kentaur, with the Keltic article *in* prefixed, etc. Even Lodyn is nothing but Latona. Many distinguished European scholars have already yielded their assent to the correctness of the new theories, notably Professor Konrad Maurer, of Munich, in an elaborate article in a leading German magazine and in an address delivered before the Munich Scientific Society. Prof. Bugge's work on the subject is to be published during the present month in Norwegian and German at the same time.

—It should be borne in mind that the facts upon which Bugge bases his surprising conclusions are not all Dr. Bang's and his discovery, nor are they very new. As early as 1859 the late Dr. J. G. von Hahn published his

'Mythologische Parallelen,' in which the identity by common origin (or, as Bugge now makes it, by transmission from one to the other) of Græco-Latin and Teutonic myths was established by numerous striking examples, and which was afterwards embodied in his elaborate work entitled, 'Sagenwissenschaftliche Studien' (Jena, 1876). The mutual influence of the Odinic and Christian religions upon each other has also long been recognized, and was especially emphasized by Jacob Grimm in his 'Deutsche Mythologie.' The antiquity and authenticity of the eddas, too, were disputed before Grimm by such authors in Germany as Schlözer, Adelung, Rühs, and others. The question, then, is simply this: Shall these identifications of South-European and North-European myths made by Von Hahn and other mythologists now receive through Bugge a new application? Shall they henceforth be made to testify that Teutonic mythology is merely the child of the Græco-Latin, or shall they, as heretofore, simply serve as evidence that Greek and Teutonic mythology have a common parent, a common origin?

—A recent number of *Nord und Süd* contains an interesting explanation of the mystery of the life of "Charles Sealsfield," from the pen of the Swiss clergyman Friedrich Hemmann, who during this writer's last years was his closest friend and confidant. Sealsfield was born in the Austrian village of Poppitz, in 1793, and his true name was Carl Postl. He was ordained a priest, and as such spent the years 1816-17 in Prague, where he studied English. He afterwards became a monk, and in 1822 he disappeared. His flight was traced through Vienna and Tyrol, but at the Swiss border the trail was lost, and he succeeded so completely in his design of beginning life anew that to the day of his death Sealsfield was never identified with the vanished monk. In Zürich there were already many persons of consequence who were liberals in politics, and were pleased to have an opportunity of befriending a fugitive from Metternich's tyranny. There was also at the time a business connection between Zürich and the United States, and a kind of "underground railway" by means of which it is probable that many other exiles as well as Postl reached the New World. Sealsfield acquired a considerable fortune in this country, having bought, according to his own story, fifteen hundred acres on the Red River at the price of one dollar an acre. He remained here but seven years and then returned to Switzerland, whence he for some years wrote letters to American papers. His knowledge of American habits and scenery is certainly extraordinary for one who lived so short a time in the country, and whose previous life can hardly have fitted him to be a quick observer. In spite of pecuniary prosperity and a fair measure of fame the close of his career (he died in 1864) was not happy. He had no family; his care to preserve his secret prevented his having confidence in any one; overbearing manners and a habit of mystification regarding his own history did not win him the respect of his equals, and his humble neighbors could account for his peculiarities only on the supposition that he was pursued by remorse for some crime, the popular notion being that his wealth was derived from profits in the slave-trade or from piracy.

BURTON'S REIGN OF QUEEN ANNE.*

I.—THE UNION.

UNDER Queen Anne England expanded into Great Britain. This change was effected not by the mere force of circumstances, but by one of the greatest efforts of constructive statesmanship recorded in the history of the modern world. A generation who have turned the instructive paradox, that constitutions are not made but grow, into a misleading platitude, ought to learn much from Mr. Burton's account of the means by which the statesmen of the eighteenth century overcame the all but insuperable difficulties which opposed themselves to the union of England and Scotland. These difficulties were so completely vanquished that a modern student finds it hard to realize how great they were. Yet, in truth, no task which ingenuity ever set itself to accomplish might seem at first sight more arduous than did the attempt to blend the two kingdoms into one nation. All tradition and all the historical influences, the weight of which is in the present day so much overrated, told against success. National independence was the one sentiment in which all Scotchmen agreed; resistance to England created, so to speak, the spirit of Scotch life. The union of the crowns had not produced anything like a union of the peoples; it had not even produced peace. James's accession to an English throne had delivered him from thraldom to Presbyterian ministers. The maxim "No bishop, no king" had influenced the feelings of James, as it guided the policy of his son. An English army had marched under Charles against Scotland to support the king's episcopal policy, and, by a strange combination of circumstances, the overthrow of Charles only exhibited the inherent differences of sentiment which divided the southern from the northern portion of the island. Cromwell's victory at Dunbar was the triumph of England over Scotland. Cromwell's victory at Worcester was the defeat of a Scotch monarch. Cromwell's union of the two nations was the carrying out by the greatest of English rulers of the policy conceived by the greatest of English kings. In Scotland Cromwell was as much an English conqueror as was Edward I. Moreover, the supremacy of the Independents was a fatal blow to the hope cherished by the whole Scotch nation that Presbyterianism would be the established religion of the whole island. The Restoration was at least as welcome in Scotland as in England, and its chief ground of popularity in Scotland was that it put an end to English domination.

The accession of William III. might, it would have been thought, have terminated the feud between the two neighboring countries; but in matter of fact the spirit of hostility to England flourished and increased in Scotland every year from the Revolution to the Union. Mr. Burton admirably explains the economic causes of Scotch discontent. They resulted from the same commercial ideas and the same economic policy which in 1780 roused Ireland to assert her independence. Moreover, what in modern times would be called sentimental grievances contributed to every question between Scotland and England that element of unreasoning though not always unreasonable passion which perplexes English governments in their dealings with Ireland. For the truth is that the condition of Scotch sentiment in regard to England towards the beginning of the eighteenth century bore a curious resemblance to feelings which are sometimes treated as phenomena peculiar to Ireland. The failure of the Darien scheme was much more than a mere commercial calamity. It made every Scotchman feel that Scotch independence was only a name, and led nine out of ten Scotchmen to the belief that an undertaking in which the credit and fortune of their country were concerned had fallen a sacrifice to the treachery and cupidity of England. If proof of the intensity of this sentiment were needed, one might find it in the judicial murder of Captain Green. Oddly enough, Mr. Burton gives the story with somewhat less fairness in his 'Reign of Queen Anne' than in his 'History of Scotland.' But either account is quite sufficient to show that Green was the martyr to national antipathy to England. That he or his crew had committed any crime whatever is in the highest degree uncertain; that he had injured or murdered a single Scotchman is absolutely unproved; that he had not murdered the person whose death he was supposed to have caused is certain; yet he and his ship were seized at Leith with a treachery which recalls the massacre at Glencoe. He was tried and convicted by a Scotch court; he was executed by order of the Scotch Privy Council, and if he had not been hanged by the executioner would certainly, like Porteous, have fallen a victim to the fury of the Scotch mob. He was sacrificed to a "Scotch idea" quite as unfounded, as brutal, and as irrational as any of the wildest Irish ideas recorded in the pages of Mr. Froude. Nor was violence of feeling peculiar to the mob or to the law-courts. The famous act for the security of the kingdom has now fallen into oblivion. Most Englishmen and Scotchmen will probably be equally surprised to be reminded that under Anne the Scotch Parliament passed an act which on the death of her Majesty excluded from the succession the person chosen to the crown of England, unless there should "be such conditions of government settled and enacted as may secure the honor and sovereignty of this crown and kingdom—the freedom, frequency, and power of parliaments—the religion, freedom, and trade of the nation—from English or any foreign influence."

It may perhaps be supposed that Scotch jealousy and fear of England were counterbalanced by eagerness for union on the part of the richer nation; but this was not the case. No doubt statesmen and merchants in both countries saw the material advantages of a measure which ensured internal peace and doubled the external power of the nation; but there is no doubt that the Scotch were disliked by the mass of Englishmen. A Scotchman was in popular imagination an adventurer, and a needy adventurer. He was an adventurer who made his way, and was not supposed to have either the geniality or the lighter virtues which sometimes distinguish men who have to make their fortune by pleasing others. The romance which Scott has thrown round his country was quite unknown to our forefathers. Events, further, which men still living at the time of the Union could remember were not calculated to make Englishmen entertain friendly feelings towards Scotchmen. The Scotch had attempted

* 'A History of the Reign of Queen Anne. By John Hill Burton, D C.L.' 3 vols. Edinburgh: Wm. Blackwood & Sons; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1880.

to force on England a scheme of church government specially hateful to Englishmen. The Scotch had been opposed both to Charles and to Cromwell. They had the misfortune to suffer all the odium which under Queen Anne attached to Puritanism and Dissent, without commanding the sympathy of the men who maintained the traditions of the Independents. More than sixty years after the Union, Junius could write that treachery was natural to a Scotchman; and Junius knew how to suit his invective to the taste of his readers. Neither Johnson nor Wilkes was deficient in common sense, but they each detested the Scotch. In either case, no doubt, there was in this avowal of prejudice a considerable dash of humor ; but the humorous prejudices of one age are often survivals from the genuine sentiments of another, and any one who realizes how much prejudice against Scotland still existed when George III. came to the throne, may form some idea of the strength of the dislike to the Scotch which must have been prevalent at the time of the Union.

Enlightened statesmanship, however, triumphed, as we all know, over all the difficulties which opposed themselves to the consolidation of England and Scotland into one nation ; but there are few of us who realize how it was that this achievement was brought to pass. Readers of Mr. Burton's work gradually come to perceive that this triumph of enlightened policy was accomplished by men who knew how to adhere to principles, some, if not all, of which have been constantly neglected by politicians who wished to unite different states into one nation. The authors of the Union took, in the first place, the greatest care to make every possible concession of interest to the weaker nation. There is no doubt whatever that if England and Scotland were to be considered as haggling over the terms of union, Scotland got by far the best of the bargain. The same wide view of expediency which led English statesmen to consider the interest of the two nations as so completely identical that there was no reason for grudging liberal terms to the poorer state, also made them insist upon everything which was really essential to a complete union. The measure for uniting the two kingdoms was (unlike so many other acts of English legislation) a thoroughgoing piece of workmanship, which was meant fully to achieve its object. It left no open questions. It left nothing to be settled in the modern manner by some amending act filling up the crude outlines of an imperfect scheme. Just, however, because the Act of Union contained all that was essential for its object, it did not aim at producing that kind of uniformity which modern theorists confound with national unity. The laws, the church, the local institutions of Scotland were left in all ordinary matters untouched. A Scotch farmer might soon get to feel that, as far as his daily life went, the union with England produced no change except alterations obviously for the better. The position of the Church was absolutely secured, the laws were unaltered, and the daily life of the people went on exactly as it did before the Union, with the exceptions that no Parliament met at Edinburgh and that existence became more peaceful and prosperous. One marked alteration in the law indeed took place : the use of torture was abolished. That Scotland should have been delivered from this the worst abuse of judicial proceedings is of itself almost sufficient to give the statesmen of the Union a claim to the lasting gratitude of the Scotch people. In estimating the capacity of the political leaders who, by uniting the two parts of the island, laid the foundations for the greatness of the British Empire, it must, of course, be remembered that several circumstances favored their efforts. The course of events naturally tended towards some kind of closer connection between Scotland and England. The fact that they had been united under Cromwell no doubt told somewhat in favor of permanent union. Men who hated the Protector could not deny that his policy had made the whole island prosperous and powerful. The conviction prevalent among Protestants of all denominations that their safety required them to stand together against France and Rome, no doubt told still more strongly in the same direction. The Union, further, closed the long era of religious struggles and persecutions which had for generations disturbed Scotland.

It must also be admitted that the aristocratic form of government which prevailed under Queen Anne favored great strokes of statesmanship. Popular government has inestimable advantages, but popular government means and ought to mean deference to the wishes of the people; and it may well be doubted whether if the government either of England or of Scotland had been at the beginning of the eighteenth century of a democratic character the Union could have been carried. When a century later Pitt attempted to repeat with regard to Ireland the policy which had succeeded so brilliantly when applied to Scotland, his attempt was, to say the least, but half successful. Its failure was due to his inability to combine the Act of Union with a measure of Catholic emancipation. It may, indeed, be said that the obstinacy of George III. marred his minister's policy, but to say this is to attribute to the king's perversity more importance than is due to it. The spirit though not the form of the constitution had changed since the time of Anne. Public opinion had gained a great increase of importance since 1707, and popular sentiment backed up the narrow bigotry of the king against the enlightenment of Pitt. Yet had the king supported the minister he probably might have overridden public prejudice. It is, at any rate, a circumstance which greatly favored the Scotch Union that Anne gave it her hearty support. She is neither a pleasing nor an impressive personage; but a queen who did not thwart a bold policy which greatly benefited the nation, may, as monarchs go, be considered worthy of praise. That the statesmen who carried the Union were in some respects favored by circumstances in no way detracts from their greatness, for the art of politics is the art not of forcing nations into courses utterly opposed to the bent of national genius or to the general current of events, but of using favorable circumstances so as to promote national progress in the direction which it tends naturally to follow. To have done this is the glory of the men who linked together England and Scotland. The Union was a marriage not of sentiment, but of convenience or of necessity; but, based as it was on prudence and carried out with skill, it has produced greater national prosperity than any deliberate act of policy known to the modern world, unless we except the formation of the United States. The English race have committed errors enough in all parts of the world; to their political credit, however, must be put down the fact that they have twice deliberately built up political unions which have been the foundations of national greatness.

BAGEHOT'S ECONOMIC STUDIES.*

THOSE who have been puzzled and confused by the noise made in the world during the last few years by what is called the "Historical School" in Political Economy can hardly find more instructive reading than the volume before us, containing a collection of posthumous essays by the late Mr. Walter Bagehot, the editor of the London *Economist*. The "school" in question is simply a fine name for a sort of reaction against free-trade which has spread in one form or another over the world during the last fifteen or twenty years. This reaction has been largely due to the rise of what is called "the labor problem"; that is to say, the workingmen, even in England, never took kindly to political economy as preached by the disciples of Adam Smith in the Manchester School, and it can hardly be said to have been preached by anybody else with much fervor or acceptance. They supported free-trade because in the form in which it presented itself, in the agitation which preceded its triumph in England, it meant simply cheap bread. But they never acquiesced fully, if at all, in the general application of what are called the laws of trade. They were never quite willing to concede that the relation of demand and supply should determine the rate of wages, or that the freedom of contract between employee and employed should never be restricted by legislation. In the British colonies and on the Continent, free-trade as practised in England never obtained a secure footing. The step towards it taken in France by the Cobden-Chevalier Treaty was taken by the Emperor without consulting or heeding the popular opinion. In fact, ever since 1846 the Protectionists have everywhere defended protection ostensibly in the interest of the working classes; before that period they made no scruple about defending it in the interest of the manufacturing capitalists, and in aid of vested interests. The examination which political economy, as preached by the disciples of Adam Smith, has undergone with reference to this labor problem has, of course, revealed the fact that it is not a panacea, and that a great many of its conclusions are inexact owing to the disturbing influence of varying social conditions, and the differing strength in different places of different social motives. The "Historical School" came into existence as the detector of these discrepancies and divergences. Its books and pamphlets are, however, in no sense scientific. They consist simply in the description, and often wearisome description, of the agencies which in various countries and ages have prevented the laws of trade from working in the way the English economists described them as working. The English economists, however, really did what explorers in every scientific field have to do—that is, they assumed that men in producing and trading were actuated by only one motive, the desire of making money, and reasoned on this assumption, just as a physicist in using the laws of motion assumes that the bodies in motion meet with no resistance. Many of them

* "Economic Studies by the late Walter Bagehot. Edited by Richard Holt Hutton." London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1880.

doubtless have been by no means sufficiently careful to make it plain that there was in political economy, as in mechanics, such a thing as "friction," and that this friction presented itself in various forms. But then this hardly furnished a basis for a school which considers nothing but friction, and occupies itself in cataloguing the causes of friction, and raises a great outcry as if no one had thought of friction until their day.

It must be confessed, however, that a great many of the best writers on economical questions have been not only too much absorbed by the theory of political economy, but have had too little practical acquaintance with friction to be able to make due allowance for its resistance, in dealing with practical questions. Mr. John Stuart Mill made the first conspicuous attempt to combine an examination of the working of economical laws *in vacuo*—that is, in a society of which the love of money was the dominating motive—with an examination of the various kinds and degrees of resistance offered in different countries in the modern world by other states of feeling. A good deal has since been done in the same direction by others; but perhaps no one has done such good service in his accounts of friction as Mr. Bagehot. It is not too much to say that his principal service to political economy has consisted in the lucidity with which he has, even in the unfinished, or at least unrevised, essays of the present volume, described and explained friction. He had the advantage, which no other economical writer of distinction has enjoyed except Ricardo, of perfect familiarity with the mechanism of trade, as seen in all its branches, and with the mode in which the mind of what is called "the business man" plays on the various problems of trade. He had, too, what Ricardo had not, a first-rate education, and to this he added a style which for the purposes of political and economical exposition may be pronounced unequalled.

We can hardly describe the book before us better than by saying that it is a brief account of the way friction works in various fields, to modify the action of the laws which the English school of economists have deduced from the hypothesis that every man's first object in life is to make money. It is an account which nobody but a business man could have produced, because no mere literary acquaintance with the phenomena of trade can give the vivid conception and understanding of them which results from prolonged actual dealing with them. On the other hand, a business man who had not received the intellectual training which Mr. Bagehot possessed, is apt, when he comes to describe these phenomena and estimate their influence, to be so much absorbed by them as to lose sight completely, or in a great degree, of the fact that there is any law at all behind them, or any thread of scientific connection between them, and to use them rather as a list of usages than as materials for correcting and co-ordinating scientific conclusions. Mr. Bagehot describes thus the three defects of the mode in which political economy has been treated in England, "which have prevented people from seeing what it really is, and from prizing it at its proper value": first, "it has been often put forward not as a theory of the principal causes affecting wealth in *certain* societies, but as a theory of the principal, sometimes even of all, the causes affecting wealth in every society"; secondly, "the English economists have been far more abstract, and in consequence much more dry, than they need have been"; thirdly, "they have not been as fertile as they should have been in verifying their theory." He might have added that these three "defects" constitute almost the whole working capital of the Historical School. It is none the less certain, however, that no successful cultivation of political economy is possible to any one who has not first practised himself thoroughly in the application to all sorts of commercial phenomena of the theory that love of money is a man's ruling motive. He must assume the existence of a purely money-pursuing man, and work with him as he works with the axioms and definitions in Euclid, and not venture on the study of the extent to which the love of gain is counteracted or modified in practice by custom or passion, until he has familiarized himself thoroughly with the action of the hypothetical money-getter under all conditions of trade and production. Having once mastered him, the modifications wrought in him by circumstances and tradition can be followed easily and without risk of confusion.

The essays in this volume on the "Postulates of English Political Economy," the "Transferability of Labor," the "Transferability of Capital," and on the "Preliminaries of Political Economy," though they contain, owing to their not having been revised by the author, more or less repetition, are excellent reading, both as an introduction to economical study and as a corrective for those who have been puzzled by the new doctrine that there is no general science of political economy at all, and that each country has and ought to have an art of political economy of its own. The essay on "Adam Smith and Our Modern Economy" furnishes a very useful introduction to that author, and the same thing may be said of those on Malthus and Ricardo. There is probably no economic writer who has made more noise in the world than Malthus, and yet we venture to say not one in ten of those who talk of him know what his theory of population really was. It would probably be an exaggeration to say that Mr. Bagehot's account of him will enable any one to dispense with the trouble of reading him; but it is safe to say that any one who is going to read Malthus will do well to read this essay first.

SCHARF'S HISTORY OF MARYLAND.*

WHEN one comes to think of it, it is rather a remarkable thing that down to the present time there has been written no history of Maryland. And yet no State has richer or more attractive material for history. Had the life of the excellent and indefatigable Bozman, indeed, been prolonged for a century or two, we might have had less cause to complain of a lack in this respect than of a superfluity; as it is, the result of his labors, filling over a thousand closely-printed octavo pages, covers but twenty-eight years of Maryland's history, and those years the most barren of all in record and detail. One shudders to think how he would have dealt with the periods of the French or Revolutionary wars, or with the resources now open to the historian. The fragment left by the able McMahon treats only of the constitutional and legal aspects of the subject, and leaves untouched all matters not bearing upon these. McSherry's book is so superficial and inaccurate as hardly to rank as a history.

The work before us is an attempt to supply this deficiency, and to give a full and minute history of the province and State from the earliest notice of the Chesapeake Bay and its shores down to the present day. Whatever its defects, we must give the author the credit of having spared no labor in a task which cannot yield him any substantial return. Mr. Scharf has had one advantage over all his predecessors in this field. Mr. George Peabody, among his many liberalities to his adopted State, had abstracts made of over seventeen hundred original documents in the State-Paper Office, London, relating to the history of Maryland between the years 1626–1780, and presented them to the Maryland Historical Society. By their assistance Mr. Scharf has been able to procure official transcripts of documents whose existence was unknown to previous workers in this field.

After a rather prolix recital of those parts of Smith's narrative referring to the Chesapeake and the adjacent lands, and a sketch of the position of the Roman Catholics in England under Elizabeth and James, in which the author seems to have been guided chiefly by Hallam, we are brought to Sir George Calvert and his grant of Avalon from James I. (1623), the charter of which province here for the first time appears in print. This charter is almost identical in terms with that of Maryland; a fact which disposes of the generally received notion that the peculiar liberality of the latter was due entirely to the personal affection of Charles I. for the Proprietary. Here also is contained the clause which has given rise to so much remark, that in cases of doubtful interpretation that sense was to be chosen which was most favorable to the grantee. Another noticeable thing is that Avalon, unlike Maryland, was held *in capite* by knight's service, and is perhaps the latest English tenure of that kind on record.

The charter of Maryland (1632) is briefly discussed from the point of view taken by McMahon. It gave the Proprietary palatinate jurisdiction and "royal rights" (*jura regalia*), reserving nothing to the crown but the usual fifth of gold and silver, and the suzerainty acknowledged by the yearly delivery of two Indian arrows. The Proprietary was, in fact, a king—could make peace and war, organize and officer an army, call out and arm the whole fighting population, make laws with the assent of the freemen, and in certain cases without it; declare martial law, establish courts, execute the laws, punish offences (even capital), pardon offenders, confer titles and dignities, hereditary or other; levy tolls and duties, erect towns, cities, and ports, etc. In some respects he had even ampler power than the king in England, who was bound by ancient charters and precedents and the common law. By an express provision the province and all its inhabitants were for ever exempted from the payment of any taxes or impositions whatever to the crown. The remarkable liberality of this charter, "the most ample and sovereign in its character that ever emanated from the English crown" (McMahon), Mr. Scharf thinks large-

* 'History of Maryland from the Earliest Period to the Present Day. By J. Thomas Scharf.' In three volumes. Baltimore: John B. Piet. 1879.

ly contributed to the sturdy but not petulant independence assumed by Maryland in her later dealings with the mother-country, and gave the province, in the contentions about taxes and subsidies that afterwards arose, a position of peculiar vantage, as she had not only the general rights of English subjects, but the express provisions of a solemn instrument to appeal to.

The question of religious toleration, concerning which there has been of late years some not overwise discussion, is examined at considerable length; the conclusion reached being that neither to the letter of the charter, nor to Protestants or Catholics as such, is the credit of Maryland toleration due, but chiefly to the liberality and wisdom of the first proprietary, Cæcilius, who made Maryland an asylum for the oppressed of every faith. So soon as the proprietary was dispossessed of his power, as happened more than once, intolerant acts appear on the statute-book; but no sooner was he reinstated than persecution ceased. Even if we do not take so enthusiastic a view of Baltimore's character as does Mr. Scharf, his prudence and moderation cannot be doubted. Indeed, it was Maryland's singular good fortune to be ruled for over a hundred years by a succession of men of more than common worth and ability.

The early colonists, too, were fortunate in the time of their settlement. The Patuxents and other native tribes had been so worried and harried by the fierce Susquehannocks from the head of the bay that they were even then preparing to abandon their homes. So they very willingly sold to the new-comers their lands and cabins, and entered into friendly relations with them which ever afterwards continued; and it is not long before we find these aborigines, who seem to have been a mild-natured race, putting themselves under the protection of the colonists.

As Maryland's northern boundary was the fortieth parallel of north latitude and her eastern the Delaware bay and river, the grant to Penn invaded her territories on two sides. To settle the boundary question Baltimore and Penn had an interview in 1682, of which a rather amusing account is given from a minute drawn up at the time. Penn, it appears, made the extraordinary proposition to Baltimore that the latter should run his northern line at lat. 37° 51′ N., and compensate himself for this vast cession by carrying his southern boundary as much further into Virginia. The lawfulness of robbing Peter to pay Paul is not altogether a new problem in ethics; but the suggestion from Paul himself that Peter be robbed of a penny in order that *he* may receive the largess of a pound, combines with the charm of novelty a certain infantine simplicity that disarms indignation. Oddly enough, while of all the colonies Maryland was the only one that had all four boundaries precisely defined, she was the only one that was robbed of territory on all four sides.

One of the most interesting points in this narrative is the peculiar attitude of the Lower House of Assembly during the French and Indian war, which is here more clearly brought out than we have seen it elsewhere. While the Assembly of the province consisted nominally of two houses, the Upper House was, in reality, but a council, composed of the Proprietary's appointees, and bound to protect his interests. Inasmuch as during the earlier period of the colony's existence the revenues of the province went either to the Proprietary himself or to pay the expenses of administration, etc., it was only natural that the Proprietary's own domains should be exempt from taxation. But the case became different when the war between England and France drove the mother-country to call on the colonies for assistance. In this case the Lower House thought it but just that the Proprietary should bear a share of the common burden. They readily voted liberal supplies, but always under that condition, and to this the Upper House steadily refused to agree. Rarely have popular representatives been placed in a position of greater trial. Not only had they to withstand the wrath of the governor and the whole Upper House, the menaces of England, the indignation of the commander-in-chief, and the disapproval of the sister colonies, but even their own constituents of the northern and western counties, terrified by the horrors of Indian invasion, furiously denounced them as traitors, and threatened to march upon Annapolis to bring them to reason. To their honor they stood firm until the great principle they had contended for was won.

"They knew that encroachments upon popular liberties usually come in the form of merely temporary expedients to meet great emergencies; and that if they conceded the point now, it would establish a precedent that would tell fatally against them in any future attempt at resistance. They were not placed there to defend the lives and property of the settlers of Frederick County, but to uphold the rights and liberties of the people of Maryland; and, despite the clamors of the frontiersmen, the objurgations of the governor, the indignation of the general, and the gathering displeasure of the crown and parliament, they triumphantly held their own. They were the first on this continent to make a firm stand against the encroachments of power, to offer a bold front to the omnipotence of parliament, and to insist that legislation should be upon principles of equity and justice as well as precedent and prerogative. In this contest they learned their inherent strength, and entered boldly upon that path which led to independence."

The first volume closes with the repeal of the Stamp Act. We have treated of it somewhat at length, not only because the events it recites are less generally known, but because on it the author seems to have bestowed most pains. The second volume, after about one hundred pages describing Maryland manners and customs a century ago, takes us through the Revolutionary period. Maryland's share in the struggle for independence, and the military operations in which Maryland troops bore a part, are detailed at great length, but present little that is new.

The third volume embraces the period from the declaration of war with Great Britain in 1812 to the close of 1879. The war between the States and the causes which led to it are treated from the point of view of a thoroughgoing partisan of State rights, and with even more oppressive superfluity of detail than any preceding period. Indeed, throughout the whole book the writer seems to have been fired by the ambition to leave nothing untold that could possibly be brought in; and if the first volume sins less heinously in this respect than the others, it is only because ampler details were not attainable. The whole work is encumbered with copies of unimportant papers, citations, often pages in length, from easily accessible books, long lists of names, and copious extracts from newspapers. The typography, especially of the last volume, is very defective, while as for the index, it is best passed over in charitable silence. While we appreciate the industry and commendable zeal displayed in this work, we will venture to hint to Mr. Scharf that chronicles are written by heaping together facts, history by building them up into a complete and harmonious whole. Had he more thoroughly digested the material he has collected so laboriously, and condensed his three volumes into two, his history would have been none the worse book to refer to, and much the better book to read.

Tales of the Chesapeake. By George Alfred Townsend ("Gath"). (New York: American News Company. 1880.)—In this small and unpretending volume Mr. Townsend has collected, we imagine, the literary plant upon which his reputation for something other than a popular and "brilliant" newspaper correspondent will rest; until, at all events, he follows it with such another, which will probably take time. There has evidently been spent on this assemblage of short stories and poems an amount of labor and pains which it is as unusual to find in the work of so busy a man as Mr. Townsend, in his capacity of "Gath," as it is to find it spent to such excellent literary purpose. This effect is partly due, no doubt, to his genuine fondness for the region which all the stories and verses illustrate (and which his ancestors explored in 1623, we note in his dedication), and the poetical spirit of which Mr. Townsend has admirably caught. His subject is not, however, any more to his advantage than his treatment of it has been to his credit in refinement and simplicity. The latter excites wonder as to how many inglorious mutes—so far as literature is concerned, that is to say—the profession of journalism, of which it is so profitable, and doubtless otherwise attractive, to be "brilliant" members, contains. Indeed there is now and then an indication both in his literary attitude, if we may use the phrase, and in his expression, that Mr. Townsend has not come off entirely unscathed of the press; there is now and then a bit of pathos savoring more of police-court scenes, and occasionally a word nearly enough allied to reporters' English to create a slight jar amid its really finished surroundings.

In general, however, in both idea and form his stories are, as we say, admirable. They have something of the peculiar flavor of Mr. Cable's stories of the old creole days in New Orleans, the faint and fleeting charm which belongs to a life and ideals marked by gentleness and simplicity, which have passed into a memory as they have been pressed upon by a sturdier and more "sensible" civilization. A comparison of them with Mr. Cable's, moreover, suggests that Mr. Townsend's sympathy for the types he depicts is a trifle vicarious; the Chesapeake air he loves, but he brings all his "horse-sense" to bear in his thoroughly objective treatment of the ante-bellum Chesapeake character; sensitive Southern readers will perhaps miss Mr. Cable's caressing tone and touch. It is possibly for the reason that Mr. Townsend is thus something of an arbiter as well as of an artist, that the impression he leaves is one of a gentle melancholy. There is, nevertheless, little distinctly sad in the book, and certainly nothing of tragedy, save, it may be, the sketch called "The Fall of Utie," and the longer story "Tell-Tale Feet." Decidedly the best for its combination of pathos and humor, and its picture of romantic types of character that

are (or were) actual, is "Crutch, the Page." The broken-down Southern gentleman, who has become a gambler and a beggar, and whose sole idea of honor is to shield his family from his own disgrace by living under an assumed name; and his wife who supports herself and children, and preserves a ridiculously pathetic pride by keeping a Washington-boarding-house, and submits to a constant drain on her resources from her husband, whom she visits secretly and always refers to in public as travelling about on his estates, are inimitably done. "Crutch," their crippled boy, a page in Congress, suddenly dies, but still the "Jedge" remains away. He has been, his wife explains, "on his Tennessee purchase. These Christmas times there's no getting through the snow in Cumberland Gap. He's stopped off thaw to shoot the—ahem !—the wild turkey—a great passion with the Jedge. His half-uncle, Gineral Johnson, of Awkinso, was a turkey-killer of high celebrity." Meantime "Old Beau" is laying a wreath of flowers upon his boy's grave. Much of the verse is delightful, smooth, and musical, yet using words with a nice, and not rarely a quaint, sense of their meaning. It is evident that Mr. Townsend has read much modern poetry; but no minor bard can well conceal that at this date, and it is often—certainly here—an evidence rather of his cultivation than of his poverty of original force. Of the latter there is plenty in these poems; it is merely of a modest and unmistakably minor sort. The verses used as an "Introduction" to the volume are charming in sentiment and movement, and the closing one, "Old St. Mary's," may be especially called to the reader's attention. There are twenty-six "tales and idyls" in all, and the book numbers 285 pages.

Prosper Mérimée; ses Portraits, ses Dessins, sa Bibliothèque. Étude par Maurice Tourneux. (Paris: Charavay Frères. Pp. 158. 1879.)—It would be hard to find a better example of the latest phase of French taste in polite literature than this little book, which shows thorough research in all sorts of outlying directions, a refinement of mechanical execution, and an excellent combination of text and plates, all of which bespeak the bibliophile. A charming portrait of Mérimée, painted by his mother in 1808, shows how much of his artistic taste was inherited from his parents, for father and mother both were artists of no mean order: the latter painted miniatures, the other attempted more ambitious flights, and, besides being a lecturer at the Polytechnic and Fine Arts Schools, left a work on the history of oil-painting which was published only a few years before his death. Mérimée, therefore, came naturally by his love of sketching, and he indulged it on all sorts of occasions—at the Academy, in attendance on the numerous commissions appointed by Government, and in books and letters; from all of these sources his last biographical notice is largely enriched. There is a curious portrait of him, in the disguise of a woman, intended to carry out the mystification of his 'Théâtre de Clara Gazul,' a book in which title, preface, text, notes, and even this portrait, were all clever literary falsifications. His bas-relief by David, and some much better likenesses, all shared the fate of his library and its treasures, which were destroyed by fire in the Commune uprising. His love of letters was combined with a love of society, and a curious proof of the society he affected in his earlier days is found in the account of a breakfast with Mareste, a friend of Jacquemont and (Beyle) Stendhal, Viel-Castel, famous for eating alone on a bet a dinner that cost a hundred dollars; Koreff, the friend and doctor of Heine, and Sutton Sharpe, nephew of the poet Rogers. Delacroix, the great painter, has, however, preserved memoranda of Mérimée's conversations on art, which showed that Mérimée was, in one respect at least, qualified to be both the friend and the critic of great artists, for he was himself master of all the technical difficulties of painting, sculpture, and engraving. In his famous 'Lettres à une Inconnue' there are repeated references to his own work, and many examples of it are reproduced in the volume before us. With his usual love of contradictions, Mérimée used to expend time, care, and money in illustrating MS. copies of his books for his nearest friends, and in printing a few very carefully executed and unpublished numbers of some of his essays, such as his 'Cæsar' for the Academy and his notice of Beyle; yet his library had few examples of any great typographical value. Even of Jannet's beautiful editions, to which he had contributed, he had only incomplete sets.

The story of Mérimée's defence of Libri recalls the quarrel that once filled the literary world, and perhaps even now may be worth recording from this authentic source for the younger generation of bibliographers. Guillaume-Brutus-Icile-Timoléon de Libri-Carrucci della Sommaja, member of the Academy of Sciences, professor of the Collége de France and the Sorbonne, Inspector-General of Libraries, chevalier of the Legion of Honor, was accused of taking books and manuscripts from the public collections to which he had official access. A report sent to Guizot, his especial patron and protector, was found in that minister's cabinet after the revolution of '48, and published in the *Moniteur*. Libri, on the hint of a friend given him at a weekly meeting of the Academy, fled to London. His books and papers were subjected to a thorough search by experts, and his answer from London was rather an appeal to his old friends than an explanation of the serious evidence accumulated against him. Paul Lacroix, Gustave Brunet, Feuillet de Conches, and finally Mérimée himself, undertook to carry on the war against the authorities, and the last, as a penalty for his bitter satire, recalling the days of Beaumarchais or Paul Louis Courier, was tried, convicted, and sent to prison for fifteen days and fined a thousand francs. Mérimée gave an amusing account of his captivity to his colleagues of the Academy, renewed his study of Russian, and in his next publication contented himself with incidentally mentioning the profound leisure and shady retreat in which he had spent part of the last July. In 1859, in calling attention to the sale of Libri's books, Mérimée returned to the attack, pointedly naming the bibliographical treasures thus secured by a private person, whose success in collecting was far greater than that of the army of officials employed for the purpose in France. In 1860, when the question was again mooted, Libri found a sturdy defence at the hands of Mérimée; but it was in vain, and the sentence of the first trial was renewed at every appeal. It was the sympathy between Mérimée and Panizzi in Libri's case that enabled the former to study the immense reforms and improvements made by the latter in the library of the British Museum, and to advocate similar changes in the management of the great National Library of Paris. Mérimée was twice called on to take part in commissions appointed to study the subject, and largely to his zeal and industry is due the great advance made in Paris in the extent to which its literary treasures have been opened to the student. Sainte-Beuve, Littré, De Sacy, and other men of equal reputation sat under him in the last commission, to whose labors we owe the reading-room in which the man of letters can now work as much at his ease in Paris as in London.

Sporting Adventures in the Far West. By John Mortimer Murphy. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1880.)—There is one point in this work which will attract the attention of the thoughtful and of the genuine lovers of field sports. We mean the wanton destruction of wild-animal life, fur as well as feather, which has resulted almost in the annihilation of certain species. There are several reasons for this, but the two most potent may be found in the lax administration of the game-laws and the universal adoption of the modern breech-loading shot-gun and sporting-rifle. In many of the States the game-constables are mere political appointments. They are simply a portion of the "machine," and as such have in connection with it certain functions to perform. The protection of game is entirely outside the province of their duties, and consequently the game-statutes are a dead-letter, to which no one pays the least attention. In former times, when the flint-lock, single-barrel fowling-piece and rifle were the weapons exclusively used, our bays and inland waters were literally covered with wild fowl, while the forests, even close by towns of considerable population, were abundantly stocked with deer. Quail in great numbers could be bagged at one's very door, while every swamp was alive with woodcock and snipe. Every household was abundantly supplied with game, a luxury which to-day is permitted to people only of considerable means. Now every man with strength of finger sufficient to pull a trigger owns and uses a breech-loading gun, into which he thrusts cartridges with entire immunity from accident to himself. Ten years since clothing for sportsmen of suitable color and texture was difficult to procure, and then only on a special order. Now there are entire houses devoted exclusively to this trade, which turn out sporting garments by thousands. Arrayed in these and armed with the modern weapon, gangs of so-called sportsmen ravage the land, killing everything which flies or runs, and this without regard to the season or fitness of the victim. Laws are powerless to restrain them.

Mr. Murphy notices a similar condition of affairs as prevailing in the Far West. Even in the most remote districts bands of tourists armed with breech-loaders harass the game with tireless pertinacity, killing or maiming everything which crosses their path. In this they are assisted by the Indians and so-called professional hunters. He relates numerous instances where the gravid female buffalo is killed merely for the sake of the hide, which at that season is worth less than a dollar. The following extract from Mr. Murphy's chapter on the buffalo will give an idea of the methods employed to exterminate an animal of unappreciable value;

"One of the meanest devices ever instituted by man for their destruction is that practised by some persons south of the Platte River, in Nebraska. Streams being exceedingly scarce there the poor creatures have to travel many miles sometimes to obtain water, and when they reach it they are so desperate from thirst that nothing except death can prevent them from having it. Hunters, knowing this, post themselves along the streams and kill them as they come to drink; but for fear their work by day should not prove effective enough they build fires at night, and by this means keep the dying creatures away from the water for three or four days at a time. When, however, they can stand the pangs of thirst no longer they rush for the precious fluid, preferring death to unbearable misery, and many sink to rise no more under the leaden hail of numerous rifles. Herd after herd is frequently slaughtered in this barbarous manner until scarcely any remain in a large tract of country. The result is that few, comparatively speaking, are now found there, though they could be counted by the thousands a few years ago."

This work could not be accomplished with the celerity the author speaks of were it not for the modern breech-loading arm of precision. It is, of course, useless to wage war against this weapon, but at least some effort should be made to put the bearers under certain restrictions. Unless this be done, and that quickly, glass-ball shooting will become the sole recourse of the American sportsman.

Ancient and Mediæval Republics: A Review of their Institutions and of the Causes of their Decline and Fall. By Henry Mann. (New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.)—As Mr. Mann very justly observes in his preface, "the glory and the wane of republics of the past form a subject of never-dying interest to the student, the philosopher, and the statesman"; he adds that his purpose in writing this volume was to "present a continuous and compact review of the various democratic and oligarchical systems which flourished in ages gone by." He therefore begins with the "Hebrew Commonwealth," the Mosaic laws having, in his opinion, through Puritanism left an ineffaceable impression upon American institutions; then he considers the Phœnicians, Carthage, Greece, Rome, and finally the Italian States which rose into power upon the ruins of the Roman Empire. From this language of the preface the reader is led to expect a philosophical enquiry into the causes of the decline and fall of the various powers whose history is touched upon, particularly as Mr. Mann declares that his "views" on these subjects are "fully set forth," though he admits that he has refrained, except in a single instance, from drawing any conclusions which might seem to have a direct bearing upon public affairs in the United States, "lest whatever educational value the work may possess might be impaired by the diverse feelings and partial strictures that such reflections would not fail to evoke." The single instance referred to here is apparently his account of the Bank of Venice, in the course of which he produces evidence to show that the inflationist theory, that its paper was based on national credit only, is a mere pretence, the fact being that the bank paper was based on coin, and that it was consequently quoted at a premium when the bonds of the Republic stood at sixty per cent. of their nominal value. This, however, has no particular bearing upon the philosophy of republican institutions, for it would be just as true and just as apt had Venice never been a republic, or were the United States an empire. If Mr. Mann were able to show some probable or natural connection between bad financial systems and democratic institutions, or the reverse, he would have added something to our knowledge of the science of government.

Our complaint against him is not that he is in danger of being too philosophical, as he seems to think, but too little so. We have failed to find in his work anything of importance that is not contained in numerous other histories, and there is not sufficient originality about his method of treatment or his style to give his book any especial literary value. When he does attempt the philosophy of history, he is apt to treat the subject somewhat inadequately. When he says it was "strange" that the luxury and civilization of Carthage should have been disfigured by the custom of human sacrifice, we feel that we should like the opinion of some competent authority on the subject of primitive culture before deciding whether it was strange or not, and we also acknowledge some curiosity to know how he learnt that "the Carthaginians inherited from the Tyrians a propensity to the immolation of human life" (p. 19). On the other hand, when he explains the fall of Carthage by the fact that "Rome was stronger, and Rome bent all her tremendous energies and her indomitable will to annihilate her rival; there was not room for two such republics; the struggle once begun had to end in the ruin of one or the other," we cannot avoid an ungrateful feeling that it did not need a new historian to teach us this.

On the whole, Mr. Mann's book, though it suggests many questions, solves none; it amounts in fact to little more than an historical compendium, and so far as the United States is concerned certainly leaves us completely in the dark as to the bearing of the history of former republics upon ours, or as to our probable future. This is indeed a subject in which we seem, as time goes on, rather to recede from than to approach a solution. Fifty years ago the consensus of the most enlightened opinion in the world pointed towards republican institutions and ideas as the ultimate and highest form of political development. Recent investigations have established the curious fact that many of these institutions and ideas, instead of being ultimate, are primitive in character, and have been handed down to us by generations of barbaric ancestors At the same time republican institutions have been found no preservative against the evils which have defaced other forms of government. Whether there is any general law governing the development of human societies, other than the vicious circle in which anarchy produces government, government tyranny, tyranny revolt, revolt freedom, freedom license, license tyranny again, no one can as yet positively say, whatever theories we may entertain on the subject. The difficulties surrounding the subject hitherto have been greatly enhanced by the fact that everybody has approached it as a partisan of one or another form of government. The scientific study of positive institutions as such, without reference to the old dispute as to the relative value of free or strong government, is a study which has begun only within a few years, and it is perhaps as yet too early to look to it for a solution of what is still one of the great problems of human destiny.

Lehrbuch der jüdischen Geschichte und Literatur. Von Dr. David Cassel. (Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus; New York: B. Westermann. 1879. 8vo, pp. xii.–564)—This book is not a general history of the Israelites, from the earliest times down to ours, as is, for instance, Milman's 'History of the Jews,' but, in accordance with the German literary usage which distinguishes between "Hebrews" and "Jews," it is limited to the post-exilic history of the people. It is an extension of the author's 'Leitfaden für den Unterricht in der jüdischen Geschichte und Literatur,' which has gone through five editions, and incorporates the main contents of his largest work, 'Geschichte der jüdischen Literatur.' Comparatively little attention is bestowed on the Babylonian, Persian, and Egyptian periods of the history and literature of Judea, but with the reign of the Seleucidæ the scope of the work expands, which now follows in the broad wake of Jost's 'Geschichte der Israeliten' (9 vols., 1820–29), of his 'Geschichte des Judenthums und seiner Secten' (3 vols., 1857–9), and mainly of the original nine volumes of Graetz's 'Geschichte der Juden' (1853–71). Equally important guides of the author, though not through the whole of his ground, are the writings of Rapoport, Zunz, A. Geigerl, Frankel, Herzfeld, Steinschneider, Kayserling, and other Jewish critics of this century. He is, however, far from drawing his materials from secondary sources; the notes to almost every chapter show his perfect familiarity with the whole range of Jewish literature, from the Bible down to the latest Hebrew periodicals published in Russia or Austria, and especially with the vast, to Christian students almost impenetrable, field of the Talmuds, Midrashim, and mediæval rabbinical writings.

In fact, it is as a brief introductory guide to these works that the manual is chiefly valuable, two ample registers—one of persons and one of writings—making it an excellent book of reference. Its non-literary sketches are rather meagre, and here and there very incomplete. Dr. Cassel has evidently little sense for what the veteran botanist Schleider—a Christian—revolted by recent attacks on the Jews, has celebrated in a vigorous pamphlet as 'The Romance of Jewish Martyrdom in the Middle Ages' ('Die Romantik,' etc.; Leipzig, 1878). Nor has he done justice to the protracted struggle, waged within the last hundred years in parliaments and in the arena of journalism, which has almost entirely ended that martyrdom in all countries in which there is a parliamentary or journalistic arena. To the Jews in England, whose standing in the history of Jewish literature proper is very low, though the story both of their oppression and enfranchisement is interesting, only a few scanty paragraphs are devoted, and only a few lines altogether to the Jews in America, who fortunately have no martyrdom whatever to boast of, and whose contributions to Jewish literature hardly surpass those of their English brethren. Of the two American Jewish journals mentioned as appearing, one never deserved to be recorded, and the other—the *Occident*—expired long ago. Such slips, however, are quite exceptional in the work. Next to its accuracy its critical liberalism is commendable, as evinced in remarks concerning the Biblical writings which fall within its scope as post-exilic. The paragraph devoted to the book

and story of Esther, however, is rather vague, leaving the reader in doubt whether he has to believe the story or to consider the book as wholly or in part a fiction. Similar more or less legendary stories, after Josephus or the Talmud, are distinctly characterized as such, but often only after a recital which has the appearance of being serious. The impartiality of the book is carried to such an extent that even Nebuchadnezzar and Antiochus Epiphanes receive kind words. The latter is designated as "gutmüthig," but a little before we are told that on entering Jerusalem unresisted, in 169 B.C., he ordered a general massacre, in which about forty thousand men, women, and children were cut down.

Selections from the Greek Lyric Poets. With an Historical Introduction and Explanatory Notes by Henry M. Tyler, Professor of Greek and Latin in Smith College, Northampton, Mass. (Boston: Ginn & Heath. 1879. 12mo, pp. v., 184.)—This selection from the Greek lyric poets, Prof. Tyler tells us, "has been prepared with the desire to do something toward filling what seems to be a great chasm in the field of Greek literature as explored in our American colleges. We study Greek poetry, leaving out those very species of song which have most to do with the common life of the common people." The present selection is, perhaps, as well adapted to the purpose in view as any other would be, but the individual taste of the editor and his opinions as to what portions of the classic authors are best fitted for the instruction of young persons necessarily exercise a great influence in his choice, and involve questions into the discussion of which we have no space to enter. The "Historical Introduction" is written with somewhat of that exaggerated enthusiasm which, if anywhere, is pardonable in a Greek professor writing about Greek poetry. Prof. Tyler says that he "has followed very largely the German edition of Prof. Buchholz," and has used his notes "with great freedom." A comparison of the two books fully confirms this statement. The great favor with which classical scholars in both hemispheres have received two editions of the German work is a sufficient proof that he has followed a safe guide. The scholarship of the book is what might be called "orthodox." No attempt is made to disturb the received traditions of classical literature, and no discussions of doubtful points are indulged in.

Notes on Elizabethan Dramatists. With Conjectural Emendations of the Text. By Karl Elze. (Halle: Max Niemeyer; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1880.)—Age cannot wither nor custom stale the infinite variety of emendation and illustration to which the text of Shakspere continues to be made subject. Still, it would be wrong to class the work of Elze with those conjectural alterations and fancied improvements which, according as we feel, irritate or amuse us. In a small volume of one hundred and thirty-six pages this careful and accomplished scholar has collected the illustrative comments upon the plays of the Elizabethan period which he has contributed during the past few years to various periodicals in Germany, in England, and in this country, and which are not included in others of his works. He has also given us an example of self-restraint not common in commentators, not merely in withdrawing emendations which he has once made but has now abandoned, but also in declining to reprint them. Most of the volume is naturally taken up with notes on the plays of Shakspere. They are generally marked by that caution and good sense which are sufficient to commend alterations in the text to the consideration of every one, even when there may not be weight enough in the argument for them to produce their acceptance. In a few instances the author seems to forget that cardinal principle of verbal emendation, that when the word in the text yields a satisfactory sense there is nothing to justify the substitution of another word for it, because the change carries with it to the critic a still better sense. From its very nature a work like this appeals to a very limited class only of students; but to them it will be both interesting and valuable.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 25, 1880.

The Week.

THE long controversy in Congress over the election laws has ended more satisfactorily than most people ventured to hope a year ago. The late decision of the Supreme Court has, of course, had a powerful if not overwhelming influence in causing the Democrats to give way. Last year the attempt of the Democrats first to repeal the laws altogether, and then to refuse the money necessary to carry them out, prevented any proper discussion of their merits, and prevented those who sought to draw attention to their obvious defects from getting a hearing. These defects were really very grave. The appointment of the deputy marshals for duty at the polls on election-day was given by the law to the United States marshal, who is always a partisan appointee of the party in power, and in the large cities more a partisan than anything else. It will startle those who think that all political wickedness is confined to the Democrats to learn that these deputies thus appointed are apt to be, and in a large number of cases—we will not say in most—were, "workers" of the lowest order. In a number of cases at the elections in this city they were absolutely criminals who had passed through the State prison, or kept low drinking dens or houses of prostitution. In many cases they appeared at the polls so drunk that they could not stand up. They were given the job, in fact, in a majority of instances without the slightest reference to character or antecedents, as a reward for services rendered during the canvass. Now, these fellows, under the law as it stood, had the right, and freely exercised it, of arresting, without warrant, any person presenting himself at the polls, on the charge of offering an illegal vote, and dragging him off to jail, to be examined perhaps the next day and discharged for want of evidence, or on proof of innocence, when the election was over and he had lost his vote. It is a monstrous power to give any officer of this grade and has been grossly abused. We have more than once denounced it as such, and have never heard any defence of it except the account of the Chisholm murder and the allegation that Democrats are bad men. There were actually twelve hundred of these deputies appointed in New York at the last election and nearly eight hundred in Philadelphia.

The Democrats in the House have now passed an amendment to the law, which was first proposed by Mr. Garfield, though curiously enough he afterwards voted against it, giving the appointment of these deputies to the United States circuit judges, and providing that, instead of being all "henchmen" of one political party, they shall be selected in equal numbers from both parties, and shall be persons of good moral character, and well-known residents of the voting precinct in which their duties are to be performed. There is some talk of this being opposed by the Republicans in the Senate, as it was opposed by some of the Republicans in the House, on the ground that it is a "rider" to the Appropriation Bill, but this exceeding sensitiveness about "riders" on the Republican side is something so new, and the amendment is so plain an improvement, that we trust their opposition to it will not accomplish anything. The President, it is announced very positively, will approve it if passed.

One of the Virginia judges, Judge Hill, whose indictment for not summoning negroes on juries has been sustained by the late decision of the United States Supreme Court, has been, at Lynchburg, tried before Judge Rives and a jury composed of ten white and two colored men, and acquitted without argument, the evidence against him having completely broken down. We presume that what brought him into trouble was the difficulty which exists in many parts of the South of finding negroes mentally and morally qualified to sit on juries. Those who think the chief end of courts of law is the dispensing of justice between litigants and between the state and criminals, and not the exemplification of social and political equality, will feel that a certain amount of discretion in making up juries must be lodged somewhere, and that if those who are engaged in the duty, and give the necessary guarantees as to character, are to be pursued criminally whenever their use of their discretion does not satisfy local politicians, far more valuable things than any man's right to be summoned on a jury will suffer seriously. In the carpet-bag days in South Carolina numbers of grossly ignorant negroes lived by jury service, and no good cause was benefited thereby, while they and their race were debauched by it. Judge Hill's case, however, does not dispose of the others, as the facts are not by any means the same, so that less defensible proceedings than his may yet appear.

The Senate has passed a bill providing $1,100,000 to meet the deficiency caused by the Post-Office Department's abuse of its discretion in the extension and remuneration of the "star" mail service. The debate was creditably mixed as regards parties, and moderate as regards the majority in the Senate, for they consented to the withdrawal of a preamble censuring the Department. The imminent danger of the cessation of the *Congressional Record* led to the insertion in the bill of an appropriation of $50,000 for the Public Printer, who was also assured $400,000 by the House in its pending Deficiency Bill. The Senate also passed a measure disturbing the finality of the acts of the Commission of 1877 in settlement of titles to the public lands at Hot Springs, Arkansas, and providing "for the maintenance of free baths for the invalid poor of the United States." It had under consideration a loosely-drawn and somewhat shady bill to incorporate a National Educational Association in the District of Columbia, the connection of which with certain ambitious schemes of the head of the Bureau of Education and of the promoters of a National University at the Capital would probably, on examination, be found pretty close. On Monday, it listened to the majority and minority reports of the Committee on Privileges and Elections; the one affirming Mr. Spofford's title to Mr. Kellogg's place, on account of the bribery and other foul methods employed by the latter in controlling the election of 1876 for his own advantage, and the other vehemently but curtly denying it.

Senator Hill is the leader in this attempt to unseat Kellogg, and urgent as may appear to him and his party the necessity of keeping their control in the Senate, we cannot but regard it as a characteristic blunder. The lapse of time—three years—since the formal admission of Kellogg, after a hearing of the contestant, makes his proposed removal virtually an expulsion; while the circumstances under which he and Senator Butler, of South Carolina, by a sort of compromise, were simultaneously admitted, make it seem like a breach of faith. Nothing is more open to suspicion, and few things have, in fact, been more discreditable in the history of our legislative bodies, State and Federal, than partisan decisions of contested elections. In Congress, both parties have sinned in this respect to such an extent that neither can any longer profess a virtuous motive. The change in the balance of power in the Senate is well understood to be the sole pretext for reopening the Kellogg case now, whatever its original merits; nor can any good excuse be offered for reviving the Louisiana scandals which the Potter Committee ventilated *ad nauseam*. The Senate, too, is about as competent to pass upon the truth of the testimony reported by Senator Hill as upon the operations of the second Bull Run—even with the aid of a map.

We have discussed in another column the general bearing of the recent decisions of the Supreme Court under the Fourteenth

Amendment. The case of the State of Tennessee *v.* Davis does not turn upon this amendment, but is of great importance as regards the enforcement of the laws of Congress and the status of Federal officials. Davis was indicted for murder in the State of Tennessee. He filed a petition for removal of the indictment into the United States Circuit Court, alleging that the killing had been done in self-defence; that he was at the time a deputy collector of Internal Revenue; that as such it was his duty to seize illicit distilleries; that in doing so he was assaulted and fired upon by a number of armed men, and that in defence of his life he returned the fire. The only question in the case was whether the indictment was removable under the Revised Statutes. The court decided that it was. This decision would seem to give the United States courts jurisdiction of all criminal prosecutions for acts committed by officers of the United States while in the discharge of their duty, in case they attempt to justify on the ground that the act was made necessary in the performance of their duty. For example, if a United States Supervisor in New York, in the performance of his duty on election day, gets into a quarrel with some person whom he tries to prevent from voting, and kills him, the State courts will practically have no jurisdiction of the case. He will, of course, remove any indictment that may be found against him. It is not to be supposed that he will not have a fair trial; but the decision in Tennessee *v.* Davis practically destroys State sovereignty with regard to criminal law in a class of cases in which it has hitherto always been supposed to be intact.

The Committee of the Maine Legislature which has been investigating the "counting-out" attempted by the Fusionists at the opening of the session reported last week. The report takes the view it was, of course, expected to take, and, indeed, the only one possible in the circumstances. It finds that the returns were kept from the candidates, contrary to usage; that alterations, and even forgeries, were made upon them for the purpose of cheating rightfully elected Republicans; that this purpose was "a premeditated plan," to which the Governor and his Council were parties; and that the conspirators spent the money of the State "for unauthorized purposes and unlawful ends." The late Governor's testimony went to confirm all this. Indeed, the reports of his examination read like accounts of historic inquisitorial proceedings, and the pitiable exhibition he made of himself almost imputes inhumanity to his examiners, who refused to spare him. In fact, he showed none of the proverbial backbone of the Louisiana witness, and though he declared his own innocence "passionately," ceased to defend the fraud, for which he said "a Judas among the Council" was to blame. Reports on the bribery cases exonerate the accused, though a minority dissents as to the innocence of Wallace R. White.

The Smyth affair at Albany has advanced still another stage, this time through a letter from Smyth himself, addressed to the Governor, in which he recalls the fact that two attacks made on his administration had failed, and gives a dreadful account of the condition in which the Insurance Department was handed over to him by his predecessor, and a very remarkable one of the reforms instituted by himself. He declares that his renomination was made without his solicitation or knowledge even. Upon the editor of the Albany *Evening Journal* he is very severe as the person who "formed and fostered" the opposition to him, and he calls him "a malignant temporary editor," but admits that the feeling of opposition does exist among people entitled to consideration, and he therefore—always in the interest of the Republican party—desires that he may be relieved from his present duties. The letter is said to have been written under instructions from his chief in Washington. It would appear that Mr. Charles E. Smith, the former editor of the *Journal*, and Smyth's helpmate in "fixing" primaries, is not doing well either. There has been some failure in the arrangements for his editing the Philadelphia *Press*, and he will probably remain to "fix things" in New York. "Malignant temporary editor" is an amusing but probably valuable addition to the vocabulary of journalistic abuse, as it implies that not only is the enemy abusing his position, but that his tenure of it is precarious.

A ludicrous blunder by the chairman of the Rhode Island State Convention last week is responsible, according to reports whose accuracy is strongly insisted on, for the sending of a united Blaine delegation to Chicago instead of the Grant men selected by the machine. The machine has generally worked with admirable perfection in Rhode Island; although it has been controlled by an oligarchy instead of by an individual Boss, there has been no appreciable friction in its running, for the good reasons that the State is small and some of its citizens men of great wealth. This time, however, the machinery got out of order in some unexplained way, though it was apparently never in better condition. "In accordance with an agreement made two years ago," says an ingenuous reporter, the nomination was offered to Albert C. Howard, the present Lieutenant-Governor, coupled, however, with the condition that he should pay five thousand dollars for the honor. He declined, and as Governor Van Zandt was not a candidate, Mr. Littlefield, a wealthy manufacturer to whom five thousand dollars were doubtless a bagatelle, was decided upon. Everything proceeded as arranged until the appointment of a committee of thirteen to select delegates to Chicago. This committee had, of course, been chosen with extreme care and its majority were Grant men, but, whether through accident or perfidy, the chairman read the wrong list and the delegation turned out to be unanimous for Blaine. The penalty of such a "blunder" as this in New York is well known, but what will happen to the unhappy man in Rhode Island cannot yet be foretold. Meantime, Howard is to run on the Prohibition ticket, which is less expensive though more idle.

The recent Californian legislation forbidding the employment of Chinamen by corporations has come before the United States Circuit Court, and, as was expected, has been pronounced unconstitutional. An appeal to the Supreme Court has been taken, but there can hardly be a doubt that the decision will be there sustained. Kearney has appealed from his conviction, and so has a minor agitator who tried his luck with a jury, but was also promptly found guilty. It is now denied that any compromise or "honorable arrangement" has been entered into between the Citizens' Protective Union and the mob, and, in fact, it is almost impossible to say at this distance what the state of affairs really is. There are signs of inexcusable weakness in the proposal that the Governor should pardon Kearney as soon as he goes to jail, in order not "to make a martyr of him." It might be well to do this if the mob and Kearney himself were likely to ascribe it to anything but fear. But there can be no worse subject for clemency than Kearney, because even on the most favorable view his pardon would be a sort of admission that his offence had its roots in mistaken opinions, like those, for instance, of an honest Socialist or Mormon or Adventist. No civilized community can admit that threats to kill people and sack their houses emanate from mere political heterodoxy. What Kearney needs, as well as deserves, is six months at least of the jail and all its rigors, and a State which is afraid of making him seem a martyr to the ruffians who compose his following deserves to be harassed and damaged by him.

The Treasury bought $2,000,000 of bonds for the Sinking Fund during the week, and on Monday began the prepayment without rebate of the April interest, which amounts to $7,389,000. Only a small part of the latter money has yet reached the New York loan market, but what is called the "moral effect" of the prepayment was sufficient to relax the rates for loans. The last weekly statement of the New York banks showed that the surplus reserve had been reduced to less than $1,000,000, and this, too, with loans and discounts outstanding of over $290,000,000. The market for foreign exchange was advanced during the week to within half a cent of the rate which draws gold out of the country, but at the advance the market was not strong, and gold exports cannot yet be said to be imminent. After the April "pinch" in the loan market is over,

the tendency of all domestic influences will be towards ease in the loan market; the only danger then will be of gold exports. The Stock Exchange markets were sensitive, and stocks fluctuated widely, with a tendency towards lower prices. Railroad earnings continue without exception to show large gains over last year. It is to be remembered, however, that operating expenses are much heavier; still the net gain is large. General trade continues active, but there are signs of a halt in the speculative boom in raw materials. The price of silver in London advanced to 52¼*d.* per oz., and the bullion value here of the "buzzard dollar" advanced to $0.8836.

The Philadelphia *Bulletin* denies with much indignation that it pronounced "libellous" the statement of the Chicago *Inter-Ocean*, that if General Grant did not like the count after the next Presidential election, he being one of the candidates, he would summon "500,000 veteran soldiers." What it thought "libellous" was the *Nation's* affirmation that the General's supporters must mean, when they say that he will defeat any "Democratic counting-out schemes," and is the only man to do it, that he "would take possession of the White House with an armed force, and set the majority of both Houses of Congress at defiance." It seems as if, this being "libellous," the summoning of the "500,000 veteran troops" must be libellous too; but no matter. There is still no fresh light on the manner in which he is to frighten the Congressional majority. Mr. George S. Boutwell has a third-term article in the last *North American*, in which he too maintains that General Grant must be nominated to prevent the Democrats giving the Presidency to the minority. But even he refrains from explaining the precise manner in which General Grant will do this; so that the mystery deepens as the weeks go by. He can hardly do it by his mere presence, for he is not physically stronger or more impressive in his appearance than many other candidates. In fact, we are driven more and more to the conclusion which we suggested last week, that his friends have contrived some kind of portable machine by the aid of which he will make the Democrats accept and count all the certificates from States which he thinks rightfully belong to him—probably something in the nature of the Babcock Extinguisher. But it ought to be produced before the Convention meets. The people may not like it when they see it, it is true; but, on the other hand, it may excite the wildest enthusiasm.

The writs for the general election in England were to issue last Tuesday, and the elections will take place during Easter week; so that it is probable, though not certain, that enough of the result may be known before our next issue to determine the relative strength of the two parties in the next Parliament. The best observers, so far as we have been able to learn, give the Tories a majority of forty, instead of their present majority of eighty, in Great Britain alone, and in this case the Irish Home-Rulers would hold the balance of power. This might turn out in practice by no means a pleasant situation for the Liberals, as it might put them in office under circumstances which would either make vigorous administration impossible, or bring them into fatal disrepute with the English constituencies. The Tories have had another stroke of luck in the production of the Indian Budget, which, instead of showing a large deficit as was expected, shows a very remarkable recovery, and actually presents a surplus of nearly $10,000,000 after paying the expenses of the Afghan war up to the present date. This is due, in part, to greater economy on the part of the Administration, but also to unexpected elasticity in the revenue from direct taxes, and to the improvement in the exchange on England. Nothing of importance has been going on in Parliament, most members being absent electioneering. Mr. Gladstone has plunged into the fray in Scotland with his accustomed vigor, has made a large number of engagements to speak, and is still so attractive that as much as $30 is said to have been offered for a ticket of admission to one of his meetings. He complains bitterly still of the Tory practice of spreading "campaign stories" about him, and has resorted to the expedient of drawing up lists of these current falsehoods and denying them *en bloc*. Some weeks ago he denied twelve; he now, in the Edinburgh papers, denies nine more, some of which are what the newspapers here call "monumental," such as that he had declared his intention of shortly raising the question whether there is any need of excluding Roman Catholics from the throne.

The gloom of the famine appears likely to be lighted a good deal in Ireland by miracles, which are now exciting great sensation among the Catholics, both lay and clerical. Unhappily, however, there seems to be nothing "practical" about them, and they promise no addition to the stores of food and clothing. Considering how many miracles have been worked during the last ten years in France and Belgium, it is somewhat surprising that Ireland, whose faith is much more lively than that of either of those countries, should have gone so long without even one or two. As usual, the new miracle was first perceived by a poor woman, in the shape of an apparition of the Virgin, St. Joseph, and St. John close to a Catholic church. Other women and children rapidly began to see it, too; then the housekeeper of an archdeacon saw it, and then the archdeacon himself saw it, or something very like it. As soon as the fame of it got abroad cripples and diseased persons began to come in in great numbers to get the benefit of it; and now the restoration of sight to the blind, hearing to the deaf, and walking to the lame by merely sitting round the church or in contact with it has occurred so frequently that the individual cases have ceased to be reported. The clergy have not as yet pronounced authoritatively on the wonder; but they have not repudiated it, and it would seem to make little difference what they say in the presence of the cures effected by it. Not the least interesting feature in the modern Catholic miracles is that, however well authenticated, they never convert a sceptic or a Protestant. Nobody pays the slightest attention to them except persons who were fully prepared for such things beforehand.

The Hartmann case seems to have caused something like a coolness between France and Russia, in spite of every precaution on the part of the former. Hartmann's extradition was demanded with great shrewdness for the crime of attempting to blow up a railroad train—without any mention of the Emperor. The counsel of the French Government then indicated the kind of proof of identity that would be necessary, and this the Russian Government, after two or three attempts, confessed that it was unable to produce, and threw itself on the French loyalty. The French Ministry, only too glad to be out of the scrape, released Hartmann, and advised him to run, which he was not slow in doing, and he is now in England. It will thus be seen that the question whether regicide is a political offence did not come up, probably to the great relief of all parties. The French Radicals, Victor Hugo at their head, apparently think it is, and would perhaps say that any offence committed with the view of effecting a change in the government is political. There is some talk now of Hartmann's being asked for from England, but the Tories would hardly surrender him for attempting the life of a man so wicked as to be extending his frontier in Central Asia, and suspected of "designs on Merv."

In Belgium the dispute between the Ministry and the Catholic clergy seems to have been settled in some way by the intervention of the Pope. The clergy are going to take part in the fêtes celebrating the fiftieth anniversary of the national independence, and have expressed their willingness to confirm children who attend the state schools. In return the maintenance of the Belgian legation at the Vatican has been voted almost unanimously, though only for a year. The bishops in Germany, too, have given way in the matter of securing the state approval of assignments of priests to parishes, and will probably yield still further. There can hardly be a doubt that the study of Thomas Aquinas means more than the revival of a long-neglected system of philosophy. It is an attempt to bring the Church back into practical relations with the world, though the Pope's health is such that his ability to accomplish the reconciliation in his lifetime seems doubtful.

THE DISSOCIATION OF POLITICIANS FROM POLITICS.

THE New York Independent Republicans, in their recent circular, touched one very important point among the things voters have to consider in choosing a candidate for the Presidency, when they said:

"Many Republicans recognize in Mr. Blaine the type of the 'statesman' found upon the surface after the war, who have great reputations but have established no claim to the respect of this generation. Their triumphs are registered in the caucus but not upon the statute-book. They have neither advocated nor been identified with any great measure. Their cleverness and great vehemence is devoted wholly to the acquisition and retention of office, and after years of legislative employment they can point to no permanent or conspicuous service which they have rendered to the public."

Mr. Blaine is not the only prominent Republican to whom these remarks apply. Mr. Cameron, of Pennsylvania, and Mr. Conkling, of New York, are also illustrations of the same type, and this type may be called novel. It was unknown to the American people before and during the war; it is unknown in every other parliamentary country to this day. We have frequently called attention in these columns to its growth, but it is only within the last four or five years that it has become prominent in politics. It would, of course, be useless to pretend that candidates for the Presidency were even before the war selected in convention for their past services either as legislators or administrators or as leaders of public thought. The "dark horse"—that is, the obscure, mediocre man, whom nobody thought of for the place before his nomination—has notoriously long been the favorite of those who control the nominating machinery in both the great parties of the day. The candidate about whom little or nothing was known before the appearance of his "campaign biography" is a phenomenon with which every American voter past forty is only too familiar. But while it is true that the Presidency has long been within the reach of persons little known to fame, it is also true that the persons talked of for the Presidency before the convention met, the persons marked out for it by the popular voice, either as expressed in the newspapers or on the platform, or by the resolutions of State legislatures or State conventions, were always not only men of mark, but men who had made their mark either by conspicuous service as soldiers or legislators or administrators, or as strenuous advocates of certain opinions on questions of government, or as strenuous supporters in and out of Congress of certain lines of public policy. Everybody knew what they stood for; and the thing they stood for had commended itself, largely it might be through their eloquence or pertinacity, to considerable bodies of their fellow-citizens. For example, during the long conflict of the Whigs and Democrats over the tariff and public improvements, the men indicated in each party for the Presidency by the popular voice were men whose opinions on this class of questions were well known to the nation at large, and who had made themselves conspicuous either in or out of Congress by preaching a body of political doctrine of some kind. When the slavery question took possession of the political arena, in like manner, every prominent man in public life had to stand or fall by his opinions on the powers of the national Government with regard to slavery, and with regard to the spread of slavery over the national territories. He kept or lost his place in the popular estimation, and was supposed to increase or diminish his chances of the Presidency, by his manner of dealing with the great subjects which were occupying the public mind. People expected him to speak on them, speak often, and speak clearly. Almost every month he made some contribution to public opinion about them, either in Congress through his advocacy of or opposition to certain legislation, or out-of-doors by his addresses at public meetings. His supporters were able to quote him in the discussions at the tavern and the post-office. His speeches were circulated and eagerly read; in fact "the great speech" originated in that period, and was a powerful factor in stimulating party zeal. He had disciples, too, among the young men, real disciples, who got from him something in the shape of a philosophy of politics, and spread it in conversation. This was true eminently of Calhoun and Webster and Clay, and true in minor degree of the later free-soil leaders Seward and Chase and Sumner, and even the unfortunate Greeley. We might greatly enlarge the list, though perhaps not with Presidential candidates, by way of showing that until very recently prominence in public life and great party influence, although it might be maintained or strengthened by much manœuvring and wire-pulling, had to rest on conspicuous association with a body of opinion, or on conspicuous public services either in legislation or administration. It is through politicians of this kind only that parliamentary government can be carried on or retain the confidence and respect of the people. It is worked, and can only be worked, through the collision of opinions. If opinions are taken out of it, and questions of legislation treated as of no account, either by the people or their representatives, the forms of parliamentary government may remain, as they remain in the Central American republics, but parties are converted into factions, and the struggle for power becomes what it is in those republics, simply a fight between rival chiefs and their supporters for the privilege of collecting and dividing the taxes.

Now, we make bold to say that nobody outside the circle of his intimate personal friends knows what the opinions of Mr. Donald Cameron, of Pennsylvania, are to-day on any question of American politics on which legislation is either proposed or opposed. We do not know of any speech of his, or of any bill introduced by him, or of any book, pamphlet, or article in which he has set forth his views on any subject about which American voters are at this moment divided in opinion. Nevertheless, he has exhibited his power in politics within a few weeks by controlling the action of the majority in a convention of great importance in one of the leading States in the Union. The same thing may, with some slight changes, be said of Mr. Conkling. Mr. Conkling is an orator, which Mr. Cameron is not, and has to make speeches occasionally; but these speeches—and we have read them all for a good many years—have been made up almost entirely of denunciation of a party which has not been in power since 1860, and of the South, about which, since 1868, it has been universally admitted that no further action on the part of Congress is possible. His principal theme has been the danger of allowing the Republican party to be driven from office, but he always proves this danger, not by showing what the positive action of the Republican party will be or ought to be, but by drawing pictures of the mischief the Democrats would work if they got a chance. About the currency, the tariff, the civil service, about foreign policy, about all administrative questions, he has been either wholly silent or has spoken with a brevity, or obscurity, or contempt which showed that they in no way occupied his mind. Nor are his political friends or companions to be found among those to whom government, considered as the making and administration of laws, is a serious matter, or among those whose conscientious labors in the great fields of industry or in science or art or literature are carrying the country towards the great future which those who love it paint for it. His councillors, with whom he deliberates, peregrinates, and rusticates, are dexterous, tricky, electioneering agents, whose sole thought is to get voters to the polls and places for themselves, and to whom the weighty interests of a great nation are as mysterious and repulsive as the speculations of metaphysicians. Nevertheless, he is the most powerful man in the politics of the greatest State in the Union, and is expected to influence greatly the nomination of the next Presidential candidate of the party which has for twenty years had all the resources, both moral and material, of the country in its hands.

Mr. Blaine's career needs less description, simply because he has been more active and talkative than the other two. There is no question of the last four or five years, since he left the Speakership, on which he has not spoken at least once, and he has made two or three attempts to create questions in the hope that the public might fasten on them. But he has touched them all with the hand of a boy who had "a piece" to prepare on them, and dropped them as

soon as he had mentioned them. To no subject has he given any continuous attention. To no subject has he made the slightest contribution either by way of practical suggestion or attempt at legislation. The only rôle which has appeared to have steady and sustained attraction for him is that of teasing the Southern members into admissions or declarations which would augment the sectional animosity which is at this moment the only serious hindrance to national progress, and which has been recognized ever since states were first founded as the greatest misfortune which can befall a political community. If it exists it is not a thing to be ignored, but when it does exist a statesman has only one duty with regard to it, and that is to quench it by all the resources of his art. There is no man so stupid or so feeble that he cannot do something to fan the embers of strife between communities as well as between families or individuals. Able and honest men have sometimes done it in order to force their own country into what they believed to be a just or inevitable conflict with a foreign power, but we are unable to recall any case besides Mr. Blaine's in which a conspicuous politician has deliberately taken the nurturing of domestic hatred as his sole mission in the politics of his own country. For unhappily Mr. Blaine's sole mission it must be considered. He is striving hard for the Presidency, and has for many years occupied prominent positions in both branches of the national legislature, and yet we know of no opinion looking to the constructive work of government which he has preached or with which he is identified. We know of no bill affecting any great public interest which he has introduced, debated instructively, or amended. We do not know, and we do not believe anybody else knows, what his views are about any of the problems, such as currency, taxation, or administration, now pending or impending. On none of these subjects has he rendered any aid in forming or moulding public opinion. None of his friends, in fact, make any claims of this kind for him. No account of his services in this field has been published or promised. No speech of his on any of them has been reprinted, is ever recalled or quoted. The one thing said for him, and it is said frequently, is that he is "magnetic"—or, in other words, has a taking manner—which, when one thinks over it seriously, is probably the oddest qualification (standing, as it does, alone) for the chief executive office of the busiest and most powerful democratic state in the world. It might furnish an outfit for a constitutional monarch; but to ask nothing else of an American President, at a time which his supporters say is "full of peril," has an air of thinly-disguised ridicule of the office he seeks. If those who are now trying to bring the influence of sober-minded and reflective people to bear on politics can succeed even in beginning to throw discredit on such political careers as those we have been describing, to force men who make public life their pursuit to look to the Presidency as the reward, in part at least, of industry and zeal in the service of the Government, or in the formation and direction of the great currents of popular thought of which the Government is or ought to be the expression, they will achieve a thoroughly practical piece of reform.

LEGISLATION UNDER THE FOURTEENTH AMENDMENT.

THE opinions of the judges in the political cases recently decided by the Supreme Court at Washington have attracted but little attention at the North, chiefly because they do not turn upon points which are of immediate material interest in the Northern States. At the South these decisions have been received with many expressions of hostility, as being aimed against what is left of the once cherished doctrine of State rights. They are really, however, of as much importance to one region as another, and are destined, unless we are much mistaken, to play a prominent part in the future constitutional development of the country. Our space will not permit us to go in any detail into the cases, but we shall endeavor as briefly as possible to point out what may be called their general political drift—the general governmental theory to which they point. Of course, in doing so we by no means imply that the majority of the court are necessarily committed to the theory in the direction of which they are moving. It is the peculiarity of our system of law that a decision can never be quoted as an authoritative statement of the law beyond the precise limit imposed by the facts involved, and it is obvious from much of the language of the majority that they do not consider these decisions as introducing any novel principles of constitutional law at all. But such consequences may follow without any intention of the sort being entertained.

Perhaps the most important of all the cases decided was that of *ex parte* Coles, and to this we shall for the present confine our attention. J. D. Coles, a judge of a Virginia county court, was indicted under the Act of Congress of March 1, 1875, providing that no citizen shall be disqualified from jury service in any court, *State* or Federal, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude, and further providing for the punishment by fine of any officer charged with the duty of summoning or selecting jurymen who should exclude any citizen on such a ground. Both the judge and the State of Virginia presented petitions for a writ of habeas corpus, and in this way the constitutionality of the act was brought before the Supreme Court. All the judges except Judge Field and Judge Clifford held the act constitutional under the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Amendments. One great purpose of these amendments, the majority say, was to secure to the colored race an absolute equality of civil rights; they were intended to be, and are, limitations of the power of the States and enlargements of the power of Congress; "they are to some extent declaratory of rights, and though in form prohibitions, they imply immunities, such as may be protected by Congressional legislation." Among other rights, the Fourteenth Amendment secures to colored men, when charged with criminal offences against a State, an impartial jury-trial by jurors selected without discrimination on account of color; the withholding of this right is a denial of the "equal protection of the laws," and the guaranty against such a denial may be enforced under the fifth section of the amendment by appropriate legislation. As to this the Court says:

"All of the amendments derive much of their force from this latter provision. It is not said the *judicial power* of the general Government shall extend to enforcing the prohibitions and to protecting the rights and immunities guarantied. It is not said that branch of the Government shall be authorized to declare void any action of a State in violation of the prohibitions. It is the power of Congress which has been enlarged. Congress is authorized to *enforce* the prohibitions by appropriate legislation. Some legislation is contemplated to make the amendments fully effective. Whatever legislation is appropriate—that is, adapted to carry out the objects the amendments have in view—whatever tends to enforce submission to the prohibitions they contain, and to secure to all persons the enjoyment of perfect equality of civil rights and the equal protection of the laws against State denial or invasion, if not prohibited, is brought within the domain of Congressional power."

With regard to the *State action* against which the Fourteenth Amendment authorizes Congress to provide by appropriate legislation, the court decides that this includes all "actions of the political body denominated a State, by whatever instruments or in whatever modes that action may be taken." This covers the legislative, the executive, and the judicial authorities of the State:

"Whoever by virtue of public position under a State government deprives another of property, life, or liberty, without due process of law, or denies or takes away the equal protection of the laws, violates the constitutional inhibition, and as he acts in the name and for the State and is clothed with the State's power, his act is that of the State. This must be so, or the constitutional prohibition has no meaning. Then the State has clothed one of its agents with power to annul or to evade it."

Judge Field, in a very lucid and able opinion, concurred in by Judge Clifford, dissented from the conclusion of the majority, as well as from almost every step in the process by which that conclusion was reached. The act of 1875, he urges, is unconstitutional and void. Previous to the adoption of the Fourteenth Amendment no one would have contended that such an act, operating directly upon a State judge, was valid, and there is nothing in the Fourteenth Amendment which indicates that the prohibitions contained in it are to be construed or enforced in any way different from that

adopted with reference to previous restraints upon the States. For example, the Constitution provides for the extradition of fugitives from justice, and yet, in the leading case of Kentucky *v.* Dennison, it was held that the Government of the United States had no authority to compel the executive of a State to perform this duty, nor to punish him for refusal. Again, in the case of laws passed by a State in violation of the obligation of contracts, such statutes are unconstitutional and void, because they conflict with the provisions of the Federal Constitution; but no one ever supposed that because the passage of such laws is prohibited, Congress would have authority to make it a penal offence for State legislators to pass them, or for State judges to enforce them. With regard to the power to enforce the amendments by appropriate legislation, this does not enlarge the scope of the amendments, and, besides this, the legislation is not appropriate. No legislation could be appropriate which would tend to trench upon the independence of the States, and to the independence of a State absolute freedom in the exercise of its legislative, judicial, and executive authority is essential.

"Congress could not lay down rules for the guidance of the State judiciary, and prescribe to it the law and the motives by which it should be controlled, and, if these were disregarded, direct criminal proceedings against its members; because a judiciary independent of external authority is essential to the independence of the State, and also, I may add, to a just and efficient administration of justice in her courts. Congress could not dictate to the executive of a State the bills he might approve, the pardons and reprieves he might grant, or the manner in which he might discharge the functions of his office, and assume to punish him if its dictates were disregarded, because his independence within the reserved powers is essential to that of the State. Indeed, the independence of a State consists in the independence of its legislative, executive, and judicial officers, through whom alone it acts. If this were not so a State would cease to be a self-existing and an indestructible member of the Union, and would be brought to the level of a dependent municipal corporation, existing only with such powers as Congress might prescribe."

The weight which the majority of the court attach to the clause giving Congress power to enforce the amendment by appropriate legislation will probably surprise most lawyers who read this decision. If the Fourteenth Amendment confers a grant of legislative power, whether expressly or by implication, then Congress has the power; if not, it is hard to see how the mere declaration that Congress may enforce by appropriate legislation confers any additional power, on any hitherto accepted theory of constitutional construction. But taking the decision to mean what it says, the conclusion would seem inevitable that Congress has a practically unlimited power to prevent any action on the part of any State agency which would tend to "deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law," or "deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws." What the limit of the powers conferred on Congress by this means are it is, of course, very difficult to say. Judge Field appears to think they are, from the very general nature of the language used in the amendment, practically unlimited. He says:

"If Congress could, as an appropriate means to enforce the prohibition, prescribe criminal prosecutions for its infraction against legislators, judges, and other officers of the States, it would be authorized to frame a vast portion of their laws, for there are few subjects upon which legislation can be had besides life, liberty, and property. In determining what constitutes a deprivation of property it might prescribe the conditions upon which property shall be acquired and held, and declare as to what subjects property rights shall exist. In determining what constitutes deprivation of liberty it might prescribe in what way and by what means the liberty of the citizen shall be deemed protected. In prescribing punishment for deprivation of life it might prescribe a code of criminal procedure. All this and much more might be done if it once be admitted, as the court asserts in this case, that Congress can authorize a criminal prosecution for the infraction of the prohibitions. It cannot prescribe punishment without defining crime, and therefore must give expression to its own views as to what constitutes protection to life, liberty, and property."

If it be said in reply to this that the main object of the Fourteenth Amendment was to prevent discrimination on account of color, and that, therefore, it should be restricted to acts of a State tending to introduce discriminations of this sort, the difficulty is that the language can hardly be restricted in this way. Its protection is extended in the first clause to all citizens of the United States, in the second to "any person," and in the third to *all persons within the jurisdiction* of the State.

From what has been said it must be obvious that the decision in the Coles case suggests more questions than it answers. If the view of the decision taken by the minority is correct, it throws the door wide open for legislation on a vast variety of subjects which have never hitherto been subjects of Congressional action. For instance, to take a subject as little connected with the negro question as any in the world can be, there is a large party in the United States which would like nothing better than to have Congress legislate with regard to the liquor traffic; and if the question were once to enter into Congressional elections, Congress might be at one time under the control of the Prohibitionists, at another under that of the anti-Prohibitionists. Suppose while in the hands of the latter party it were to come to the conclusion that a State system of prohibition summarily enforced by confiscation, such as has been resorted to in several States, is a system which deprives liquor-sellers of property without due process of law, and should pass an act making it a penal offence to obey the State law. Suppose, further, that the Supreme Court took the same view of the State system. Under the Coles decision would not the court be bound to uphold the legislation?

To take a still more crucial test: the State system of taxation of real and personal property generally is only defensible as an exercise of power which no one hitherto has had the right to supervise. As a matter of reason and right, it is hard to imagine anything more like depriving a man of property without due process of law than taxing him on the full value of property which is already mortgaged to its full value. Can Congress interfere with such a system by criminal legislation? If it can, what becomes of the sovereign taxing power, and the decision of the Supreme Court in the well-known case of Collector *v.* Day, in which it was said that "any government whose means employed in conducting its operations are made subject to the control of another and distinct government can exist only at the mercy of that government"?

We can only suggest these questions. They cannot be answered positively as yet. The decision of other cases now pending in the Supreme Court will no doubt throw much light on them. But meanwhile we cannot avoid sharing the impression of the two dissenting judges, that the view taken by the majority of the scope of the Fourteenth Amendment, if it is to be carried to its logical results, implies a long, and we may add unexpected, stride in the direction of centralization.

AN ENGLISH VIEW OF AMERICAN CONSERVATISM.

LONDON, March 11, 1880.

A TRAVELLER in the United States has recently published the remark that "an English radical is much struck with the conservatism of the American people." The observation is, if properly understood, perfectly just, and represents the impression which the United States must have made upon hundreds of Englishmen who have enjoyed the great advantage and the infinite pleasure of a visit to the Union. Whether the impression is itself well founded must be left to the judgment of yourself and your readers. Meanwhile it may be of interest to enquire what are the answers to the three following questions: First, What does an Englishman mean by "conservatism" as applied to the American people? Secondly, What to an English observer appear to be the causes in America of this conservative temper? Thirdly, What are the inferences which the existence of this sentiment throughout the greatest of modern republics suggests to an English thinker with reference to the characteristics of democracy in the future?

First—What does an Englishman mean by conservatism as applied to the American people? The term, clearly, as applied to European politics is used in at least two senses, neither of which is applicable to the citizens of the Union. Conservatism on the Continent, and especially in France, is nothing better than a decent alias for a policy of aggressive reaction.

A *conservateur* under the French Republic might seem named on the principle of *lucus a non lucendo*. He is a conservative who does not wish to preserve any part of the existing constitution. He may be loyal to Henry V., to the Orleans dynasty, or to Napoleonism. The one thing he is not loyal to is the Republic. His first step towards order is a revolution, and he will not begin to preserve anything till the existing constitution of the country is overthrown. He is that strange birth of an age of civil strife—a reactionary revolutionist. The conservatism of reaction can from the very nature of things hardly exist throughout the Union. Conservatism, as applied to English politics, has certainly no affinity with reaction. The wildest Jingo who worships Lord Beaconsfield does not dream of overthrowing the existing constitution. A politician who hinted at the policy of restoring the unreformed Parliament of 1830 would soon find himself committed to Bedlam. But the conservative sentiment as it exists in England, though not reactionary or aggressive, is distinctly defensive. It is the feeling of men who not only wish things to be as they are, but are aware that things will not long remain as they are unless those who object to change exert themselves to repel the attacks of innovators. This feeling, which is not really represented by the vagaries of Lord Beaconsfield, governs the rich and respectable members of English society.

But though at bottom a sentiment of this kind cannot be wanting in any civilized and wealthy state, the defensive conservatism of England is not exactly what an English critic means when he applies the term to the United States. It implies in England not indeed aggression, but active resistance to the progress of democratic changes. It cannot, in the same form at least, exist in a country where every democratic alteration has been carried out, and where, as it appears at least to a foreigner, there is no party wishing to change, and none therefore enlisted to defend, the established order of things. It is, in fact, the very absence of the wish for change, the conscious or unconscious preference for things as they are, the assumption, sometimes well and sometimes ill-grounded, that the existing state of society ought not to be altered, which constitutes in the eyes of observant Englishmen the conservatism of America. Foreigners, impressed with the go-ahead character of Americans, and especially of American merchants, as well as citizens of the Union who know that the American people can make any change they choose in their institutions, and who are accustomed to boast with justice of the freedom of their country, will perhaps be alike indisposed to admit that the term "conservative" can, in the sense in which it is here employed, be applied to American society. There are, however, several considerations which may incline impartial judges to hold that the view taken by the traveller whose language has been cited is in substance correct. If one takes, for example, the merely political side of American life, it surely must be admitted that what is really remarkable is that a people who have power to change everything have, consciously at least, not changed anything in their institutions unless compelled to innovation (as in the abolition of slavery) by the irresistible stress of circumstances. Of the Constitution of the United States any one who has considered the political uninventiveness of mankind will always speak with profound admiration, for it is a work marked in at least two respects by traits of undoubted originality. But the constitutional fabric which is the glory of America is the handiwork of a generation utterly unlike the present and of men who were in some respects daring innovators. Nearly a century has passed since their work was completed. Time has brought changes, but no American reformers have, except under something like compulsion, touched the monument of their forefathers' wisdom. This conservatism, if it is to be appreciated, must be compared not with the reckless revolutions of the Continent, but with the unceasing though steady changes of English politics. The alteration in the English Constitution since the beginning of the century has been far greater than the changes introduced during the same period into the Constitution of the Union.

Nothing, again, impresses a stranger more than the respect expressed and apparently felt throughout the Union for the founders of the Republic. It is like nothing which now exists in Great Britain. It recalls the language which in the last century Whigs of all schools applied to the leaders of the Revolution of 1688, or the obviously genuine veneration with which Lord Russell, who represented the sentiment of a past age, regarded the rules handed down by Whig tradition. The very mode in which the question of General Grant's possible third term is discussed strikes an Englishman as a singular specimen of conservative sentiment. There is much, as no reader of the *Nation* can fail to know, to be said against re-electing the General. There is something on general grounds to be urged against Presidential re-elections, though in theory at least there would appear to be quite as much to be urged in their favor. The odd thing to a foreigner is the weight attached to mere precedent. Yet it can hardly be doubted that the reason which with the average elector tells most strongly against the gratification of General Grant's ambition, is not his unfitness for the post to which he aspires, not the political inexpediency of prolonged personal rule, but the fact that Washington was only twice President. If Washington had filled office for three terms one may suspect that popular admiration or gratitude would have insisted on the same honor being paid to Grant. In any case, a main obstacle in the General's path is the existence of a sentiment so essentially conservative as to be unintelligible in a country like France, and to excite something like wonder even in a land so permeated by constitutional sentiment as Great Britain.

If there be anything more essentially characteristic of a people than its political institutions, this thing is its law. Now, that the laws of the States which make up the Union betray at every turn the conservatism of the American people, is an assertion which I make with confidence. I have professionally studied the law of England. I have given more attention than perhaps is usual in the case of a foreigner to the laws and to (what is even more germane to the present topic) the legal literature of America. That your law is founded on that of England is common knowledge. A point not so often noticed is that the growth of a republican society has to a far slighter extent than might have been anticipated changed either the substance or the form of the legal rules brought from the old country. How close your lawyers have kept to the beaten track of English law is best seen in comparative trifles. The fourth and seventeenth sections, for example, of the Statute of Frauds embody a rule which is a peculiarity—one might almost say an accidental peculiarity—of English law. As to the policy of the rule that certain ordinary contracts must, if they are to be valid, be in writing there is very much to be said. No one acquainted with modern England would be surprised were the venerable sections, which have caused more litigation than they have hindered, repealed *in toto* by some Conservative Parliament acting under the advice of a Conservative lord chancellor. The provisions of such a statute might be expected to be repealed or greatly modified when carried across the Atlantic; but this is not the case. Any one who looks at Mr. Throop's elaborate treatise will see that the legislation of Charles II. holds its ground in all or nearly all the States of the Union. The words are in most cases scarcely altered. The letter rather than the spirit has in most instances been followed; for fifty dollars, *e.g.*, in the New York Code, representing the sum of £10, of course does not really represent anything equal to the value of that sum in 1677. An enquirer whose mind is once turned to the subject will see everywhere traces of the spirit which has kept alive in the midst of a flourishing republic even the words of legal rules which grew up under an ancient monarchy. Everywhere throughout the Union an English barrister recognizes the terms—occasionally it must be added the jargon—to which he is accustomed at Westminster or Lincoln's Inn. If he is puzzled, it is rather by the antiquity than by the novelty of the formulas with which he meets. At least as late as 1870 a stranger might find in use at Chicago niceties of pleading which had for twenty, or it might be forty, years been out of use in England. If, like myself, he asked for an explanation of this curious survival, he was told that the people had in legal matters great confidence in the opinion of established lawyers. No further explanation was necessary, for the sentiment of your bar strikes a foreigner as strangely conservative as compared even with so steady-going a body as the bar of England. Of American legal works—such, for example, as Story's 'Conflict of Laws,' Mr. Holmes's admirable edition of 'Kent's Commentaries,' or Mr. Langdell's 'Cases on the Law of Contract'—no one who is competent to judge can speak without the most unfeigned admiration. The curious point for the present purpose, however, is that the merits of modern American lawyers are in the main the merits which marked the luminaries of English law in the past generation—extraordinary knowledge of cases, astonishing acuteness in working out the principles involved in recorded decisions and in applying them to the complicated circumstances suggested by new cases as they arise; and with all this a genuine veneration, which it may be feared is gradually dying out in England, for the wisdom and perfection of the Common Law. No one who has heard Professor Dwight's lectures or has studied Mr. Holmes's most interesting 'Speculations' can doubt that the intellect of the American bar can deal to perfection with either the exposition of actual law or with the speculative problems of historical jurisprudence. No one, however, who compares England with America can fail to see that the desire for legal innovation which expresses itself in unceasing at-

tempts either to reduce the law to a codified form, or, after the manner of writers like Mr. Pollock, to introduce into expositions of English law ideas suggested by foreign writers, is far more widely spread in the old country than in the Union. In other words, America, not England, is at present the home of legal conservatism.

In saying this I wish neither to blame nor to praise the one country or the other. My sole object is to give an example of the existence of that state of sentiment which, in default of a better term, may be called conservatism. The spirit which is traceable in law and politics comes out (though not, I admit, so clearly) in theology and in religious institutions. This assertion will probably be more easily accepted in America than in England. Mr. Hepworth Dixon and better authorities than the pretentious author of 'Spiritual Wives' have made current throughout Europe the idea that strange religious institutions, abnormal forms of belief, and daring theological speculation have their special home in the great Republic. This opinion is, of course, not without its foundation. The mere existence of Mormonism is, it will be said, sufficient proof that the opinion is well grounded. Yet this current notion, even though not causeless, is, I venture to think, in so far as a foreigner is capable of pronouncing judgment on a matter requiring more knowledge of facts than he can easily acquire, really calculated to mislead. The current tone of American religion appears to be for all practical purposes uncommonly like the tone which prevails in England. Where men may say anything they please without exposing themselves to legal or social loss, strange things will of course occasionally be thought and said; but any one who notes the number of churches, say, in Chicago or New York, will not readily believe that there has been any great wave of opinion drawing off American citizens from the religious habits prevalent in England, whilst any one who steps inside these churches will probably feel that he hears for good and bad much the same doctrine he would hear in London or Manchester. No doubt institutions such as the Oneida Community well merit attention. The same thing may be said of Mr. Bradlaugh's lectures, or of the Positivist church in London, which certainly has not an overflowing audience. But to suppose that the Oneida Community is a fair representative of average society in America is, I conceive, much like thinking that Mr. Bradlaugh's audience represents the ordinary theological tone of average Englishmen. Mormonism, no doubt, is a remarkable phenomenon. It shows that noteworthy institutions which could hardly make way in an ordinary European state may arise and flourish in a country where the ground is both literally and metaphorically open for them. But Mormonism is exactly one of those exceptions which prove the rule. In one respect it is marked by a singular want of originality. It is grounded on a sort of vulgar biblicalism. It is, one may add, though of American origin, yet supported by foreigners, and may in all probability sink in the course of a generation or two into the same sort of position as that now occupied by many sects, both in England and America, which at their first birth seemed filled with the spirit of innovation, but which as time went on sobered down into bodies mainly remarkable by their tenacious adherence to some few principles, crochets, or oddities inherited from their founders. There is no need, however, for pressing my point too hard. Let Mormonism be taken for what it is worth as an example of religious innovation or adventure; to an Englishman, certainly, the large fact about American society may rationally seem to be that in politics, in law, and in religion, its pervading tone is, compared at least with England, a sentiment of conservatism.

In one other letter I purpose to point out what may seem to be the cause of the fact I have noted, and what are some of the inferences which this fact suggests.

A. V. Dicey.

MEMOIRS OF MME. DE RÉMUSAT.—VOL. III.

Paris, March 5, 1880.

THE third and last volume of the 'Memoirs of Madame de Rémusat' has just appeared. It is preceded by the Preface which M. Charles de Rémusat had prepared for the Memoirs of his mother; why M. Paul de Rémusat places it in the last volume, would be rather difficult to explain. Such as it is, it is interesting; it shows how Madame de Rémusat hesitated and felt uneasy at the very thought of publication, though this was only to take place after her death. "The further I proceed," said she to her son, "the more I am convinced that you will be my only reader." She said to him another time, "Do you know a reflection which sometimes haunts me? I say to myself: If one day my son should publish all this, what would people think of me? I am afraid they would think me wicked or at least malicious. I long to find occasions for praise. But this man [meaning Napoleon] was such an *assommateur* of virtue, and we were so debased, that often my heart is discouraged and truth pushes me forward; I know nobody but you to whom I could make all these confidences." Charles de Rémusat tries to frame an excuse for his father and mother, and to explain why they served Napoleon, though they had so little love or even esteem for his character. "Their justification," says he, "is expressed in a few words of Tacitus, who thinks that even under a despotism praise is due, in a functionary who is capable and steadfast, to what he calls *obsequium et modestia*." The chamberlains of the Emperor were certainly obsequious and modest, and the real excuse of Madame de Rémusat was her youth, her inexperience, and her poverty. She knew the *res angusta domi;* the salary of her husband and her own salary were their only resource. She consoled herself easily when her sentiments were not in accordance with her interests, and she whispered to herself in the palace of Cæsar:

"Mais le cœur d'Emilie est hors de ton pouvoir." *

Though the Memoirs are very severe upon Napoleon, she kept in her heart an instinctive affection—half admiration, half terror—for the great man whom she had seen in his glory and in his youth. She had become reconciled, of course, to the cause of the Bourbons, or rather she had returned to it as naturally as a plant which has been tied returns to its original attitude. But she was moved almost to tears when she thought of the prisoner of St. Helena. She wept before her son when she heard the news of his death. M. Charles de Rémusat gives these details in order to show the sincerity and indulgence of his mother; he infers from it that her judgments are all the more reliable when she is obliged to be severe. Of the sincerity of Madame de Rémusat there can be no doubt; she was a perfect mirror; she was almost as unconscious as a real mirror.

This third volume shows Napoleon at the apogee of his power. He was distributing crowns, instituting ceremonies, organizing Europe like a new Charlemagne. The splendor of his court in 1806 was very unlike the simplicity of the Consular court. Josephine, the "little Creole," wore at times more than a million of francs' worth of diamonds on her head; the marshals' wives were not content when they had less than 100,000 francs' worth on their persons. Princess Borghese, Madame Murat, Madame Louis Bonaparte were literally crushed under the weight of precious stones. The *Moniteur* was full of the accounts of the great receptions held at Naples, at Berg, at Baden, in Holland, by the new sovereigns and princes, made "by the grace of God and of Napoleon." The new catechism prepared for the French Church (which was called the Catechism of Bossuet because it contained Gallican principles) contained questions and answers like these (p. 55):

"*Question.* What are the duties of Christians toward princes, and particularly what are our duties towards Napoleon I., our Emperor?

"*Answer.* Christians owe to the princes who govern them, and we owe particularly to Napoleon I., our Emperor, love, respect, obedience, fidelity, military service, the payment of the taxes ordered for the conservation and the defence of the Empire and the Throne. To honor and to serve the Emperor is to honor and to serve God himself."

This was taught in all the French schools a few years after the head of the son of Saint Louis had fallen on the Place de la Révolution. Napoleon wished to convert all the sovereigns of Europe in turn into vassals; he invented the great scheme of the Confederation of the Rhine; he separated all the old electorates from the body of the German Empire, and became the protector of all the provinces which did not belong to Prussia or to Austria. The death of Mr. Fox interrupted this dream of universal power, war became again imminent, and Prussia was marked for the first blow. Bonaparte felt a sort of intoxication. "Let the Prussians know," said he in a proclamation, "that if it is easy to get more territory and more power through the friendship of a great people, its enmity, when it is provoked by a total absence of wisdom and reason, is more terrible than the tempests of the ocean." It was terrible indeed, and it seemed a moment, after Jena, as if Prussia was to be struck off the list of nations. Talleyrand was very anxious to restore the old kingdom of Poland. Madame de Rémusat, who had become very intimate with him, says that it was his favorite plan, that he considered it essential to the security of Europe. "I have often," says Madame de Rémusat, "heard him say that the whole question of the peace of Europe was in Poland." Talleyrand had become, next to Napoleon, the most important man in Europe. He was in high favor with Napoleon; they were like two members of a syllogism—one won the battles, the other drew the

* Corneille's "Cinna."

consequences of the victories. Before starting for Germany Napoleon had had the most affectionate parting with Josephine in Talleyrand's presence:

"The Emperor, pressing his wife to his side, approached Talleyrand, took his hand, and, embracing them both, said to M. de Rémusat: 'It is painful to leave the two persons one loves best'; and, while repeating these words, the sort of nervous *attendrissement* which he felt increased so much as to bring tears, and almost immediately he was seized with convulsions which became strong enough to cause vomiting. He had to be made to sit down and to take some orange-flower water; he was weeping. In this state he remained for a quarter of an hour."

The bulletins which followed Jena mark, I think, the continuation of a highly nervous state. Napoleon insulted the Queen of Prussia, the Prussian noblemen, the women; he used coarse expressions; he abused Alexander, laughed at "the handsome emperor" and the "jolie reine"; he prepared himself to attack Russia, and first occupied Poland. His family at once began to intrigue for this new throne. Murat, who always wore a theatrical dress, saw himself King of Poland, surrounded by the Polish cavaliers. Jerome had some hope. Napoleon had a natural son while he was in Poland, and for some time the hopes of the Poles were centred on this child. It is difficult to say why Napoleon did not re-establish Poland. Perhaps he had not time. Perhaps he thought that he could force Russia into an alliance with him, and he knew that Russia could not make peace with him if he made a new Poland. At Eylau he tried again the fortune of war. He triumphed; but the triumph was so costly that he stopped his march, and the French army went into winter quarters. The seat of war was now so distant, so unknown, that France lived almost in ignorance of its own destinies. A feeling of distrust, of uneasiness, hung over Paris, and even over the little court of Josephine. New levies were ordered by a complacent Senate. The battle of Friedland obliged Alexander of Russia to yield to Napoleon. The famous interview at Tilsit was a sort of partition of the world, offered by Napoleon to his enemy. The Poles were sacrificed. They had hoped for a complete independence; they only saw the creation of a Duchy of Warsaw, which was given in trust to the King of Saxony. Westphalia became a kingdom and was given to Jerome Bonaparte.

Madame de Rémusat says that it was impossible not to admire so much glory, but that the French had become much more insensible to it than in the past. They were surfeited. They did not see the end of the ambition of Napoleon. People had become much more afraid of a master who had the fortunes of each family, as well as of every nation, in his hands. The presents of Napoleon, after this war, to his followers and friends were enormous; but his presents no longer excited any gratitude. His generosity savored too much of a system of corruption; the burden of his gifts was too heavy. Napoleon returned from his campaign with a feeling of jealousy against Talleyrand. He had seen that his minister had too much preponderance; he had been too much courted at Tilsit. People whispered that Talleyrand was necessary to him. Napoleon named him vice-grand-elector, which made him second in dignity to Prince Joseph, but deprived him of the Foreign Office. When Talleyrand presented the employees of the ministry to his successor he said: "Here, sir, are many honorable men. You will be satisfied with them. You will find them faithful, clever, exact, but, thanks to my care, not at all zealous." M. de Champagny expressed some surprise, and Talleyrand, affecting great seriousness, added: "Yes, sir; except a few clerks, who, I believe, close their envelopes with too much precipitation, all here have great calmness and have lost the habit of promptitude. When you have discussed a little while the interests of Europe with the Emperor, you will see how important it is not to seal and expedite his will too quickly."

Madame de Rémusat became more intimate at that time with Talleyrand; she was slightly afraid of him, of his sarcastic manner; she was proud of his attentions to her, and says with some *naïveté*: "When I think of it now I confess that it was an odd thing, this state of anguish and of pleasure which I felt when the folding-doors of my room were opened and I heard announced 'the Prince of Benevento.'" She adds that "she always had a smile *de commande* ready for all his witticisms." She evidently felt that she was a very small person before this *grand seigneur*, who was very much spoiled by all the ladies of the time, as well as by the princes of Europe. Talleyrand probably liked in M. de Rémusat what the English call a safe man, and in Madame de Rémusat the ease and natural grace, the facility and quickness, which are found all through the 'Memoirs.' Madame de Rémusat was, as I have said, an admirable mirror; she was very objective; she describes well the *entourage* of Talleyrand—the Duchesse de Luynes, the Princesse de Vaudemont, the Princesse Lieskiewitz, sister of Poniatowski, the Duchesse de Fleury, Madame de Souza. Madame de Rémusat enters into very minute details concerning the sojourn made during two months by the Imperial Court at Fontainebleau in 1807. Her editor compares this chapter to the descriptions of Versailles given by Saint-Simon; but he is blinded by his affection for his grandmother. Saint-Simon is incomparable; his eye sees not only the surface of things, it penetrates the heart. The descriptions of Madame de Rémusat are amusing photographs. "The Emperor sometimes said: 'Is it not singular? I have assembled at Fontainebleau many people; I want these people to be amused. I have regulated all the amusements, and faces are all long, and everybody seems tired and dull.' 'It is,' answered Talleyrand, 'because you cannot conduct pleasure with a drum.'"

Everybody was, in fact, afraid of the master; the Emperor, who was at thirty years of age the arbiter of the world, had a *ver rongeur;* he often abandoned the chase, forgot the stag, and galloped silently in the long alleys of the dark forest. Nothing could amuse him; in vain did the best actors of Paris appear in the small theatre of the château; in vain did the ladies change their dresses every day. He kept reading English newspapers. The arrogance of the nation which he could not touch on its own soil, was the vinegar which spoiled all his joys. The favorite of the moment was an Italian lady, "a sweet person, rather obedient than satisfied; she yielded to the master by a sort of conviction that he was irresistible; she made no *éclat*, showed no pretension; she even combined a great attachment for Madame Bonaparte with complacency for the caprice of her husband." Madame de Rémusat enters into some details about this cold *liaison*, which had better be read in her book. She gives also curious details about the various intrigues of the Court.

The foreign princes did not dine every day with the Emperor; they were only invited when he wished to have them; on other days they dined with the Queen, the ministers, the grand-marshal, or the *dame d'honneur*. Every night, after holding the Circle, the Emperor shut himself up with Talleyrand and worked with him till late. Napoleon was meditating to place one of his relations on the throne of Spain; he felt that the Bourbons could not be good neighbors for him. He expected to charm the Spaniards, as he had charmed the Italians, with the great words, liberty, destruction of the nobility and of superstition. Talleyrand knew the Spaniards better, and tried to dissuade Napoleon. He once said to Madame de Rémusat:

"The Emperor will not see that his destiny makes him the *man of the nations*, the founder of useful and possible novelties. To give back to France religion, morality, order; to applaud the civilization of England while moderating its policy; to fortify his frontiers by the confederacy of the Rhine; to make of Italy a kingdom independent of Austria and of himself; to keep the Czar shut up by creating the natural barrier of Poland—such ought to be the constant design of the Emperor, and it is to that that each of my treaties conducted him. But ambition, anger, pride, and a few imbeciles whom he listens to, often make him blind. He suspects me as soon as I speak of moderation, and, if he ceases to believe me, you will see by what follies he will compromise himself and us. However, I will watch to the end. I have attached myself to the creation of his Empire."

So much confidence was very flattering for a young person like Madame de Rémusat. Talleyrand did not much trust human nature, but he seems at all times to have been in need of some confidant. He was very reticent, but liked to unbend occasionally, to give himself a few moments of ease and to speak his own thoughts, perhaps so as to give to them a more definite form.

I come now to the closing scenes, to the divorce of Napoleon and Josephine.

Correspondence.

GENERAL GRANT'S MORAL PECULIARITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some years ago it was said there were three kinds of people in the world—saints, sinners, and the Beecher family. It seems to me, in view of the protestations of the anti-Grant Republican papers of respect for the ex-President "personally," that a slight change in the witticism would make it fit the present time.

The Chicago *Tribune*, for instance, believes that none of the ordinary criterions of judgment are to be applied to General Grant "personally." That paper says in its issue of March 15: "The old crowd of political prostitutes who broke down Grant's second Administration and brought

the Republican party to shame and defeat are now serving," etc. The article then adverts to the advocacy of Grant's nomination by the "ex-Whiskey Ring organs," alludes to the "multitudinous errors and scandalous abuses of his second Administration," and scores again the "old crowd" of "rapacious parasites" that in the event of his election "propose to fasten themselves upon him again."

Now, if General Grant were a saint or a sinner the *Tribune* would judge him by the ordinary standards of intelligence and character, and would wind up its article with some biting insinuation that he connived with the rascals, or else with a word of scorn for the imbecility of the man who had been and would be again so easily imposed upon. General Grant, however, being neither a saint nor a sinner, the *Tribune* simply tenders a word of sympathy to those "decent citizens who have the most unbounded admiration and the most profound respect for General Grant personally," but are opposed to a third term.

It is evident that Grant is either a personal saint and an impersonal sinner, or else, like the Beechers, he belongs to a new moral species neither saint nor sinner. O. S.

THE NEW DEPARTURE IN THE LECTURE SYSTEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to add a few statements to the excellent article upon "The Function of the Lyceum" in the *Nation* of March 11.

In that article attention was called to three points of interest in the present condition of the lyceum:

I. Less reliance is now placed upon the eminence *per se* of a lecturer, and more consideration paid to his capacity for dealing with a subject, and dealing with it before an audience.

II. A large class of people now go to hear lectures who will not read books; looking to the lyceum for information which they are too busy or too indolent to obtain in any other way.

III. In spite of all the changes going on in our modern life, and notwithstanding the attractions of the press and the drama, the lecture system appears to be as popular as it has ever been, even if we may not say that it is growing in public favor.

To these well-made and discriminating statements I would add that a *new departure* in the lecture system may be seen—

1. In the fact that, while many persons go to hear a lecture who will not read the books which treat of the same subject, there are as many more who now attend a lecture for the express purpose of receiving from it what Goethe calls a "living impression," around which their previous or subsequent reading may arrange itself in the mind. In several cities of New England, during the season just past, librarians have been active co-workers with lecturers, preparing lists of books of reference which have been printed every week in the newspapers, and the books themselves placed on special shelves in the library for ready consultation. It is obvious that only competent lecturers can bear the application of so severe a test of the originality of their researches and value of their productions.

2. In the growing favor which is shown to courses of lectures upon subjects of general interest delivered by a single lecturer. It is true that the majority of lyceum "managers" still cater to the taste of those who wish to jumble together in one incongruous *course* a reading, a concert, an opera, a humorous talk, with one or more highly-seasoned orations which wear the title of lectures. But the lecturer who has something to say and knows how to put his study and scholarship into a form that can be popularly apprehended, finds increasingly large audiences in almost every intelligent community.

3. In the more general use of the stereopticon as a means of effectively popularizing the best science of the day. It goes without saying that illustrated lectures may very easily be abused; that "superb" views rather than full or accurate knowledge may come to be relied upon to attract an audience; that the ignorant or only half-informed rush in where the wise still fear to tread; and that a lecture with stereopticon illustrations may be made as purely sensational, rhetorical, or declamatory as any other kind of lecture. But the improvement in methods of popular instruction which the stereopticon has brought about is as real as it is striking; and it can hardly be doubted that this instrument will be used with still greater effectiveness in the future, making the eye work together with the ear, and giving reality to words which, alone, are so often the hiding-places of both thoughts and things. Henry G. Spaulding.

Springfield, Mass., March 15, 1880.

Notes.

Among Ginn & Heath's announcements for the current year we remark the following text-books: the 'Agricola' and 'Germania' of Tacitus, edited by Prof. Wm. F. Allen, of the University of Wisconsin; the same writer's 'Annals,' edited by Prof. Tracy Peck, of Cornell, who will also edit the Letters of Pliny the Younger; a 'Critical History of Cicero's Letters,' by R. F. Leighton; and a 'German Grammar' by Wm. Cook and E. S. Sheldon, of Harvard.——The 'Concord Guide-Book' of D. Lothrop & Co. "will be very fully illustrated with original drawings of celebrated spots and portraits of noted Concord people."——From the current issue of the *Harvard Register* we learn that Mr. Wm. Cushing, author of the indexes to the *Christian Examiner* and *North American Review*, is engaged upon a biographical dictionary, to be called 'The Century of Authors,' 1780–1880. It is intended to be exhaustive so far as this country is concerned, but not so in the case of Great Britain, and still less of other foreign countries. The sketches will be brief, and will indicate "the subject, time, and place of some leading or characteristic publication" in each instance.——The series of "Personal Narratives of Events in the War of the Rebellion," heretofore published by the Soldiers' and Sailors' Historical Society of Rhode Island through S. S. Rider, is to be succeeded by a second series, uniform in size and general appearance, bearing the imprint of N. Bangs Williams, Providence. The first number, 'The First Cruise of the *Montauk*,' by Samuel T. Browne, well sustains the interest of these unpretentious but valuable contributions to the history of the civil war. The edition is limited.——The American Numismatic and Archæological Society, of which Dr. Charles E. Anthon is President, held its twenty-second annual meeting on March 16 at its new rooms, No. 30 Lafayette Place. The Society has a membership of 115 members, with a well-sustained library and cabinet, the latter now reckoning 3,390 medals, etc.——Mr B. F. de Costa's instructive paper on the Lenox Globe, which appeared in the *Magazine of American History*, has been translated into French by M. Gabriel Gravier, President of the Normandy Geographical Society, and daintily printed at Rouen by E. Cagniard, with fac-simile, head and tail-pieces, etc.——Macmillan & Co. publish a new annual compiled by Marcus B. Huish, LL.B., and entitled 'The Year's Art,' or "a Concise Epitome of all matters relating to the arts of painting, sculpture, and architecture which have occurred during the year 1879, together with information respecting the Events of the year 1880"; which comprehensive title is perhaps sufficiently specific, though we may add that Mr. Huish's statistics are apparently very full, that they are of special value to art-students, and that they relate only to Great Britain. The volume is of convenient size for a manual, contains 216 pages, and is bound in flexible cloth.——The latest publication of the English Dialect Society (Trübner & Co.) contains reprinted specimens—from Devonshire, "An Exmoor Scolding and Courtship" (1746), and from Westmoreland, "A Bran New Wark" (1785), edited with notes and glossary by Frederic Thomas Elworthy and Professor Skeat respectively. The "Scolding" is a miracle of rustic billingsgate, and fully merits the editor's apology for perpetuating it, though perhaps he underestimates its value for the study of manners. It is even a rather startling test of present standards of decency, if we can credit Professor Skeat when he says the "'Exmoor Scolding and Courtship'. . . may, in fact, be bought in a cheap form at a railway book-stall." Mr. Elworthy has been at the pains to translate these two pieces into Mr. Ellis's Glossic, line for line.——Of recent additions to Trübner's handsome and useful "Oriental Series," we may mention 'Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects,' in two volumes, by Mr. B. H. Hodgson. We noticed five or six years ago (*Nation*, No. 492) the appearance of a first volume of this author's scattered writings, and hoped that its reception would be such as should lead to a continuation. The great bulk of the papers here reproduced concern the non-Aryan languages of India; a few deal with the institutions and manufactures of Nepal; and the second volume closes with the author's contributions in 1847–8 to the discussion of the cultivation and encouragement of the native vernaculars of the country.——A curious periodical is the new "cosmopolitan" monthly *Minerva*, edited by Pericles Tzikos, published in Rome, and entirely composed in English (original or translated). T. Mamiani's "Letter to Editor," which takes the place of a salutatory, is in ludicrous contrast with the Jingo article next succeeding, by S. G. C. Middlemore, designed to prove that Imperialism is the permanent "main question" of English politics, and to explain why many Liberals, like the writer, will either abstain from voting at the coming elections or vote with

the Conservatives. Mrs. E. Lynn Linton ("Our London Districts"), Mme. J. W. Mario ("Antique Jewelry and its Revival"), Dr. Waldstein ("Specialization a Morbid Tendency of our Time"), D. A. Parodi ("The French Drama"), and Ugo Pesci ("Unfrequented Italy"), are some of the other writers. *Minerva* "will necessarily consider as of first importance those subjects that especially interest the Italian and English-speaking nations."——The significant article in the *Oriental Church Magazine* for March is that on "The Woman Question in Russia during the Age of Peter the Great," by A. Bruckner.——In the current *Journal* and *Transactions* of the Berlin Geographical Society will be found a portion of the proceedings at the Carl Ritter festival, October 11, 1879—"Michael Servetus a forerunner of Ritter and A. von Humboldt," by Pastor Tollin; "Ritter's Significance for Geography," by Dr. Marthe, etc.——A new *Zeitschrift für Wissenschaftliche Geographie*, edited, with a weighty collaboration, by Julius Ivan Kettler, will be published at Lahr, Baden, by Moritz Schauenburg. It will not compete with popular geographical journals.——The Portuguese explorer of Africa, Serpa Pinto, it will be remembered, started from Benguela with two companions, Srs. Capello and Ivens, who soon separated from their chief in 1877 and for a long time were not heard from. On the 1st inst. they happily returned to Lisbon, where they were received magnificently by the King, Dom Luiz, and the people. Their health is now fairly good, but they both suffered a great deal in their exploration of 2,600 miles. A public meeting was soon to be held in Lisbon, at which these two young men were to give a popular account of their labors.——A correspondent calls our attention to another dictionary worthy to be placed by the side of the 'Car-Builder's Dictionary,' mentioned and commended in our last number. This is the 'Dictionary of Carriage Terms,' now publishing in the *Hub*, the carriage-builders' monthly of this city. It contains, in many instances, the French and German equivalents of the term defined, its history, with illustrative citations and numerous cross-references. Even obsolete vehicles are included.——To all who wish to read an accurate, sensible, and charmingly written account of Goethe, the *Gegenwart* strongly recommends the hundred-page biography by Michael Bernays, reprinted from the 'Allgemeine Deutsche Bibliographie,' and published by Duncker & Humblot.

—A correspondent writes us, under date of March 15:

"Baltimore has this winter, through the liberality of one of its citizens, become the possessor of a work of art of great beauty, which has the additional interest of being the only copy ever made, we believe, in the same material as its original. We refer to the bronze reduction of the Ghiberti Gates, made by Barbédienne for the Vienna Exposition, and probably intended for the door of a church or other public building as the leaves are provided with hinges which are not used in the present position of the gates as objects in the art gallery of the Peabody Museum. They are half the height and therefore a quarter of the size of the original doors, and have not yet been exhibited to the public, but the fortunate visitor who obtains sight of them cannot but wonder at the fidelity with which Barbédienne's process has reproduced the exquisite grace and variety of detail of the master. The bronze is of a rich, pure tone, dark and shadowy in the depressions, and shading into gold in the figures in highest relief, which are gilded, as if to make us feel that they have caught and held some of the Italian sunshine which falls on their prototypes."

—Dr. Asa Gray, Mr. Alexander Agassiz, and Prof. George L. Goodale have issued a circular representing the insufficiency of the invested funds of the Botanic Garden of Harvard University to support it upon its present basis, and the impossibility of reducing expenses "without impairing the efficiency of the establishment as a scientific centre and as a means of instruction." The sum of eighty thousand dollars would place the Garden on an independent foundation, and twenty-four thousand have, according to the circular, been already subscribed, Mr. Agassiz himself, as is his custom, being one of the foremost givers. Those to whom this appeal is addressed should by all means before neglecting it endeavor to visit the Garden and examine its excellent organization for study and instruction. We should suppose that the city of Cambridge itself would have some inducement to maintain the outward and public feature of the establishment, whose value as a resort will increase with the density of the population.

—Three more chapters of "The Undiscovered Country" in the April *Atlantic* do not greatly quicken the somewhat languid interest we have begun to feel in Mr. Howells's latest story, although they add the element of Shaker life and character to the study of Spiritualist character and life, which hitherto has been the burden of the book. Both are very well done, it need not be said, being done by Mr. Howells; but we are reminded of a remark of Voltaire's, recently quoted against "realism" by a romantic writer, to the effect that it is hardly worth while doing seriously what is not worth while touching lightly. It seems as if the idiosyncrasies of Spiritualists and Shakers, for all purposes of fiction, came within this category. We think of no other reason at any rate why Mr. Howells, for the first time in his life, should fail in entertainment. There are other reasons why Mr. Aldrich, who begins "The Stillwater Tragedy" in this number, and suggests, so far, Wilkie Collins tinctured with sportiveness, should thus fail, it being a prime necessity of successful "realism" that it be real, to mention nothing else. The rest of the fiction is unimportant. Of the poetry the same may be said, if we except Mr. Whittier's apostrophe to Webster, which is a dignified performance; and, perhaps, for an opposite purpose, we ought to call attention to a remarkable anonymous lament in which these verses occur:

> "Your love had made me doubly fair,
> Lent clearer lustre to my hair."

Neither is the literary criticism of a high order. Mr. George Parsons Lathrop's paper on "Coleridge as Man and Poet" is one of the most elaborate and ambitious performances we have seen, but it is not otherwise extraordinary; he has a very vivid conception of his subject, however, and says: "I have a vision of a man looking up in anguish at the sky, and beating his breast; and at every stroke upon his breast a sweep of music, sad and delicious, issues forth. Such is Coleridge." From which it may be gathered that the political and social articles are the best of the number, as they have been of each issue for some months. The third instalment of "Reminiscences of Washington" has to do with the Jackson Administration, which it renders piquant with a flavor of scandal; and an anonymous consideration of the "Republican Candidates for the Presidency" sums up the strength and weakness of each of the contestants for the Chicago nomination with praiseworthy candor, though perhaps, to avoid any imputation of unfairness, it states the case in every instance to the full as favorably as it will bear. The first of a series of "Records of W. M. Hunt," except for a comparative lack of pith, shows that the art, or at least the attitude, of Boswell (to which so much of the success of his art was due) is not wholly perished.

—The most noteworthy of the contents of *Lippincott's* for April is a thoughtful and valuable paper, the first of two, by Octave Thanet, on "The English Workingmen and Commercial Crises." It is a dispassionate, clear, and brief summary of the historical changes in the laborers' condition during the last three centuries. As yet it is impossible to tell whether the writer has any solution of his own of the question he states so well, but it will be equally impossible for the general reader not to get from him a more sympathetic appreciation of the discontent, not to say apathetic despair, which the laborer feels at different times and under different governments. It is not sufficient to show that the artisan's material condition has greatly improved since Henry VIII.'s reign without making it clear at the same time that as a class he has gradually become more and more separated from his fellow-men, and that, perhaps, the strongest hold the trades-unions have upon him results from the need of human companionship; though, since clannishness is thereby fostered to so great an extent, this may mean the beginning of a class contest. Its suggestion of such reflections as these, at any rate, is not the least merit of Mr. Thanet's article. The tenth chapter of Mr. Oswald's "Summerland Sketches" describes the ruins of Uxmal under the title of "The American Pompeii." Another illustrated paper is a narrative by Frank H. Taylor of a summer trip through the region of "The Lakes of Central New York," which has something of the history, geology, industries, and game of the section. "Concerning Animalcules," by Dr. R. Osgood Mason, is a popular scientific, and "Eating," by Dr. Charles W Dalles, a popular medical, article. Both the fiction and the poetry are good of their kind. A musical fancy, "Off the Coast of Sleep," contributed by D. R. H. Goodale, being the best of the verse, perhaps, and "L'Abnormale," a Russian story by Vera Lapoukhyn, of the fiction; except, of course, the fourth instalment of the serial "Adam and Eve," to whose merit we have heretofore called attention.

—In the April *Scribner's*, what is most striking after the continued articles—Mr. Cable's "Grandissimes," Mrs. Burnett's "Louisiana," Mr. Schuyler's "Peter the Great," and Mr. Roe's "Success with Small Fruits"—is the beginning of another serial by Mr. Theodore L. De Vinne, whose general theme is "The Growth of Wood-Cut Printing," and his sub-topic "Early Methods on the Hand-Press." The writer possesses abundant technical and historical knowledge for his task, and imparts it with great clearness, while calling to his aid a rich variety of illustrations, mostly fac-similes of old texts and cuts. The notorious decline

in wood-engraving before Bewick's time is accounted for by what Mr. De Vinne rightly calls a plausible explanation of his own—namely, that "the woodcuts that readers and publishers wanted could not be properly printed with types. The arts of designing and engraving had outgrown the art of printing." Clearness must also be predicated of Mr. Sidney Lanier's "Orchestra of To-day," a familiar description of the nature and variety of the three principal classes of orchestral instruments, prefaced by some remarks on what is perhaps the most astonishing fact in human development—the sudden rise of modern music Mr. Lanier illustrates the scope and character of each instrument by reference to some well-known composition in which it plays a significant part. He thinks the flute neglected, and hopes to see the time "when the twenty violins of a good orchestra will be balanced by twenty flutes." Anticipating the objection that it would be found difficult to procure so many players on that instrument, he recommends his countrywomen to cultivate the use of it, as well as of the violin, the flute, the oboe, the harp, the clarionet, the bassoon, and the kettle-drum, all of which are within their physical powers and in some of which (the flute especially) they might be expected to excel. This advice deserves to be heeded. Some marvels of Indiana limestone caverns as seen by Mr. H. C. Hovey, and Rocky Mountain mules as described by Mr. Ernest Ingersoll, furnish interesting reading.

—A certain parallelism between *Scribner's* and *Harper's* leads us, in speaking of the current issue of the latter magazine, to begin with Mr. Wm. C. Prime's capital paper on the "Early History of Bible Illustration." This is one chapter of a larger thesis, viz., that "successive generations of picture-makers and picture-readers use the old ideas and designs of artists as an adopted language, varied to suit the varying characteristics of men"; a practice which even international copyright will only modify, not suppress—copying is so much more easy and natural to the human species than originating. Mr. Prime's examples from the domain of Scripture, shown here in fac-simile, amount to a demonstration, and are in one particular a positive contribution to Holbein criticism. If this matches Mr. De Vinne's article, Mr. Lanier's finds a counterpart in Mrs. John Lillie's "Music and Musicians in England," a contemporary more than historical review, with a rather full account of one of the annual Norwich Festivals, and with brief biographies of notabilities like Joachim, Sir Julius Benedict, Antoinette Sterling, Henschel, and Sir Michael Costa, of whom excellent portraits are given. Mrs Lillie writes agreeably and with insight. We renew our praise of Miss Cloud's Irish sketches, this time having to do with an Irish fishing village, still on the west coast, whose squalid population "have but one earthly hope, America, and one dread, hunger." "Some Pennsylvania Nooks," "La Villa Real de Santa Fé," "The Swiss Rhine," need no analysis beyond the title. Art receives a further tribute in "Luca della Robbia and his School." In the Easy Chair Mr. Curtis breaks a lance—the phrase is hardly too strong—in defence of Mr. James's 'Hawthorne.' It is, indeed, getting to be high time that some one should survey the field of this memorable literary fray, noting judicially the *casus belli*, the aims and qualifications of the several combatants, and the result for Mr. James and for his countrymen.

—In the current number of the Princeton *Review* Mr. Eugene Smith has written an exhaustive and excellent article on convict labor. The great majority of convicts are in prison because they prefer preying upon the labor of others to working honestly for themselves. They also hate steady work. Consequently steady, systematic work is the best disciplinary treatment to restrain them from the repetition of their offences. But it is more and better than this: judicious work is the only specific for reform. If you can give a criminal habits of industry and the power of application, you get a new man, and if besides this you can teach him skill in his work, you give him the power of earning his bread, and a chance to become an honest man. It is important that the convict should have a reasonably large share of his earnings assigned to him. It gives him a greater interest in his labor, a certain pride in himself, and a fund to help him to a fresh start in life when he goes out of prison. The selfish cry of the local demagogue that prison labor competes with honest labor is unworthy of consideration. "The obligation of a citizen to support himself is not cancelled by his committing a crime." The effect of prison labor on the general stock of labor is infinitesimal; but were it otherwise, the larger class, the consumers, would be the gainers, and there is no reason why the citizens of a State should support anybody in idleness who can work, or why they should be taxed for the benefit of a few manufacturers. On the other hand, the present practice of letting out prison labor by contract to the highest bidder is open to several objections. The contract system interferes with the discipline of the prison. The contractor comes between the State and the convict. He directs the laborer, furnishes the tools, and appoints his own overseers. It is his interest to make all the money he can. He has no time or inclination to teach any prisoner his work. He gives him but one thing to do, and reduces him to the condition of a machine. The convict, instead of learning a trade, is taught but one operation in it, and after years of work is almost as helpless as at first. Another objection is the low price paid by contractors for prison labor. A contractor who has once got a foothold in a prison, and who owns the machinery and tools, can underbid any competitor. The true course, Mr. Smith thinks, is for the State to assume the administration of its prison labor by degrees and with caution. There will be a risk of pecuniary loss at first, but we should assume it because the question is not merely an economical one, but essential to the reform of the criminal; and there is really no reason (outside of politics and political jobbery) why a manager of fair executive ability should not make a profit as well as a contractor. At all events, it is only under State management that every prisoner can be taught a "full trade," and be made able to take care of himself when discharged without relapsing into his old habits.

—The Oratorio Society has accomplished another great success in the first performance in New York of Bach's Passion Music according to the Gospel of St. Matthew, which took place in St. George's Church on Thursday last. The highest praise is due the accomplished leader of the Society, Dr. Damrosch, to whose untiring energy and enthusiasm the musical public owes one of the greatest treats it has ever enjoyed. The mere technical difficulties of the work are so great that it is but seldom heard, and can only be performed by an orchestra and chorus of unusual excellence; add to this the solemn, almost austere character of the music, and the mournful monotony of the subject, which will prevent this great composition perhaps from ever becoming popular. The greatest beauty of the work is in the choruses, and among these the opening chorus: "Come, ye daughters!" stands unapproached, not only in this composition but in the music of all ages. It is impossible to convey the effect produced by this gigantic work. Three distinct choruses, two orchestras, and three organs are really required for a perfect performance of this one chorus. That the very limited forces at the command of the old organist of St. Thomas's Church in Leipzig, where the work was performed for the first time on Good Friday, 1729, never afforded him an opportunity of hearing it performed in such style, can be readily imagined, but thus his genius conceived it, thus he wrote it, and in that manner it was performed last Thursday. There are two four-part choruses in this number, first separated, then united; and when they swell together into one mighty volume of wonderful harmonies and modulations a third chorus of boys' voices intones *unisono* the plaintive strains of the choral, "O Lamb of God, who on the cross hangst bleeding!" These fresh children's voices soaring above the heavy double chorus and orchestra, with the solemn peals of the organ, produce an effect that will never be forgotten. The concluding chorus of the first part, "O man, bewail thy sins!" and the last of the work, "Around thy tomb," are the most beautiful of the remaining choruses. The short sentences, such as: "Crucify him!" "Hail! King of the Jews!" and, above all, that one word "Barabbas," which is shouted out by the infuriated mob, and which Bach has set to the chord of the diminished seventh spread over several octaves for eight-part choruses, are of indescribable realistic effects.

—Of the solos there are particularly two numbers which at once produce a profound impression, one for alto, "Oh! pardon me, my God," with violin obligato, which Mr. Arnold played with excellent taste and finish. In the whole range of music hardly anything approaches this number in chaste, mournful beauty. The mere technical construction is a marvel of ingenuity, being in reality a composition consisting of three distinct and independent parts, the voice, the violin, and the orchestra, not one of which accompanies the other, in the accepted meaning of the word, but they flow gently along side by side, forming one complete and harmonious whole. The other is a bass aria with violoncello obligato, "Come, blessed cross!" which is also of most touching beauty. One characteristic feature of this great work remains to be mentioned and deserves particular notice—namely, the accompanied recitatives, a style of music which Bach first introduced, and at once brought to a climax of perfection, for no other composer after him, with the exception of Wagner, has even approached him The author of "Lohengrin" and the "Nibelungen," with all the advantages of a hundred and fifty years' progress of the

art and the immense resources of the modern orchestra in his favor, has produced nothing more powerful in dramatic and realistic effects than such recitatives as "Thou dear Redeemer," "The Saviour falls," and, above all, "Ah, Golgotha!" which is one of the most beautiful of the work. The performance was exceedingly good in most respects; the solos only were not in good hands.

—The fifth Philharmonic concert was remarkably harmonious in its programme, which was of a most bright and cheerful character. A beautiful Symphony of Haydn, which, we believe, has not been heard here before, and the quaint humor of which was excellently rendered by Mr. Thomas; Mendelssohn's complete music to "Midsummer-Night's Dream," an ever interesting and ever welcome friend; Schubert's great Symphony in C, the "heavenly song," as Schumann calls it, of which the performance was truly masterly, furnished the evening's entertainment.

—The Chicago Citizens' League for the suppression of the sale of liquors to minors is not only a very commendable, but, to judge from the annual report of the Executive Committee, a very efficient association, which supplements benevolent intentions with a good deal of hard work. When it was formed three years ago it was estimated that there were in Chicago at least 30,000 boys and girls who were habitual frequenters of the "saloons" of the city, of which there were some 3,000; from one-quarter to one-third of the arrests made were of persons under twenty-one years of age; and the State and local ordinances looking to a remedy of such a social condition went unexecuted. Simply to enforce these laws was the end which the Society proposed to itself, and "fair notice" was given to the liquor-sellers of its intention. The result of its labors since then may be briefly told. In 1877 6,818 minors were arrested, an increase of 720 over the previous year. In 1878, the first year of the League's work, the number was 5,400, a decrease of 1,418. The commitments of minors to the Bridewell in 1877 were 1,782; in 1878, 1,571, and in 1879, 1,247, showing a decrease in the two years of 535. Between three and four hundred liquor-sellers have been prosecuted, and between two hundred and fifty and three hundred convicted; two hundred have in consequence either abandoned their business or "removed to other localities"; between four and five hundred residences have been visited in the interest of minors found in the rum-shops, and in only two instances were the visitors received with any other expressions than of gratitude; four "notorious places" have been suppressed. This work cost $3,000 for the two years, and saved from $15,000 to $30,000 annually, it is estimated, in the mere matter of criminal prosecution expenses. Naturally "much yet remains to be done," as the report says, and it reasonably adds that "we feel that we cannot be blamed for asking a more liberal financial support." There could, in fact, hardly be a worthier work.

—A very important paper, containing the results of probably the most careful and extensive examination of the common schools of one community ever made, has just been published as part of the last Annual Report of the State Board of Education of Massachusetts, and is exciting a good deal of comment. The examinations originated with the School Committees' Association of Norfolk County, and were conducted by Mr. George A. Walton, an agent of the State Board. The town of Quincy is in Norfolk, and a year or two ago Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., a member of the school committee of that town, took occasion to criticise somewhat forcibly the methods of instruction which he said he found in use in the common schools. His criticisms were not favorably received by many of the professional educationalists, and the *New England Journal of Education* even went so far as to refer to them as a display of "monumental ignorance." This persistent denial led the county association into an organized effort to get at the real facts in the case. Mr. Walton's examinations were accordingly made, and they present those facts in a way no less striking than indisputable. It very conclusively appears that Mr. Adams was more correctly informed as to existing school methods than the editors of the *Journal*. The condition of affairs revealed by this report is highly instructive, to say the least. Norfolk County, Mass., is largely made up of wealthy suburban towns about Boston. Its schools, therefore, are not likely to be less good than those of other counties in the State. Mr. Walton's examinations covered all the towns in the county, twenty-four in number, in which he laboriously went through some two hundred and twelve schools, containing about five thousand scholars. Of the educational results of the methods in use in these schools we are now able to judge for ourselves, as Mr. Walton's report contains a number of lithographed fac-similes of the scholars' own examination papers as they were handed in. We believe it is safe to say that nothing of the kind or on the same scale has ever been attempted before. The tests, also, were of the simplest and most ordinary description. Confined to reading, writing, and ciphering, they were designed to bring out practical results, and in the fac-similes reproduced these results speak for themselves. It would seem that in a large proportion of the towns the same methods are pursued which were in vogue before Horace Mann instituted any of his reforms. Children are still taught to spell orally, and "the writing in many of the schools is limited to what is done in the copy-books." Accordingly, when called upon to write a simple letter of three or four lines in length, many pupils "gave evidence that they had never been taught even the mechanical part of any composition exercise," while the teachers in other cases "objected to submitting their schools" to the test. In some of the primary schools children who had been there four years "could neither write, nor make the printing letters." Accordingly, out of 1,100 scholars who in composition used the adverb "too," no less than "859, or nearly 77 per cent. of the whole, spelt that word incorrectly." The three words, "whose," "which," and "scholar," were given out for written spelling, and while there are set forth in the report 108 different wrong spellings of "whose," and 58 of "which," there are no less than 221 of "scholar." Nor was it much better in arithmetic, of which Mr. Walton says he saw in a school "the children attempting to recite from memory the rule for finding the greatest common divisor," in place of instinctively going through the elementary mental process.

—Though this was the case in altogether too many of the towns—in a large majority of them, in fact, as would appear from the table of percentages—it was by no means so in all. The names of the towns are not given, but they are represented by letters of the alphabet. One, indicated by the letter C (Quincy), is far ahead of all the others in every department except one; and speaking of the "rational methods of teaching" in use in this town, Mr. Walton quoted from his memorandum-book a note made at the examinations to the effect that he is "struck with the conscientious and thoughtful spirit of the pupils in all the schools." This is a high compliment to Superintendent Parker, the success of whose methods in that town has recently been attracting so much attention. Among the other towns Brookline (T) in its grammar schools, Milton (L) and Hyde Park (U) in their primaries, and Canton (E) in both grades, appear to have shown very good results; all of them ranging above 61 per. cent. The fac-similes, representing the best, the worst, and the average of the four thousand papers examined, fill fifty pages of the report, and are the most valuable portion of it. For the purposes of comparison by other teachers of similar schools elsewhere, they will be of great use. The report is in every respect creditable, and most of all for the fearlessness with which, suppressing nothing, it presents facts which it is right and proper should be known, but which, as Mr. Dickinson, the secretary of the Board, truly says, are "not altogether flattering to the pride of a Massachusetts citizen."

—The question of German orthography is settled, and unsettled. The Prussian Minister of Public Instruction, etc. (his is a varied office for religious, educational, and medical affairs), has sent forth his fiat in the form of a little book: 'Regeln und Wörterverzeichnis für die deutsche Rechtschreibung zum Gebrauch in den preussischen Schulen.' These rules, in general the system of Von Raumer, are henceforth the norm for the Prussian schoolmaster, as well as for all offices and officials in any way connected with the department in question. The new spelling, which regulates a good deal and does not make very radical changes, is to be introduced as rapidly as possible among the children, and no new school-books nor new editions are to be put in use which do not conform to the regulated spelling. The little book in boards (Berlin: Weidmann'sche Buchhandlung) costs only 15 pfennigs (about 4 cents). There is now an official spelling for Prussia, Bavaria, Austria, and Würtemberg, and this recent Prussian decision is far from pleasing to those who were working for orthographic unification. Many are well enough satisfied, and various newspapers have adopted the rules for their offices. Zarncke's *Litterarisches Centralblatt* thinks it gain to have the spelling quarrel confined to four or five circles, instead of being a general quarrel as before. The book-publishers (particularly those at Leipzig) are displeased because the Prussian minister quietly ignored their proposals to have an official consideration of the question in connection with the other German governments, and has, as it were, sprung his spelling upon them after some four hundred and twenty-five printing and publishing firms had united (under the leadership of Breitkopf & Härtel) upon the proposals of Prof. Daniel Sanders, in the hope of getting some such system consistently carried out when they should have taken the initiative.

—Prof. Sanders has now published a new edition of his 'Kurzgefasstes Hilfsbuch der Rechtschreibung für deutsche Schulen' (Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel), in which he notes the principal variations of the several official regulations, besides explaining his compilation for the book-publishers. Like most of his books it is not over-easy to read, but the size is convenient (small 8vo, pp. 76) and the price (75 pfennigs) reasonable. Really serious teachers of German could make these books most useful to their classes. Whoever feels a deeper longing to have his neighbors phonetically reformed should subscribe (2.40 marks annually) to the *Reform: Zeitšrift des algemeinen fereins fūr fereinfahte Deutše reńtšreibung*, which is to be had through J. Kühtmanns's *ferlag* in Bremen. The first number (Jan., 1880) of the 4. *jārgang* explains the purposes and orthography of the *ferein* in a short editorial article: "Vas vīr vollen: Vīr erstreben eine ferbesserte šreibung fūr das ganze folk, niht ein šrift/istēm fūr gelērte zvekke." The chief peculiarities of this system will be clear from these specimens For new converts there is an *algemeiner hauskalender* in the "*ūbergangsortografi*" (*i.e.*, without the new symbol for *ch* or the ʃ for *sch*), containing the stock-material of such books together with a few short stories and verses taken from Göte, Klaudius, Schamisso.

GENERAL HOOD'S MEMOIRS.*

I.

THE death of General Hood and his wife by yellow fever last year, leaving, as they did, a large family of young children orphaned by the bereavement, appealed to the sympathies of us all. It was known that he had in preparation a narrative of his military experiences, and General Beauregard undertook, in behalf of the orphans, the task of seeing the book through the press. The manuscript appears to have been complete, and there is no visible mark of the editor's hand upon the volume, except in the imprint.

It was evidently begun as an answer to the strictures on General Hood's campaign of 1864 in Georgia and Tennessee which General Joseph E. Johnston had made in his 'Narrative,' and probably grew into larger proportions than the author at first intended. Its chapters are naturally divided into three groups, of which the first and shortest contains a sketch of Hood's service in the United States Army before the late war, and in the Confederate Army from 1861 to 1863; the second is his reply to General Johnston; and the third is his narrative of his own command of the Army of Tennessee after he relieved General Johnston. The first part was last written, and was added to the larger and more controversial portions for the purpose of making the whole a sufficiently complete military biography of the author.

No one can read the book without feeling that the author had carried through all the years since the end of the rebellion a deep sense of personal wrong and of unmerited blame. He had been held responsible for the destruction of a great army whose disasters seemed to be the immediate cause of the collapse of the Confederate power. He had freely condemned the cautious strategy of Johnston, and had been entrusted with an army because it was hoped that the energy and enterprise which he believed in might turn the tide that was plainly setting against the fortunes of the Confederacy. It was his boast then, as it was when he wrote his retrospect, that he was of the school of Stonewall Jackson. The memory of his career as a brigade and division commander under Longstreet in the Army of Virginia was the pride of his life; and he could not bear to have it thought that his efforts to carry out the military principles which he adopted by nature and by education had brought defeat to a cause he held dear, and had left him, in the opinion of a large portion of his own party in the contest, only the reputation of a dashing soldier who had unfortunately been given a command of too great responsibility. He is at times passionate in his appeals to his deep conviction that his theory and practice were alike sound, and that he failed only because his weapon had lost its temper in the hands of his predecessor. He vehemently insists that he deserved victory, if he did not achieve it. In this he is partly right, for energy and audacity are so essential to the character of the real soldier that they rarely need apology. It is the Fabian policy which needs to be backed by strong reason if it is to find favor with sound military critics. The vehement and impetuous Hood could not see what it was in 1864 which made the Confederate army incapable of repeating the campaigns of 1862, and which made his march to the rear of Sherman a mere parody of Jackson's successful movement upon Pope's communications at Manassas. He extols Lee at the expense of Johnston, but he fails to see that the same causes which forced the systematic retreat from Dalton to Atlanta were working from the Wilderness to Petersburg. The truth is that the *morale* of both armies had changed. The time had gone by when a raid produced a panic. Lee as well as Johnston learned to keep his forces together, awaiting the inevitable with a courage grounded on despair, however they might try to carry a hopeful front in the presence of their men and of the public. When it was all over, Hardee told the secret to a little group of officers of both sides. He said the buoyant hopes of the Confederates at the beginning had been crushed by the events of the first two years of the war, and, learning the resources of the North and the growth of our armies in discipline and experience, Southern military men of real judgment saw that the destruction of the smaller forces of the South was only a question of time.

It was not Hood's nature to comprehend this. He blamed his subordinates, he blamed his army, and chafed because his troops did not charge Howard's corps on Lick-skillet road near Atlanta, as he had charged Porter's at Gaines's Mills. He tells us with evident soreness that when Jefferson Davis visited the army some of the troops cried out, "Give us back Johnston." He had told before, with as evident pleasure, that when he was in arrest before the battle of South Mountain, his division had shouted to Lee, "Give us Hood." He thinks the difference was due to the different training of the armies, but he is mistaken. It was due to the fact that the period of confidence had gone by, when the rank and file sympathized with the hopes of their leaders that a short and dashing war would make secession an accomplished fact. While that faith lasted they were ready to pay with their lives for the chance of victory; but two years later they, too, had lost their illusions, and knew that the only real hope of their cause lay in economy of life and resources till foreign intervention might possibly come to turn the scale in their favor. An assault upon breastworks was now a useless slaughter, and knowing this, they hung back. Hood, himself, was one of the few literally willing to die in the last ditch. His energy and courage were unfaltering; his career in subordinate places had been one of the most brilliant; and so, when Johnston's slow retreat had carried him at last over the Chattahoochee, and there must be either change of policy or confession of failure, it was the natural thing that Hood should be entrusted with the command, when his name alone was a guaranty that what dash and vigor could do would now be done. It was a political necessity.

This would have been generally admitted and acquiesced in had not the personal relations of the two generals been involved in the discussion. Hood had evidently been a pretty free critic of Johnston's policy. His friends at Richmond knew what he thought of it. He had been prodding his commander with frequent suggestions of attack. Johnston, therefore, regarded the order relieving him as the result of such criticism, if not of intrigue, and it is plain that the corps commanders at first thought so too. We can now see that Hood did nothing intentionally wrong, but the change of commanders was an inevitable cause of irritation. The official report of each was a criticism on the other; their friends ranged themselves in parties, and a long and earnest controversy has been the result.

In Hood's mind the question was whether troops should be allowed to fight behind breastworks; and he makes his own case depend largely on the answer. He, of course, insists that the practice breaks down the energy and spirit of the men, makes them timid in attack and slow in field manœuvres. His answer is the one which nine out of ten of all educated military men would have given at the beginning of the war. He quotes Sherman as giving this reason for not entrenching our army at Shiloh. But Sherman's army afterwards became the greatest diggers of ditches since Julius Cæsar, and also used their legs as well as the Romans. This failure to understand the change marks the point at which Hood lacks the highest ability as a general. He is wedded so strongly to opinions based on European warfare that he seems not to have learned that the character of the *terrain*, the physical features of the country, impose special conditions on the strategist. He had not the intellectual force to master the changes of handling made necessary by the topographical conditions of the field. He says Stonewall Jackson did not entrench; but he overlooks the fact that the old railway embankment and cut above Groveton were used by Jackson just as if he had made them on purpose, and that the field on which he awaited Longstreet's coming through Thoroughfare Gap was chosen because of this excellent and ready-made line of defence. The invention of long-range arms of precision, taken in connection with the thickly-wooded face of the country, makes the military problem a struggle to make your opponent attack you in entrenched lines. Jackson's campaign just mentioned covered the whole

* 'Advance and Retreat. Personal Experiences in the United States and Confederate States Armies. By J. B. Hood, Lieutenant-General in the Confederate Army.' Published for the Hood Orphan Memorial Fund, New Orleans. 8vo, pp. 353.

case, and, rightly considered, should have taught Hood the value of the policy he denounced. Jackson's general strategic movements were large and aggressive, but his field of battle was selected for a defensive fight, and his opponent was made to bear the cost of attacking in front an almost impregnable position. The aggressive was resumed by the combined Confederate army when our troops were weakened and disheartened by the failure of their assaults on what was really a fortified position.

Hood's argument does not show any lack of cogency in the doctrine thus presented, and which is the same that was urged in these columns in reviewing General Johnston's 'Narrative.' He gives us the testimony of several officers to support his position, but the facts are stronger than their opinion. He feels the force of the answer, "You yourself tried it and failed," and is obliged to fall back upon the assertion that his troops had been demoralized by the policy of General Johnston. The facts do not seem to sustain him here. Stewart's corps attacked Hooker's with great vigor at Peach-Tree Creek the very day Hood assumed command, and no one who was on the field two days after, when McPherson was killed, will question the determination and courage of the assault that was made upon the left of the Union army. It was after this that the remarkable falling off in the aggressive force of his blows occurred, and the common opinion appears to be the better one, that the men in the line felt that the slaughter was without compensatory results and refused obedience when ordered to attack.

Hood held his opinion conscientiously, however, and as public opinion within the Confederacy demanded a change from Johnston's methods, no fitter man than he could have been found to make it. To be quite fair in our criticism we must assume that a vigorous aggressive was now to be adopted, and ask whether his plans were well conceived for that end. From this point of view he does not suffer by a careful examination. His attack at Peach-Tree was to be made by two of his three corps, on a part only of the Army of the Cumberland, which was somewhat isolated by crossing the deep and muddy stream. If he was to attack at all, he could hardly have had a better opportunity or have seized it more promptly. It failed, as he says, because Hardee was slow in making his part of the combined movement. As it was, it resulted in a fierce combat between two army corps, one on each side; and as Gen. Thomas was at the critical point in person and had two other corps under his command, it is safe to assume that Hardee's arrival would not greatly have changed results, except in the lists of casualties. What it proved was, that Sherman's superior numbers enabled him to have at least an equal force of equally good soldiers at any point of attack; and these could take care of themselves till they could be reinforced to overwhelming superiority.

Hood's second aggressive movement was on the 22d of July, 1864, a day made sadly memorable by the death of McPherson. Like the preceding, its plan consisted in combining the attacks of two of his three corps upon one-third of the Union army. Hardee's corps was ordered to move south of Atlanta, then eastward toward Decatur till he should turn the left flank of McPherson, whom he was to attack, the sound of his guns being the signal for Cheatham to second his effort. Hood complains that Hardee did not reach the extreme flank, and that he was slow in his movement. In this he appears to be unjust to his subordinate. He quotes from Gen. Blair, who commanded the 17th corps of our army, and who wrote, in 1875, a letter giving some new details of the engagement. Gen. Blair's letter distinctly refutes the statement that Hardee did not reach the flank, saying:

"I became aware of the fact that my whole position had been turned, and that the enemy were pressing with full force upon the *rear and flank* of my position. . . . I was only able to reach the line by making a détour to the right, and reached it at a point where it joined the 15th corps, to find the whole of my line fighting *from the reverse of my entrenchments*" (p. 188).

This ought to settle the point, and proves that any greater détour by Hardee would have been a waste of time and of the strength of his troops. His failure was due to the fact that he met veteran troops who were not disturbed at finding an enemy in the rear, but who could and would fight an equal force "from the reverse of the entrenchments." This gave time for support. A division of the 16th corps, in reserve, moved quickly to Blair's left, and Sherman sent at once the 3d division of the 23d corps from the Army of the Ohio, which went still further eastward, covering the extreme flank and rear by brigades in *échelon*. The line of strong entrenchments which Hood had occupied the day before was within Sherman's lines, and nearly at a right angle to that on which Logan fought after he succeeded McPherson. It is entirely safe to say that had Hardee been strong enough to double up that flank it could have resulted in nothing worse, under the disposition of troops described, than the swinging back of that wing into the line of rebel works ready prepared for use, which, being done on interior lines and under cover of Schofield's corps, which had not been engaged, would have caused a complete separation of Hood's army into two parts, with only one corps in Atlanta to resist an assault by Thomas's three.

If, however, the aggressive was necessary for the Confederates, it could not have been better planned or more courageously executed. The fault was not in Hood's method, nor in Hardee's execution; it was in the adoption of the aggressive policy as a desperate remedy for a desperate political situation. Hood asked too much from his army when he asked them to forget the fact that they had been beaten back even after they had made our men fight on the wrong side of the breastworks. It was not in human nature to continue making charges upon the front of lines so held, and the general is at too decided a disadvantage when he argues that it was right for purely military reasons.

GOULD'S ARGENTINE URANOMETRY.*

THIS is the first publication of the National Observatory of the Argentine Republic, which was founded in 1870 by Dr. Gould, formerly Director of the Dudley Observatory at Albany. The embargo due to the Franco-Prussian war and other causes delayed the arrival of his astronomical instruments at Cordoba, and the interval of waiting was well utilized by Dr. Gould and his four American assistants—Messrs. Rock, Thome, Davis, and Hathaway—in the formation of a complete uranometry of the southern heavens and of the southern 10° of the other hemisphere, on the plan and scale of Argelander's celebrated 'Uranometria Nova,' published at Bonn in 1843. The scale of magnitudes was made identical with Argelander's by the adoption of a series of standard stars in a type-belt so chosen that the stars within it should have nearly the same altitude at Bonn and at Cordoba. Seven hundred and twenty-two stars in this belt were chosen as standards, and others near the south pole (and thus always visible) were also selected for the same purpose. The scale of Argelander (which calls the faintest star visible to the naked eye 6.0 magnitude) was extended so as to include the faintest stars visible at Cordoba, which were found to be about 7.0 or 7.1 of Argelander's scale, owing to the greater transparency of the sky at Dr. Gould's station. The standards were evidently closely adhered to, for the statistical tables show by a comparison of the magnitudes of all the stars common to both Uranometries that the mean discrepancy is considerably less than $0^m.1$.

The stars visible to the naked eye were first carefully plotted, and their magnitudes were then determined by a comparison with those of the type-belt. These comparisons were made by the aid of an opera-glass or a telescope, and each region was examined by different observers. Their results agree in a surprising manner. For all of the stars of the sixth magnitude, for example, the excess of the estimates of each observer over the mean of the estimates of all observers is given in the following extract from one of Dr. Gould's tables:

Mr. Rock made sixth magnitude stars too *bright* by $0^m.004$ from 41 observations.
Mr. Thome made them too faint by $0^m.019$ from 57 observations.
Mr. Davis made them too bright by $0^m.018$ from 50 observations.
Mr. Hathaway made them too faint by 0^m 003 from 51 observations.

The *average deviation* of each observer from his own standard (that is, the arithmetical mean of all the discordances) is, for 6.0 mag. stars, for Mr. Rock $0^m.050$; for Mr. Thome $0^m.078$; for Mr. Davis $0^m.086$; for Mr. Hathaway $0^m.070$.

The space examined covers about $\frac{1}{10}$ of the whole sky. Within it 10,649 stars were visible under the best circumstances, and of these 10,000 stars over 46,000 observations were made, or over $4\frac{1}{2}$ for each star. In the course of this enumeration many variable stars were discovered, and some of these received special attention. Besides the ordinary methods of observing magnitudes, sequences were observed in the manner of the Herschels, and from an examination of all the data Dr. Gould declares it to be his firm conviction that of all the stars down to the 7.0 magnitude inclusive, at least one-half are variable. Procyon and Altair are included among those slightly variable. 8,198 stars of the 7.0 magnitude and brighter are recorded in the 'Uranometria Argentina'; 2,451 fainter have been observed, but they are excluded. The 'Uranometria Nova' con-

* 'Uranometria Argentina. Brightness and position of every fixed star down to the seventh magnitude within one hundred degrees of the South Pole. By Benjamin Apthorp Gould. With an atlas. Quarto, pp. 387, and large atlas of 14 sheets. Buenos Aires: Printed by Paul Emile Coni. 1879.

tains 3,256 stars visible in the whole sky, or 2,384 in the northern hemisphere alone. Dr. Gould's results give 6,694 southern stars, or nearly three times as many southern stars as northern according to Argelander. This shows strikingly what has long been known in a general way, that the southern heavens are far richer in the stars visible to the naked eye, though not specially so in the brightest classes of these stars.

The catalogue and the atlas which supplements the book will be found to fill every want of the practical astronomer.* Copious notes are given in regard to special stars. A very important and difficult portion of Dr. Gould's work has been the complete revision of the boundaries of the constellations of the southern sky, which were in a lamentable state of confusion. Bayer (1603) originally made the southern constellations from descriptions given him by navigators; Lacaille and Halley added and revised, and since their day the only element of order introduced has been by the British Association Catalogue of Baily, whose division was in many respects arbitrary and provisional only. Sir John Herschel, in 1834, declared his belief in the necessity of a complete and entire revision, and this was a problem to be attacked by any complete and satisfactory southern uranometry. Dr. Gould has apparently solved this problem completely, and his new boundaries of the southern constellations will, no doubt, be accepted with gratitude by those who have to use the southern stars. He has made the radical change of altogether throwing away the fantastic boundaries which were derived from the supposed resemblances of the configurations of the stars to the forms of animals, etc., and has substituted for these geometrical boundaries which are easily memorized, and are always definite and certain. Although the changes appear to be and are most marked, yet the revision has been done in so careful a manner that but *seven* stars of the 'Uranometria Nova' receive different names in the 'Uranometria Argentina,' and of these seven no one is as bright as the fifth magnitude.

The most generally interesting portion of Dr. Gould's work is the last section, where he gives the conclusions he has reached as to the situation and shape of the cluster of stars to which our solar system belongs. He says: "The results may be briefly summed up as follows:

"There is in the sky a girdle of bright stars [from 1st to 4th magnitudes] the medial line of which is nearly a great circle inclined to the Milky Way by about 20°.

"The grouping of the fixed stars brighter than 4.1 mag. is more symmetric relative to that medial line than to the galactic circle.

"These facts, together with others, indicate the existence of a small cluster within which our system is eccentrically situated, but which is itself not far from the middle plane of the galaxy.

"This cluster appears to be of a flattened shape, somewhat bifid, and to consist of somewhat more than four hundred stars of magnitudes from 1 to 7, their average magnitude being about 3.6."

The Milky Way has been also most carefully studied, and measures of great value are here given. We have only space enough to quote one of the final conclusions of Dr. Gould in regard to it: "There are indications that the whole phenomenon of the Milky Way may become simplified by treating it as the resultant of two or more superposed galaxies."

It has been difficult within moderate limits to give an adequate idea of the character of the results reached and of the nature and extent of the work done. Enough has been said, however, to show that this most important work will take its place with the best researches of the same class, and that our knowledge of the southern hemisphere is increased by the advent of a classic which will take its place along with those of Lacaille, Taylor, and Herschel. It could not have been accomplished without the most hearty co-operation of Dr. Gould and his assistants with the authorities and people of the country, and it is a gratifying sign of advancement to see such a work issue from the city of Cordoba, whose intellectual standard has until recently been almost that of the middle ages.

BURTON'S REIGN OF QUEEN ANNE.†

II. LITERATURE AND POLITICS.

"WHERE, I have often wondered," writes Thackeray, "were the sons of peers and members of Parliament in Anne's . . . time? Were they all in the army, or hunting in the country, or boxing the watch? How was it that the young gentlemen from the University got such a prodigious number of places? A lad composed a neat copy of verses at Christ-church or Trinity, in which the death of a great personage was bemoaned, the French King assailed, the Dutch or Prince Eugene complimented, or the reverse; and the party in power was presently to provide for the young poet; and a commissionership, or a post in the Stamps, or the secretaryship of an embassy, or a clerkship in the Treasury came into the bard's possession. A wonderful fruit-bearing rod was that of Busby's. What have men of letters got in *our* time? Think, not only of Swift, a king fit to rule in any time an empire, but Addison, Steele, Prior, Tickell, Congreve, John Gay, John Dennis, and many others who got public employment, and pretty little pickings out of the public purse. The wits . . . all touched the king's coin, and had at some period of their lives a happy quarter-day coming round for them."

Thackeray, it is said, intended to write the history of Queen Anne's reign. He proves by the passage just cited that he had grasped one of the most striking, and also one of the most perplexing, characteristics of that era. It was the one short period in which an English man of letters could boast with truth—

> "Above a patron, tho' I condescend
> Sometimes to call a minister my friend";

for these lines, which sound to modern ears the utterance of vanity, are the simple statement of undoubted fact. They describe, writes one of the most acute and learned of modern critics, "the relations which had been established between the wits and the politicians in the reign of Queen Anne. The writers and wits had raised themselves to equal consideration with the statesmen in a way which had never been seen before in England." Two circumstances will, to reflective readers, add considerably to the wonder and interest which the fact of the influence exerted for a time by literary politicians is calculated to excite. The first of these circumstances is that the political power of literature lasted but for a few years. At the time when Pope published his Satires (1735) it was already a thing of the past, yet at first sight one might have expected that the wits and men of letters would have been well able to hold and even to extend their political sway. For it may safely be assumed that every year since the opening of the eighteenth century has added to the number of Englishmen who read and are influenced by what they read; and if we take another test, and consider that the position of a craft is to be estimated by the gains of the craftsmen, we should not hesitate to assert that the literary world is at least tenfold as flourishing in the days of Victoria as it was in those of Anne. Still, whatever be the cause, the fact is that at no period since the time of which Mr. Burton writes have men of letters played the part in English public life which they played at the time when Swift, Addison, and Steele were powers in the state.

The second of the circumstances which makes this temporary influence of literature worth careful examination is the curious parallel and contrast which it suggests between the course of public life in France and the course of public life in England. In each country revolutionary movements opened the field of statesmanship to writers. The prominent position which men of letters have occupied in France is one of the most patent phenomena of modern history. There is no difficulty in pointing to men who might with perfect propriety have applied to themselves the sentiment of Pope. The self-assertion, indeed, of the English satirist falls short of the claims which French publicists might have reasonably made at different periods since the outbreak of the Revolution. For men of letters have in France been themselves the leading statesmen of their country. Courier and Armand Carrel exerted in their day a power at least as great as that wielded by Swift. Journalists instigated the resistance to Charles X. Guizot was an historian and a professor before he became the most powerful of Louis Philippe's ministers. Thiers made his reputation by his pen. The reign of Louis Philippe was a long struggle between the king and the press, and the press gained the victory. The writers and editors of popular newspapers organized the revolution of 1848. The head of the provisional government, who for a short time was morally the absolute ruler of France, was thrust into power because of his fame as a poet and an historian. The Empire, indeed, made war on literature, but the wits carried on for eighteen years a not unequal war even with the master of thirty legions. The *Coup d'État* was revenged when the Imperial throne shook under the sarcasms of Rochefort, and when the violent death of a second-rate journalist threatened to bring on an insurrection. Nor is it only in the storms of revolutionary movement that writers have held their own in French politics. Success in political speculation opened to De Tocqueville the not very suitable field of public life. Lanfrey, without political connections, became a diplomatist and a senator, and the career of Littré shows that literary achievements which do not appeal to political passion are acknowledged in France as valid claims to an honorable share in public life.

The political influence of letters at the beginning of the eighteenth century is, whether we consider its singularity in the history of England

* It was probably impracticable under the circumstances to reduce the size of the atlas sheets, which are perhaps inconveniently large.

† 'A History of the Reign of Queen Anne. By John Hill Burton, D.C.L.' 3 vols. Wm. Blackwood & Sons; New York: Scribner & Welford.

or the comparison which it suggests with the circumstances of modern France, a matter well worth the attention of every historical student. What were the causes which gave the authors of a particular era a position unlike that held by their literary successors in later times? How, again, did it happen that the wits and men of letters, having conquered a footing in the forefront of public life, could not permanently maintain the place they had gained?

Mr. Burton excels rather in narrative than in criticism, but the facts in which his work abounds suggest partial answers to the foregoing enquiries. The language used by Swift and his contemporaries is to modern ears often savage enough, but one must always remember that compared with the armed contests which the generation of Queen Anne knew by memory or by immediate tradition her reign seemed a period of peaceful humanity. It was a time when the clash of arms was sufficiently far removed to let the voice of literature be heard. It was also an era still alive with political passion. Such a period is exactly one in which thoughts or ideas exert or seem to exert a far greater influence over the nation, and therefore in politics, than in an age in which men do not feel strongly moved by political sentiments or principles, and are obviously influenced mainly by considerations of interest. Literature, further, had for the first time found a form suitable for addressing laymen of ordinary sense and education. Every writer, whatever his party, who exerted any influence at all, had the merit of clearness. Of Swift, Pope, Addison, and De Foe it might with truth be asserted that none of them ever wrote a line which a fairly-educated Englishman could fail to understand. Such clearness may imply want of profundity, and certainly is fatal to every attempt to reason with technical precision. It is, however, a quality which is certain, especially when it is a novelty, to increase the influence of writers amongst a public who are educated enough to read and to speculate, and are not anxious to go very deep in their speculations. It was exactly to such a public that the wits of Queen Anne's time addressed themselves. They wrote in the main for the "town" and those whom the feelings of the town influenced. The "town"—that is, London—must have had a kind of power and prestige far greater than the capital has exerted at other periods. It is quite impossible to read, for example, either Pope's satires or the *Spectator* without seeing that the town had or was supposed to have a kind of importance which it would be natural enough in the present day, and still more fifty years ago, to ascribe to Paris, but which one would hardly attribute to London. In truth, the position of affairs in England at the beginning of the eighteenth century resembled the state of things in modern France. In each case you have a period in which revolutionary passions are gradually dying out. In each you have a public still capable of being stirred by political ideas expressed in a telling literary form. In each you have literary men appealing to the sentiment of the town. In each you have statesmen inclined to rate at above its full worth the opinion of the capital, and of the wits who hold sway there. In each case, therefore, exist many of the conditions which make success in literature a road to eminence in public life.

To understand why it was that men of letters stood in the peculiar relation to politicians which they held under Queen Anne helps one to explain why this relation was short-lived. "It was," as Mr. Pattison writes, "unnatural. The inauguration of Parliamentary government and systematic corruption by Walpole destroyed the influence for which the wits had been courted." This sentence, if properly understood, contains the answer to our enquiry. Neither parliamentary government nor corruption is of itself fatal to the political influence of literature. Electors who admire literary eminence will send up men of letters to Parliament. The States-General of 1789 and the National Assembly of 1848 were filled with the eminent men of France. It was as easy to bribe scribblers as squires, and Walpole would have given guineas from the Treasury as readily to writers as to landowners if he had found the support of literature as valuable as the support of country gentlemen or traders. But Parliamentary government has with many defects the great merit (if representation be anything better than a sham) of showing a capable statesman what are the really powerful influences in the country. A man of less clear insight than Walpole must soon, under a Parliamentary régime, have detected that the power of the wits had been a good deal overrated. The ideas or passions to which literature appeals have never in England had anything like the permanent influence exerted by interests. The town, it is true, might be ruled by the wits, but the town was soon felt not to be the nation. Solid tradesmen and rich squires were after all, like Walpole himself, not much given to reading, and were guarded both by stupidity and by common sense from being unduly swayed by satires or epigrams. Parliamentary government destroyed the rule of the wits, because it made manifest the fact that the public were at bottom but little influenced by literature, and that the opinion of the town was not necessarily the sentiment of the country. Predictions are dangerous, but there is some temptation to prophesy that in France, as in England, genuine parliamentary government will increase the weight of the country proprietors who think mainly of their material prosperity, will prove to statesmen that Paris is not France, and put an end to the rule of the men of letters who have governed France because they excited the admiration of Paris.

RECENT NOVELS.*

NINE out of ten archæological novels being mistakes in either science or art, and often in both, 'Uarda' is an agreeable surprise. It is written by one of the first Egyptologists living, who enjoys the unusual advantage of being at the same time a good deal of a poet. The story is a description of Egyptian life in the time of Rameses II., of which the various records are numerous enough to permit the private life "even of individuals," as the author says in his preface, to be studied; and though the historical portion is founded upon Herodotus, Dr. Ebers expressly asserts that his book is "a poetic fiction." The hero is a priest of the House of Seti. The action is based upon an attempt of the priesthood to gain ascendency over the king, or, failing in that, to aid the Regent to usurp the throne while Rameses is pursuing an Asian campaign. To this end the king's daughter, Bent-Anat, for visiting Uarda, an outcast whom she has accidentally run over, is declared unclean and excommunicated. The hero, Pentaur, sympathizing with her humanity, shares her disgrace to a certain degree and is sent to a distant college. His scholars, led by the king's son, Rameri, revolt, with the result that Rameri is expelled and Pentaur sent to the mines. Bent-Anat discovers the treason contemplated by the Regent, and with Rameri and Pentaur, escaped from the mines, joins Rameses in Asia. After a great victory Rameses returns to Egypt in time to frustrate the Regent's designs. Pentaur marries Bent-Anat, and Rameri, Uarda, who proves to be the daughter of a Greek princess. This a bold outline of a story whose interest is very great, and which is by turns tender and tragic, graceful and exalted. The author has on the one hand "introduced nothing as proper to Egypt and to the period of Rameses that cannot be proved by some authority," he says, and on the other he has made his characters and their circumstances as real and vivid as if they were contemporaries; in his own words, again: "Real men, such as we see around us in actual life, not silhouettes constructed to the old priestly scale, such as the monuments show us—real living men dwelt by the old Nile stream; and the poet who would represent them must courageously seize on types out of the daily life of modern men that surround him." This is undoubtedly a necessity if an archaic novel is to be effective, but it is usually a perilous one, which only a thorough scholar, perhaps, can be trusted to do. One's trust in Dr. Ebers, however, in this regard may be implicit, we suppose. And beside 'Uarda' such archaic fiction as Bulwer's is very wooden. The reader will get a better idea of the House of Seti, the college of priests, with its various schools of learning, than he is likely to possess of the German universities, for example; and the suggestions of comparative history are numerous and valuable. The book emphasizes the truth that, however strange and often apparently degrading the religious life of a people as shown by existing records may be, no great civilization has ever been built on insignificant foundations. To say that it is a book to be owned is to give any novel high praise, but we think 'Uarda' deserves it.

Like his last book, Mr. James's 'Confidence' is a study rather than a story, and what demerits it has arise from the necessity—urgent, we suppose—of presenting it as a story instead of as a study. The probability of his situation being taken for granted, almost everything else follows naturally, and is captivating reading. But if the reader has no difficulty in esteeming perfectly natural the conduct of a fastidiously honorable man in instituting a kind of spiritual clinic in the case of a young woman, at the instance and for the benefit of a sensitively honorable man who is in love with her, and in concealing from this "curious impertinent"—by

* 'Uarda: A Romance of Ancient Egypt. By George Ebers. From the German by Clara Bell.' In two volumes. New York: William S. Gottsberger. 1880.
'Confidence. By Henry James, jr.' Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1880.
'A Stroke of Diplomacy. By Victor Cherbuliez.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880.
'Golden Rod: An Idyl of Mount Desert.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1880.
'Hal: The Story of a Clodhopper. By W. M. F. Round.' Boston: Lee & Shepard; New York: Charles T. Dillingham. 1880.
'Moths. By Ouida.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1880.

the way, the scheme is not unlike that of the 'Don Quixote' story modernized—the fact that he has already met the subject of his diagnosis; no difficulty in reconciling the said young woman's conscious share in the transaction with her character as it is portrayed; and none in accepting the sundry apparent incongruities that arise out of all this, he will, we suspect, be more fortunate than Mr. James himself has been. There is on various accounts so little inherent likelihood in even a modified and modernized story of Lothario, peopled with everyday characters whose respect for conventions amounts to a code of morals, such as all Mr. James's best people have been of recent years, that a good deal of the author's cleverness, which we could wish to see otherwise employed, is expended in bolstering his scheme, and with, at the best, but doubtful success. In the case of a purely romantic writer this would make little difference. A purely romantic writer has a dispensation from being anything but entertaining. But verisimilitude is the *sine quâ non* of realism, and however imaginative his method may be, Mr. James has been wholly given over to realism ever since he wrote his 'Roderick Hudson.' Apart from its structure, 'Confidence' is remarkably good, however. The characters are very much alive, very individual, and, if we except the somewhat stolid and ridiculous Wright, very interesting. The best of the lot, to our mind, is the chattering and absurd Blanche, whom it is a very nice touch to bring out so well at the end. The details, it need not be said, are very well done. Indeed, with Mr. James the details are apt to count fully as largely as the main thing. Blanche's monologues are exquisite, and from them and certain subtle chess-playing with intricate motives, so to speak, one gets not only the entertainment which a good thing of the kind always affords, but an intimate pleasure in recognizing their life-likeness and relations to the talk and actions of "people we have met." One's only regret is that 'Confidence' should be more closely related to the 'Daisy Miller' series than to 'The American,' or even 'The Europeans.'

Entertainment, pure and simple, is what M. Cherbuliez provides for his readers in 'A Stroke of Diplomacy' (of which the original title is 'Le Roi Apépi'), and though it is only a novelette, and of very slight pretensions, it is nevertheless thoroughly characteristic. It may be briefly described as the Fotheringay episode in 'Pendennis' done into French. It is, of course, admirable in point of workmanship, and reads itself from cover to cover. There is no writer of fiction that we now recall from whom one can come so near obtaining that ideal of the novel-reader, the maximum of amusement with the minimum of effort, as from Cherbuliez. Every detail of his work is refined and polished to the last degree, distinctly to that end; and surplusage being rigorously rejected, the positive seductiveness whose secret that genial cynicism known as Gallic wit alone possesses is with him unusually potent. You do not want to read one of his books more than once, but you want to read it aloud. In this sketch, as usual, there is no great amount or great subtlety of character portrayal; the personages are types often enough used by the French romantic writers; but, after the romantic writer's privilege, they are generalizations that afford all sorts of possibilities which are forbidden to students of "the human documents," and which, in the hands of so vivacious and inventive a romancer as Cherbuliez, are very agreeably managed.

'Golden Rod' is a lively little story of the kind known, we believe, as "society stories." That is to say, the principal personages meet at a Patriarch's ball at Delmonico's and continue their acquaintance at Bar Harbor, surrounded by minor characters from the best circles of New York, and the incidents and colloquy are designed to reflect much of the "local color" of Fifth Avenue. The author's success is not, perhaps, sufficient proof that American novelists who find the material of American life somewhat less varied and picturesque than that of a monarchical society are unwise as well as unpatriotic. But it is hardly a fair test, because much less care is expended upon securing local color than upon getting a general effect. However beautiful American women may be, a "Dian-like poise of the head" and so on cannot be said to be a distinguishing characteristic of them; neither is there anything peculiarly national about a man with "rich coloring and sweeping dark mustache under the bold curve of his wide-awake hat." These are elements common to most novels of a certain order written under whatever skies, and they belong to novels rather than to real life anywhere, of course. And it does not much better the matter to put into the narrative actual characters of the author's acquaintance, unless they have some distinguishing trait, or descriptions of New York Bay and allusions to Point Judith and Nantucket Shoals. This is not precisely the way in which "local color" is obtained. But any one who likes another recital of "the old story"—and there are many who like nothing so well—will find 'Golden Rod' none the worse for its allusions to the whirl of metropolitan fashion and watering-place gayety, and, since it is written in a sprightly manner and has plain indications where to skip, amusing enough to finish if once begun.

Except for the humor with which one of its characters, Silas Toadvine by name, is unaccountably portrayed, 'Hal' might be set down as a nonsense book in the disguise of a novel.

The kind of novel which is turned out of Ouida's factory is tolerably well known, and probably appreciated upon the whole with sufficient exactness by all properly brought-up persons. But its prominent qualities are so odorous and in such bad taste as to obscure and prevent the recognition of certain others which do, however, complicate the case, and make Ouida a literary problem of some interest and a good deal of intricacy. In her two latest books these good qualities are so subordinated, to be sure, as to render any one content with an ultra-Puritanic judgment of her; and her recently-assumed attitude as the castigator of modern society for its shams and sins hardly deserves more comment than her old one of a protestant against society in general and as such. But in one respect 'Moths' is a unique book: we do not remember any novel in the catalogue of fiction that has a tenor for its hero. It is notorious that on the operatic stage the tenor excites the enthusiasm of impressionable young persons who have a way of associating his personality with *Faust* or *Manrico* until the two become inextricable. In private life he is no doubt an estimable person, and it is probably only in the imaginations of their senders that he is supposed to subsist entirely on billets-doux and bouquets. But it is not likely that among his varied gifts he has, as a rule, the faculty of playing Mentor to a young woman, warning her against her wicked mamma, advising her to keep herself "unspotted from the world," fighting her husband because he neglects her, and making love to her only when she has been unrighteously divorced. Corrèze, it is to be said however, is not an ordinary tenor; he sustains with perfect ease what would generally be regarded as the enormous strain of conducting himself when off the stage with the same lofty ideality that characterizes his behavior in tights and before the foot-lights. After he meets Vere, grand-duchesses throw themselves at his feet in vain; he oozes exalted didacticism in the intervals of singing the highest order of music; and if it were not for his almost holy devotion, we feel instinctively, Vere would be in great peril among the gins and pitfalls of the world; as it is she comes out unscathed though divorced, and safe in his arms though bereft of public respect. The story has a very pretty moral, it will be seen, but it is not a new one with Ouida. Where she has succeeded in getting off the beaten track is in her selection of a hero, as we say; to substitute for the stock buccaneer, brigand, smuggler, highwayman, or what not, which have served Bulwer, Harrison Ainsworth, and others so repeatedly that their interest is grown musty, such a star hero as a tenor was a triumphant thought. All the same we cannot recommend 'Moths' to any but the most persistent novel-reader; for all its meretriciousness it is horribly tiresome.

Reminiscences of Old John Brown, etc., to which is added a review, by Hon. Eli Thayer, of Massachusetts. By G. W. Brown, M.D. (Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1880.)—"No man," said Gerrit Smith in 1858, "no man out of Kansas has done so much as Eli Thayer to save her; and no man in Kansas as John Brown—Old John Brown, the fighter. Kansas owes her salvation to no party—to no speeches and no votes either in Congress or elsewhere. She owes it to her ample preparations to repel by physical force the aggressions of slavery." So far is the pamphlet before us from seeking to corroborate this opinion, that it really consists of a violent attack on John Brown's character for humanity, veracity, and usefulness to the cause of freedom in Kansas; and Mr. Thayer's so called "review" is as judicial a summing-up as might be expected from the epithets "narrow and bigoted," "ignorant and deceptive," "ferocious and malignant," which are applied at the outset to the Man of our Second of December. "The Truth at Last: History Corrected," is the running-title of this disorderly bundle of letters; and any one who remembers how difficult it was in the Kansas days to ascertain what actually occurred in that luckless Territory, would be disposed to welcome a sober attempt to state the facts as they were. The author, however, begins with a very positive reminiscence to this effect, that "some time in August, of 1855, the proceedings of an 'Ultra Abolitionist' convention, held somewhere in Central New York, were first published in the *Anti-Slavery Standard*"; that Gerrit Smith presided and "presented to John Brown, in open session, seven voltaic repeaters, seven broadswords, seven muskets with bayonets, and a purse of gold," and bade him take them to Kansas and

with his seven sons give good account of them. This has a highly apocryphal sound, and we have taken pains to search the *Standard* files for the report in question, but without avail. We did, nevertheless, meet with the following passage in a Kansas letter to that paper, the Brown referred to being the writer of the pamphlet before us, and the italics the correspondent's own:

"It is currently [Jan. 14, 1855] reported that he [Robinson] and Brown of the *Herald of Freedom* are *opposed* to the *present agitation of the subject of slavery*, for fear of its injuring the pecuniary prospects of the Territory."

On the other hand, we read on pp. 235–6 of Frothingham's 'Life of Gerrit Smith':

"In 1855 Brown attended an anti-slavery meeting in Syracuse, presented the cause of the Kansas emigrants, described their hardships and dangers, and asked for aid to relieve their sufferings and supply them with means of resistance to the ruffians who assailed them. Lewis Tappan and S. J. May approved of sending relief to the sufferers, but opposed gifts of money to be spent for arms. Smith in the meeting concurred with them, and it was stipulated that a portion of the money raised should be used for charitable purposes alone."

This is undoubtedly the occasion Dr. Brown had in mind, and it is clear that when he undertakes to "correct history" he should be reminded of the maxim, "Physician, heal thyself." The "voltaic repeaters" and the "broadswords" make a great figure in this pamphlet, and the latter fully account for the alleged mutilation of the victims of the "Pottawotomie massacre"—a mutilation which evidently occurred in the midnight cutting-down, and was not deliberate and wanton disfigurement of the dead or dying; not a particle of proof to the contrary is here adduced. For the rest, it appears certain that John Brown was present at the massacre, and quite possible that he had a hand in it. Our opinion about the morality of his action will depend on various considerations, the first of which is that the attack on the settlers along the Pottawotomie was an incident of war, and was defensive or retaliatory. John Brown had the merit, denied to his namesake, of seeing that slaveholding aggressiveness had reached the point where it must be met by retaliation in kind, given no quarter, and allowed no rest. We have no desire to belittle the efforts of the editor of the *Herald of Freedom*, with all his concession to the colorphobia of the Western immigrants, in the struggle to keep slavery out of Kansas; but as between the Northern men seeking mainly to outvote and those more anxious to outfight the vanguard of the Army of Virginia, we believe the latter had the inspired vision, and that John Brown will continue to be remembered with admiration, not only in spite of much friendly exaggeration and misrepresentation, but also of George Brown's "correction of history."

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 1, 1880.

The Week.

THE apparently stern determination with which both sides in Congress have managed during the present session to avoid exciting-topics of discussion, as illustrated by the remorseless and uncompromising manner in which the Speaker has suppressed Mr. Weaver, the Greenback apostle, gratifies a large portion of the public, but it is not by any means a sign of healthy politics. Were the two parties divided by real questions, debate, instead of dying out, would wax warmer as the election approached. But so purely personal have politics on both sides become that each is, above all things, anxious not to spread its opinions abroad, but to conceal from the public what it thinks upon the important topics of the time. Nobody who either expects to be a candidate or who is busy in pushing a candidate can at this moment be induced, for love or money, to promulgate his views about anything on which there is much or any difference of opinion among the people. It is but just to some of the Democrats to say, however, that they have of late shown a desire to take up and debate a really practical question—the revision of the present extraordinary tariff, and that their efforts to take it out of the hands of the Committee of Ways and Means are fiercely resisted by the bulk of the Republicans, headed by Mr. Garfield. The Committee has four Democrats in it who want debate, but the remainder, with the Republicans, seek silence and rest, having special interests in charge. Mr. Fernando Wood, the chairman, has a new tariff of his own always ready, but it has never found acceptance anywhere. As it is in the power of the Committee to prevent the matter from coming up, we shall probably not see any serious discussion of it, and yet there is no doubt that there is a growing feeling, particularly in the West, that the revision of the tariff is a piece of work which Congress ought to set about, and on which the opinion of the country ought to be obtained at the approaching election.

The House spent Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday in a curious wrangle over an incident of the Monday previous, when Mr. Townshend, of Illinois, introduced a bill to revise and amend sections 2503, 2504, and 2505 of Title 33 of the Revised Statutes, and moved its reference to the Committee on the Revision of the Laws, of which he is a member. When too late it was discovered that these sections embrace the entire tariff laws as to the classification of articles, any alteration in which, under the rules, belongs to the Committee on Ways and Means. Had this appeared on the face of the bill the actual reference to the Committee on the Revision of the Laws would have been impossible. Nobody knew this better than Mr. Townshend himself, and he deliberately resorted to an artifice of which the only justification could be that the Committee of Ways and Means had conspired to prevent the House from discussing the tariff. It seemed impossible for the House, in the character of candid and honorable men, to condemn such a procedure, on the one hand, with unanimity; and on the other, with such a vote as they could muster, to admonish the committee that its half-paternal, half-despotic restraint upon the prerogative of the House must cease. In the end the trick was defeated and the right reference made by 142 to 89. The Senate has been busy with the Geneva Award again.

The debate on the Geneva Award was mainly confined to Mr. Blaine and Mr. Thurman, the former defending the interests of the war-premium claimants and the latter those of the insurance companies. Mr. Blaine wisely refrained from arguing the law of the matter with Mr. Thurman, but maintained that he knew more than that gentleman about "navigation"—meaning by "navigation" the expedients resorted to by Maine shipowners during the war to avoid loss through the Confederate cruisers. He made one good point for the war-premium claimants, namely, that they could not impose the war premiums on the community at large in the shape of an advance in freights because they had to compete with foreigners who had only to pay the ordinary rates of insurance. But he also made the extraordinary assertion, if correctly reported, that Mr. George Hoar had "demolished" the doctrine of subrogation. This—always supposing him correctly reported—would seem to indicate that he imagines subrogation to be a device of the Brigadiers for the oppression of the colored voter. The "demolition" of subrogation is something which Mr. George Hoar would hardly attempt even in the holiest cause. It ought to be mentioned here once more that the war-premium claims were presented to the Geneva Tribunal and ruled out, and that the claims of the insurance companies were presented and allowed, and that no rule of law or morals hitherto in use would justify the custodian of the award in paying the one with money received for the other. The crooked-mindedness and looseness about fundamental ethics displayed in the discussion of the matter during the last seven years demands and will repay examination at the hands of some learned body. It has ceased to be lamentable and has become very interesting.

Mr. Evarts sent to the Senate on Monday a long communication relative to the Venezuelan award, showing that but a little more than half of it had been paid, and that through failure to keep up the interest the sum still due considerably exceeds the original principal. He stated that the Venezuelan Government now alleged fraud in making the award, and asked for a new commission to reopen and pass upon all claims. To this the Secretary strongly objects, being opposed to any discriminations among claims already awarded, and concludes by recommending Congress to appoint a commission to indicate "what claims should first be demanded under coercion." There are, however, several reasons why a bellicose attitude towards Venezuela is neither politic nor becoming in us. One is that she is one of the Gulf states whose good-will in the settlement of the canal question is worth conciliating. Another is that Mr. Evarts last fall recommended partial payment on an award protested against by Mexico as resting on an apparent fraudulent exaggeration of the imputed loss, and on a probably fictitious grievance. The third is that the United States Government is still guilty of a culpable delay in the distribution to its own citizens of the Geneva Award, is endeavoring to pervert it by giving a status to claims expressly ruled out by the Geneva tribunal, and will, without any compunction, pocket whatever portion of it remains after legitimate or illegitimate claims have been satisfied.

"Grant's frightened opponents," as the *Times* terms them, have begun to display an activity not entirely consistent with utter demoralization. In St. Louis they have issued a call for a national convention, or more correctly mass-meeting, to be held in that city May 6. It is addressed solely to Republicans, of course, and designed to affect the Chicago nomination only. A rather neat point is made by a reference to the anti-third-term resolutions of the New York and Pennsylvania Republicans in 1875 which the St. Louis Committee say "still receive" their cordial approbation, but it cannot be expected that the henchmen will feel very sensitive over a charge of inconsistency. The St. Louis anti-Grant men, however, are evidently in earnest, and rely less upon scoring "points" than upon the national organization which they hope, and are strenuously endeavoring, to perfect. In New York the Independents will, we understand, hold a convention in May, either in this city or in Albany. They have arranged, too, in the way of popular propagandism, for a series of lectures at their rooms here, of which the first four, to be succeeded by others not yet announced, will be by Horace White, Albert Stickney, Charles Francis Adams, jr., and

Matthew Hale, on "The Third Term," "The Aims of Independent Republicans," "Individuality in Politics," and "The Conditions and Limits of Party Fealty," respectively.

There seems to be a good deal of uncertainty or mystery about the candidacy of Mr. Washburne. There is a report, whether well authenticated or not, that he will under no circumstances allow himself to be used so as to interfere with General Grant's chances; and then another that if General Grant should prove to have no chance he will not be found too unwilling, and still another that his health is so poor as to make any further public service impossible for him. That Mr. Robeson, of Pennsylvania, does not think ill of his prospects was fully revealed in a speech the other day in the Committee of the Whole on the Consular and Diplomatic Appropriation Bill, in which, defending the American diplomatic service against some criticisms of Mr. Blackburn, of Kentucky, he eulogized Mr. Washburne with extraordinary fervor, apropos of his conduct during the two sieges of Paris. He made him "stand before the nations, amid the wreck of governments and the ruins of society, as the sole representative of Christian civilization, while the *élite* of European diplomacy was dwarfed and belittled before the stature, only life-sized, of American manhood," and made him "open the eyes of the civilized world to our character and influence in the world." His object, he added, in thus speaking was "to spread on the record of the American Congress his (Mr. Robeson's) appreciation of his services to government, to religion and humanity." The oddest thing about these extravagances is that their authors do not seem to take any note of their collateral implications. What an extraordinary view of the position of the American people it gives to say that the civilized world knew nothing of its "character and influence" until Mr. Washburne stayed in Paris during the siege, and distinguished himself by his humanity towards the persons threatened by the violence of the Commune. One would think we were an obscure and savage tribe which had startled the nations by the appearance of a courageous and benevolent emissary dressed in broadcloth, eating with a knife and fork, and familiar with the principles of international law and the usages of civilized warfare.

Some weeks ago five Pennsylvania politicians, Kemble, Bamberger, Petroff, Salter, and Crawford, were indicted for attempting to bribe members of the Legislature to vote for the bill giving $4,000,000 compensation to the Pennsylvania Railroad Company for damages sustained through the riots, and in this scheme there was said to be a "$2,000,000 steal." Some of the members peached on the bribers, who were thereupon indicted, but being politicians, pleaded guilty on the understanding that they would be pardoned before sentence was pronounced. The pardon, however, could not be procured from the Council, and they were on Monday called up for sentence. It was then found that they had sought safety in flight and forfeited their recognizances. They will probably go abroad while their friends "work" for the pardon. They are all, we believe, Republicans. The chief, Kemble, is the most prominent Republican in the State except Mr. Cameron, very wealthy, and as wicked as a Democrat. We do not *know* that they are all Grant boomsters, but we have no doubt of it. Show us a Republican criminal or fugitive from justice, or a Republican under a cloud of any sort, and we will show you a "Grant man."

The "regular" Democratic State Committee of this State met here last Friday to determine upon the time and place for the Convention which is to choose delegates to Cincinnati. There was a good deal of talk about harmony, and a vigorous attempt made by the anti-Tilden members to patch up a peace with the Tammany bolters, but it resulted in nothing, and the call for the convention was addressed to Democrats and others who intend to support the Cincinnati nomination, which of course excludes the Kelly men. The latter met at the same time with the design of calling a convention of their own simultaneously and at the same place with that of the Tilden men. In this, however, they were disappointed, and on learning of the adjournment of the "regulars" after appointing a committee with power to decide the question of time and place, were obliged to do the same thing themselves. Thus the Faulkner, or Tilden, Committee were at first credited with having outwitted their opponents; for after the session they were reported to have secured all the hotels in Syracuse except one and called their convention there for April 20. This, however, turns out to be untrue, and the Kelly men will be able to make the sensation and acquire the prestige which packing hotel corridors during a convention is supposed to afford, and on which they are accustomed to count. Moreover, industrious "interviewing" indicates that the Tilden men are not all for Tilden, four of the Committee being "unalterably opposed" to him, six as strongly in his favor, and the rest "for the nominee," according to one report.

The steady growth of imports may now any day bring us to the point when gold may be withdrawn for exportation. A very little of this and we should be on a silver standard exclusively, if the coinage of silver continues. The matter is essentially one of those which now call for thorough discussion and settlement, but in the present curious condition of politics it is, like most of the real business of the country, one of the dangerous topics which must not be handled lest it should injure somebody's "boom." Mr. L. P. Morton has, however, taken hold of it by introducing a bill providing for the redemption of silver in gold at the Treasury when presented in sums of $100 and multiples thereof, repealing the present restrictions on silver coinage, and directing the Secretary to coin as much silver as may be necessary to meet the demand for silver coins, no more and no less. This bill ought to meet all the requirements of the silver-men, for it treats silver as the equivalent of gold, and directs that whatever demand there is for the Fathers' dollar shall be satisfied. Nevertheless we venture to predict that it will be met by fierce abuse from their organs. The reason is that they know there is but very little demand for silver, and that those who hold it would gladly exchange it for gold, and that, if treated as proposed, there would soon be but little of it coined, and still less would find its way into "the pockets of the people."

Although the U. S. Treasury has prepaid the April interest, and has during the week bought $2,000,000 of bonds for the Sinking Fund, yet the reserve of the New York banks has only been kept above the legal limit by a sharp contraction of bank loans, and the loan market has not yet been forced out of the control of such of the stock speculators as, for the moment, are "bears." These latter on several days during the week compelled borrowers to pay as much as one-sixteenth of one per cent. per day for money; they also threatened to export a few millions of gold to add to the distress of the loan market. As, however, money in London commands less than 3 per cent. annual interest, the high rates for loans here induced a free drawing of sterling bills, and the result was a fall in the rates for these bills still another point below that at which gold can be shipped without loss. It is by no means certain, however, that when the New York loan market becomes easy, as it ought to be in April, gold will not be exported. At the Stock Exchange there were violent fluctuations during the week, and the result was a lower range of prices for all kinds of securities with the exception of a few choice railroad stocks which are sought and held for investment. The course of our foreign trade continues much as of late, the imports exceeding the exports. General business is still very active, but the upward speculation in staple commodities shows a reactionary tendency. Silver in London is about 52*d.* to 52⅛*d.* per oz. The "buzzard dollar" had a bullion value here at the close of the week of $0.8817.

The *Woman's Journal* thinks we ought not to have "singled out for reprobation" the late performance of Mrs. Belva Lockwood "merely because she is a lawyer and a woman." But this was the only reason we had for singling it out or taking any notice of it whatever. A letter to Senator Hill, threatening to expose him, from somebody

who was neither woman nor lawyer would have nothing in the least remarkable about it. Mrs. Lockwood's exploit was peculiar and reprehensible because after her client had withdrawn from proceedings which Mrs. Lockwood had been conducting for her, the lawyer proceeded to attack the defendant through the newspapers on new charges which had nothing to do with the litigation, and which were of a disgusting character, and against which Mr. Hill could not defend himself without dragging in, it might be, innocent third persons. Mrs. Lockwood was consequently guilty of indecent and unprofessional conduct, for which we can recall no parallel in a male lawyer in good standing. What aggravates her fault is, as we pointed out, that her use of sexual scandal in legal proceedings, or in aid or place of legal proceedings, is just what the opponents of "the woman movement" predicted as likely to result from the appearance of women in public in contentious relations with men; and that being a pioneer female lawyer, already sufficiently conspicuous, her responsibilities are more than usually great.

The more recent news from England represents the sanguine Conservatives as only looking for fifty majority from the coming election; the despondent only twenty. The despondent Liberals, in like manner, "claim" twenty majority in Great Britain. But speculation so near the event is useless. A good deal of interest is felt about the result in what are called the "cocked-hat" or "three-cornered" constituencies—that is, constituencies which return three members, and were expected, when established in 1868, to furnish a good specimen of the working of the minority representation. Each voter is only allowed to vote for two candidates and ordinarily this gives the third candidate to the minority. But in some cases, as in Birmingham for instance, the majority is so large that the Liberals think they have enough votes to spare to capture the third member also. This can only be done by very careful management, however, as it involves getting certain wards to confine their votes to two out of three candidates with the utmost accuracy. If the discipline is not good and the management perfect, of course the whole scheme may miscarry and the enemy carry off two of the seats.

As was anticipated, the financial statement with which the Tories have gone before the country in England is not in itself very satisfactory, and the Chancellor of the Exchequer has had to defend it by pleading the badness of the times and the great cost of the war which would have taken place if the Ministry had not made a judicious outlay by way of precaution. The deficit for the present year will amount to $16,790,000, but he anticipates a small surplus for the coming year. This deficit of the present year, and the floating debt contracted for the purpose of frightening the Russians, will amount in all to about $40,000,000, and this he proposes to meet not by fresh taxes, but partly by issuing terminable annuities, to be taken up within the coming five years, so as to spare the taxpayer, and partly by a fresh issue of Exchequer bonds. But to meet the terminable annuities he proposes to take about $3,000,000 out of the Sinking Fund, and this is the feature in his budget which has called down most animadversion. In fact, the budget may be called on the whole an electioneering budget, as it appeals distinctly to the classes who care more for momentary exemption from taxation than for the national credit, and justifies Sir William Harcourt's taunt that the Jingoes liked to get their glory cheap.

We have discussed elsewhere the state of feeling between France and Russia, and that between Russia and Germany. Out of the latter there is, whether rightly or wrongly, a strong expectation that war will issue before long. The Tory papers in England say that a Liberal triumph will precipitate it, while the Liberals are equally sure that if Beaconsfield gets another lease of power he will bring it on by his vaporing, as Germany and Austria will be encouraged by his support. There are rumors of some understanding with Russia by virtue of which the British are to abstain from meddling with Herat, and the Russians on their side from meddling with Merv; but there seems to be nothing very reliable known about the matter. Troubles are, however, pending between China and Russia about the Kuldja district on the Eastern Turkestan border, and China is showing her teeth in a way which delights the Tories, and the Ministry are said to be egging her on. This is all still rumor, but it shows what a troublous and uncertain future the Tories have really conjured up.

Things in Turkey are in a condition of which the badness begins to be humorous. The nature of British influence on the Sultan has been illustrated by the fact that the chief of police for whose dismissal Sir Henry Layard asked recently, and for whose dismissal from the army Lord Derby asked three years ago for his share in the Bulgarian atrocities, has been recently promoted and decorated. The negotiations between Turkey and Greece for the change of the frontier on the Macedonian side, which have been pending ever since the Treaty of Berlin, and been marked by ludicrous trifling on the part of the Turks, have been at last referred to a Commission appointed by the Powers. Savas Pasha, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, on hearing of it, told Sir Henry that all chance of an agreement with Greece was not gone, but that, besides this, the Government could not guarantee the safety of the Commission while drawing the frontier line.

The French Ministry have positively announced that the Jesuits and other unauthorized orders must go, and decrees enforcing the existing laws against them will have appeared before this reaches our readers. One decree dissolves the Company of Jesus in so far as it exists in France, and directs that all establishments occupied by them must be closed within three months, or, in the case of schools, before August 31. Another directs all unauthorized orders to apply for authorization on pain of dissolution. The only orders now authorized by law are the Lazarists, the Priests of the Mission, the Priests of the Holy Ghost, and the Priests of St. Sulpice. The Christian Brethren, a teaching order, does not exist as an order, but holds permission to teach. The probabilities are that the Jesuits will transport themselves in large numbers to England, where, besides Stonyhurst, they have already several flourishing schools. They would there probably draw a large number of children of well-to-do French residents. They are said also to be purchasing land, as well as erecting new buildings, in Spain, but their position there must also be considered precarious. Their misfortune is that it is from the countries in which their influence is likely to be greatest that they are most likely to be expelled. Their old political influence is gone. They have no longer the standing at courts they used to have, and they cannot make themselves felt in parliaments. But, on the other hand, their success in education makes them prominent in a field in which the modern world is greatly interested and about which it is very sensitive.

Mr. Parnell seems doomed to a stormy existence. He had hardly landed when he participated in a fight at Enniscorthy, in Wexford, owing to the local hostility to the candidates which his section of Home-Rulers had provided for the county and the popularity of a certain Chevalier O'Clery, who, we believe, draws his title from the Pope. Mr. Parnell held his own as long as he could, but was finally dragged from the platform with his trousers badly torn, and had to be escorted to the railroad station by the police. He has really none of the qualifications needed for an Irish agitator who means to dominate. He is not a great orator or great lawyer, has no "magnetism," and his narrow, fanatical hatred of British rule and his ceaseless industry are not enough. The Home-Rulers generally appear to be disposed to give the Liberals an unqualified support, without asking for pledges, so infuriated are they by Lord Beaconsfield's treatment of the Irish question in his letter to the Duke of Marlborough. This is not the only irritant, however. All the leading Tories have been open in their appeals to English anti-Irish prejudice, and the chief Secretary for Ireland has been almost rabid in his denunciations of the Irish Catholics, apropos of a proposal to lower the franchise in Ireland to the English level.

THE ANNUAL NEW YORK CHARTER.

THE annual charter for New York City has just been introduced into the Legislature. Every legislature in every session for a great many years back has felt it to be its duty either to provide New York City with a new charter or to amend the existing one. Most of the amended as well as the new charters fail to pass, but they are all discussed thoroughly. Usually when the bill makes its appearance the committee which has it in charge offers to hear what anybody who does not like it has to say against it, and deputations go up to address the committee, some composed of individual volunteers and some of members of municipal reform associations of one sort or another. There is never any difficulty in pointing out the defects of the new plan. No pretence is ever made that it has no defects. Nobody ever presents it as a model plan of municipal government. It is always well known to be the result of an attempt to redistribute the city offices, either in the interest of one party or in pursuance of an arrangement or bargain between the two parties. Sometimes it springs from nothing but hostility on the part of some politician to some leading city officer—the mayor, for instance, or the comptroller—and is intended simply to shear him of some of his powers. If it frightens him into concessions the scheme is dropped. Most frequently the projectors drop it because they cannot carry it. But whatever its nature or from whatever motives it springs, it is always received by the city press with the utmost gravity. Each morning paper gives it from one to two articles of the kind the French call *articles de fond* It is turned over with as much seriousness as if it was the project to which many years' discussion of municipal government had at last led, and as if it would probably prove final if adopted.

In the meantime the interest in municipal government, and the desire to accomplish something radical and systematic in the way of reform, which was excited by the exploits of the Tweed Ring has completely, or all but completely, died out. It, in fact, seemed to disappear totally after the defeat of the amendments of the Tilden Municipal Commission in the Legislature. It seemed reasonable to expect that after these had been thrown overboard, largely under orders from Mr. Conkling, the Republicans would address themselves to the problem of city government in the light of the immense and valuable experience of the Tweed régime; that it would be taken up by the city press and noticed in the State platforms; and that, one way or another, a Republican remedy for the evils and abuses of our municipal government would be evolved. Nothing of the kind occurred. One would not suppose from reading any Republican platform during the last four years that any such problem as the city problem existed. The party in this city settled down on the old expedient of electing a "reform mayor," for whom they made the most extravagant promises, well knowing that he had not the power to reform, if he had the will, and that under the rules of party politics he would probably not have the will. In the platform of the late Saratoga Convention there was not an allusion to municipal government. No one would suppose, either from reading it or reading the party papers through the State, that the question of the best manner of governing New York had not been completely settled, and that there was anything extravagant or odd in directing the voters' minds at the election mainly to Southern affairs.

Nevertheless, it now appears that one of the things the Republican party feels bound to do on regaining possession of the Legislature is to provide the city with a new charter, and a new charter has been drafted accordingly, under the auspices of the Republican Machine, by the leading Republicans in the Senate. It has undergone the usual searching analysis at the hands of local experts, among them Mr. George Bliss and the New York *Times*. They both show that the charter is most probably the result of a bargain for a fresh division of offices between the Republican Machine and the Kelly Machine. We have better uses for our space than to go into a detailed account of its provisions. Suffice it to say that it does not contain, any more than the last dozen of its predecessors, the slightest trace of a principle or idea of any kind in connection with municipal government in general; that it is not drawn on any plan of reform at all; that it distributes responsibility in such a way that no responsibility could ever be traced to anybody in particular; and that its main object seems to be the division of the various offices between the two Rings in some privately settled proportion. Mr. Bliss says the chief object of it seems to him to be "the capture of the Public Works Department, with its eight hundred employees and $800,000 expenditure on salary account." He appears to hold that the Republicans would get half of these, but denies stoutly that if they did get them they would get through them any more votes at the next election. He makes also the singular admission, for him who is a firm opponent of what is called civil-service reform, that they would give "the managers several hundred places to dispose of to persons who control the Assembly conventions throughout the State, and these conventions will make the nominations for the next Assembly, which elects the next United States Senator." According to the school of politicians to which Mr. Bliss belongs, however, this is a perfectly legitimate use to make of the offices. If office-holders are to "work" in politics you must have office-holders who *will* work; you can hardly have too many in order to succeed, and in order to have enough you must get control of as many places as possible. Nor can any manager devote himself to this kind of politics very long without making the control of patronage his chief interest. Mr. Bliss is one of the numerous philosophers who revolt when they see their system carried to its logical and inevitable results. He would like the offices to be used for party purposes, but have them always filled with the best men, and, although an intensely "practical man," is disgusted when he sees the way in which his theory turns out in the existing condition of human nature. It is no more possible to keep Mr. Cornell and his confederates, under the existing mode of filling offices, from devoting all their energies to get control of offices for machine purposes than it would be to train dogs to hunt deer, but never to kill deer except to supply meat to the poor.

The whole affair is a valuable illustration of the remarks we made last week on the dissociation of politicians from real politics. The Republican party in this State is probably more thoroughly under the control of one man than any party in any large State ever was before. He manages its affairs and shapes its action in every direction. The majority in the Legislature are simply the registrars of his wishes. Even the Governor is his creature—a spectacle such as we believe has never been witnessed in any State before. Were Mr. Conkling a different kind of politician—that is, a man really interested in questions of government and eager for their solution—there is no doubt that the Republican party would since the close of the war have become identified with local reform of every kind, and would long ago have devised some plan of taking the government of the large cities out of politics, which would have commended itself to the approbation of the honest and intelligent voters of both parties. As a matter of fact, however, all that can safely be said for the party with regard to reform is that it has not been guilty of so many abuses as the Democrats. It has shown no more zeal than the Democrats for the removal of any abuses which its Machine finds it can turn to account in "fixing" conventions. It supported the Constitutional Amendments, which were intended to put an end to the great scandal of the use of the canals and prisons for party purposes, but the very first things the new Governor did were to put a notorious partisan at the head of the Public Works, and to nominate another for the superintendence of the life-insurance companies; and he has since then displaced an able and experienced tax-assessor to make room for a "henchman" from the interior of the State. Not a trace does there appear either in his action or in the policy of the party of any serious care for the great interests of the State, either commercial or agricultural. Not a man of the Republican leaders from the chief down utters a syllable about them indicating any previous reflection or preoccupation about them. Not a word ever comes from Washington about the harbor, or the city government, or the

taxes, or the canals, or the railroads. Not a word is ever heard at Albany from any prominent Republican to indicate what the policy of the party is with regard to important State interests, or whether it has any policy at all. The Governor's opinion on these subjects is not known to anybody outside the circle of his intimate friends; and if he gave out anything as his opinion it would not be received by the public as an opinion, but as a device of some kind, like the new charter, looking to the composition of "the Assembly conventions." We venture to say that no such state of things has ever been witnessed in State politics before, except during the Tweed period. There never has been a time, except the Tweed time, when the Albany politicians of both parties were not either able to produce a policy of their own with regard to State affairs or did not support a leader of some kind who did produce such a policy. Even the unhappy Tilden, in his message on taking office, made known his views in detail with regard to the way the State ought to be governed, and did seek to carry them out, however wicked his ulterior motives may have been. Mr. Cornell does not, however, take the trouble to profess an interest in politics, and he is apparently not instructed to profess it. He simply works the Machine on the open plain, in view of the whole State, and turns out the "fixed" primaries and conventions from it with the simple audacity of a happy child.

GERMANY AND RUSSIA.

IT is not likely that the failure of the French Cabinet to surrender Hartmann will seriously imperil the good relations of France with Russia. The refusal, it must not be forgotten, was based solely on the want of evidence to justify the extradition, and did not enter at all into the merits of the question whether the murder or attempted murder of a reigning prince is less heinous than that of an ordinary citizen, although this was the issue which the French Radicals tried to raise. At present the law and the usage of the civilized world are divided on that question. Germany has already given up a number of Nihilists to be tried in Russia, and Russia would certainly have surrendered Hödel or Nobiling. These two Powers have, unfortunately, a common interest in the punishment of regicide. Austria has no sympathy with the Czar, but her maxims of government are similar to those of her two imperial neighbors. France, as we have seen, has dextrously evaded the real issue in the Hartmann case, although the declared reasons for denying the demand of Prince Orloff leave the inference open that she would deliver a clearly-convicted regicide. The chief difficulty is, of course, with England and the United States. It being reported that Hartmann has fled to one of these countries, the Paris Radical press has challenged Russia to seek his extradition from either of them, being certain that it would be emphatically refused. England may be left to take care of herself; but as to this country French journalists need only to be reminded that we have no extradition treaty with Russia, and that all Russian felons can find a safe asylum under the protection of our laws.

In the meantime there is undoubtedly a good deal of irritation felt in St. Petersburg at the action of the French authorities; and the apparent rupture is attributed with some unreasonableness to the ingenuity of Bismarck, and with much less to the purposes of Prince Gortchakoff. Why the German Chancellor should desire to foment a disagreement between Russia and France is evident enough, and his resources in diplomacy are generally adequate to his ends. But Russia hardly needed the pretext of ill-treatment from France for seeking a *rapprochement* with Germany. The history of the past decade refutes any such theory. We prefer, therefore, to believe that the Hartmann affair will be settled amicably, and that the spectre of a Franco-Russian alliance will continue to disturb the dreams of German statesmen.

Of all the incidents in contemporary European politics no other is probably so difficult for the general observer to explain to himself as the present estrangement between Germany and Russia. During almost the whole course of this century the relations of the two Powers have been conspicuously governed, if not by sentiments of real friendship, at least by the sense of common interests to be maintained or advanced, until, notably within the past ten years, habit of thought had converted the alliance into a force with which Europe would have permanently to reckon. Not to go back to the Napoleonic days, it is remembered that Russia helped suppress the revolutionary movements of 1848–9; that Prussia's sympathy and indirect aid were given to Nicholas in the Crimean war; that Prussia showed itself hostile to the Poles during the insurrection of 1863; that the Czar was benevolently neutral as against Austria in 1866, and against France in 1870; and that in the late Turkish war the moral encouragement, if nothing more, of Germany was given to the Muscovite cause. Even the so-called Triple Alliance, dating from the meeting of the three emperors at Berlin in 1872, was really a dual affair. Austria-Hungary was indeed a member, but she was such by the force of circumstances rather than by choice, and her admission was not much less of an indignity than the exclusion of France. Her hands were effectually tied by the two northern Powers. During this period and the subsequent years the intercourse between Berlin and St. Petersburg was ostentatiously intimate; visits were frequently exchanged by the two monarchs; conferences were held by Bismarck and Gortchakoff; neither court took a step without consulting the other. All the rest of Europe was uneasy, and not without reason, under this systematic co-operation, which, scarcely disguising itself under the name of a league for the promotion of peace, was generally regarded as a conspiracy of two military empires against liberalism and progress. But to-day the two chancellors are bitter enemies, the two peoples are not less eager for a duel, and only the frail barrier of dynastic friendship between the two reigning houses keeps peace on the Vistula and the Memel. This is a problem which may well tax the ingenuity of the keenest enquirer.

It will help the solution, however, to point out that the three factors by which the relations of such Powers are vastly influenced, if not wholly determined, were present in the Russo-German Alliance in widely different degrees of intensity. We mean the friendship of nations, that of statesmen, and that of princes. The last element is not only as strong to-day as at any previous period, but it has even been strengthened by the similar personal dangers to which the Czar and the Kaiser have been and still are exposed. The sympathy between Bismarck and Gortchakoff, however keen and active it once seemed, is now known to have been grossly practical and selfish, hardly sustained by a feeling of cold political regard, and likely at any time to break down under the slightest trial. And between the two peoples there has never been either friendship or political sympathy, or anything but a deep and ill-concealed hostility. Neither the affection of the one emperor for the other, nor the co-operation of the one statesman with the other, has altered the feelings of the two nations. In 1870 Russian sympathies were overwhelmingly French; in 1877 German sympathies were overwhelmingly Turkish. Neither country has a right, therefore, to accuse the other; but the grievance, if any there be, is at least not on the side of Germany. For it cannot be maintained that Russia had any political debt to pay in 1870 by covering Prussia's rear against Austria, nor was that war of a character so clear that the judgment of Christendom was compelled to take sides with Germany. But in the Turkish war Russia was entitled to expect the support of Germany, not only in the discharge of a real obligation, but as a recognition of her general rights as a Christian state against a cruel and anomalous barbarian. But neither of these considerations moved the German people. They received the news of the successive Russian defeats at Plevna with feelings of exultation, which neither respect for the well-known sympathies of their Emperor nor confidence in the policy of their Chancellor led them wholly to conceal; and when at a later epoch the latter element, being removed by Bismarck's own course, no longer acted as a restraining force, dissimulation entirely ceased, and opposition to Russia *sans phrases* became the rule of the nation. Thus one form of harmony disappeared to make way for another. The Chancellor ceased to co-operate with his master in support of

the Russian alliance, but found in the German people willing allies in hostility to it. And since the Emperor and the Czar are but mortal men, one of them, too, being threatened with a persistence which is likely to abridge even the ordinary privilege of longevity, the time cannot be far distant when the rulers, like the statesmen and the people, of the two countries will be arrayed in open hostility, making an armed conflict inevitable. War may not await even this contingency, but peace will certainly not long survive it.

Military prudence may force Russia to avert such a collision as long as possible, but it is hard to see what political ends she would serve by transferring her affections from France to Germany. There is practically no point at which her interests clash with those of the former. The Czar and the court may have a sentimental distrust of republican institutions; but Russian statesmen are hardly less cynical than English Tories, and will suffer no scruples about the form of the French Government to color their policy. Against the German alliance there are, however, solid and weighty reasons. To become reconciled with Germany is equivalent to re-accepting the Triple Alliance; and that alliance if now revived would be vastly different from the original league. Austria would be a principal and Russia only a tolerated member. Prince Bismarck has undertaken to defend the integrity of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy. But the term now includes the recent conquests in Bosnia and Herzegovina; and by implication Germany is bound to support the Hapsburg interests generally in the East. These interests are, however, irreconcilably hostile to those of Russia. It is, therefore, perfectly absurd to suppose that the two Powers can enter into new combinations on the basis of relations which the late war completely changed, but this is probably the inflexible condition of readmission to the friendship and co-operation of Germany.

BRITISH ELECTION PROBABILITIES.

LONDON, Tuesday, March 16.

HAVING been promised a session of quiet and steady work, which was to bring up in some degree the arrears of the past six years, England finds herself in the heat and bustle of a general election. Parliament is still sitting, but its business, according to present computations, will be over before the end of the week, and it will be formally dissolved, if the ministerial announcements are adhered to, on the 24th. Nobody complains of these arrangements in real earnest except the London shopkeepers. They are hard hit by them. A month at least is taken out of the season, and during that period the town is emptied of its best customers. When candidates who have been converted into M.P.'s return to London at the end of April or the beginning of May they will return with pockets not quite so full as when they left town. Your contested election, and even your uncontested election, is a great emptier of purses, and our upper classes will find it essential to practise that virtue of thrift which they are constantly urging on the lower. The tradesmen who purvey for the pleasures of life will be obliged to act upon the advice of the French princess in the anecdote, and to eat their own cheese-cakes in default of baker's bread and butcher's meat. We do not hear so much as might be expected of religious objections to the time of the dissolution. We are now in Passion Week, and the term acquires a secular significance from the acrimony of political conflict in which we are already plunged. Easter Week will not be less completely given up to the heats and rancors which are part of the cost we pay for parliamentary and party government. Here and there a few High-Church voices are heard to murmur about the desecration of a holy time. A reproachful wonder is expressed that the minister who dated a historic letter "Maundy-Thursday" should have given up the sacred season which includes that day to electioneering. But these gentle plaints are scarcely audible in the din of approaching conflict. Many of the great battles of the world, like Waterloo, have been fought on Sunday, and neither politics nor war acknowledges sacred days or a truce of God.

Lord Hartington began his Lancashire campaign last Saturday, and to-day Mr. Gladstone speeds northward to carry thither the fiery cross and to wage war with the sword of the Lord and of Gideon in Mid-Lothian. To Mr. Gladstone the contest in which he is engaged seems to be almost literally a crusade. His enthusiasm acquires every day more and more of a religious character. The name of the Almighty is with increasing frequency upon his lips; and he appeals to him as to a God of political battle. In the unmixed Scotch blood which runs through his veins there is probably no slight infusion from some old Covenanting strain. The Nonconformist and High-Church parties, who are hostile in everything else and detest each other as Romanizers or Schismatics, are brought together by a common admiration of Mr. Gladstone. To them he is distinctively the Christian statesman. They look upon the approaching struggle as a conflict between powers of light and darkness, represented respectively by Mr. Gladstone and Lord Beaconsfield. It is not quite certain that Mr. Gladstone does not in the recesses of his mind take much the same view, seeing in Milton's description of the fight between the Archangel Michael and Satan a prototype of the encounter in which he is now engaged, and which is approaching its crisis. Its issue is quite uncertain. There are people who are so overpowered by Lord Beaconsfield's dexterity and tactical resources, and by Mr. Gladstone's conspicuous defect in these qualities, as to believe that they will carry their respective characteristics and fortunes into the next world. Lord Beaconsfield, they contend, understands the art of rising; Mr. Gladstone is a proficient in the art of sinking. They look to see Lord Beaconsfield an archangel of high rank and dignity, while Mr. Gladstone in some lower grade of the celestial hierarchy dwells with indignant eloquence on the misdeeds of his successful rival and his undeserved elevation. This is hyperbolic and paradoxical; but it has that element of truth which is sometimes more precisely conveyed by extravagant caricature of some salient feature than by an exact and lifeless likeness.

The issues of the contest are of course beyond prediction or reasonably probable estimate. In electioneering matters all that any sensible man knows is that he knows nothing. If the action of a few forces upon a physical body is beyond the reach of precise computation, the action of a multiplicity of forces upon a multiplicity of minds is utterly beyond our foresight. The science of electioneering is like the science of political economy: it is purely hypothetical, and its predictions are valid only under conditions which are never realized. As political economy assumes that men are acted upon everywhere and always by the desire of wealth, and is true only in so far as that desire is the sole or predominant motive, so electioneering science assumes that men are acted on only and always by party sentiment. Its predictions are true at the moments in national history when political feelings overpower all other. They are falsified by the varied play of countless other feelings, personal likes or dislikes, local interests, and that action of unascertained motives which is called caprice. One thing is admitted on both sides—that the majority in the new Parliament, whether it be Liberal or Conservative, will be very small, to be counted probably by units, or certainly by but one or two tens. Since what everybody says in political matters is generally false, a wise scepticism would infer from this common acknowledgment a decisive majority in the new Parliament for one party or the other. As Lord Plunket said of O'Connell, "I believe the statement to be true, although he made it," so I am inclined to think the prediction of a small majority will be verified, although it is in harmony with general expectation. Lord Hartington has made a very good impression in Northeast Lancashire and in the country generally. What remains to be seen is whether that impression will be confirmed or counteracted in Mid-Lothian. The renewal of Mr. Gladstone's oratorical campaign there is viewed with some hope and much misgiving. He is a powerful preacher to those who are already converted. He can make men attend and shout at a dozen meetings who would otherwise perhaps have attended only one meeting without shouting. But he cannot make the same man vote at a dozen polling booths.

The alienated Liberals are men whom he has alienated partly by things said and done, partly by a certain mutual antipathy of temper and character. Lord Granville and Lord Hartington represent that sagacious secular Liberalism which perhaps had its best type in the cheerful good sense and the robust manliness of Lord Palmerston. Mr. Gladstone, in virtue of that side (by no means the most attractive or the highest of his character) which is prominent in political controversy, attracts a perfervid sectarian enthusiasm. The Liberal party under his influence, strongly reinforced by that of Mr. Bright and in some degree by that of the Duke of Argyll, shows a tendency to convert itself into a sort of Triple or Holy Alliance of High-Churchmen, orthodox Dissenters, and Scotch Presbyterians. That there is any real Liberalism in any of these bodies in the good old worldly sense in which Liberalism was understood by generations of Whig statesmen, may be questioned. Of the Dissenters in particular it may be doubted how far their Liberalism is genuine. They have been Liberals, as the Roman Catholics were, because they have labored under grievances which the Liberal party has redressed.

Scotch Free-Churchmen and English Dissenters will be Liberal until the Churches of Scotland and England are disestablished, but even now their characteristic intolerance is breaking forth. They are endeavoring to impose Sabbatarian tests on candidates, and if they had the power we should probably have a good deal of Sabbatarian legislation incompatible with personal and religious freedom. They are asserting, by their doctrines of prohibition or local option in regard to the liquor-trade, that principle of the right of the community to exercise censorship over the conduct of individuals which they derive from their theory and practice of church-membership. The tests—Sabbatarian, anti-vaccination, anti-vivisection, anti-co-operation, anti-contagious diseases act, and a dozen others—which are forced by every petty clique that can number a score of adherents upon every Liberal candidate, under pain of party proscription, are a transfer to politics of the usages of the Dissenting meeting-house or the Free Kirk. Parliamentary candidates are treated as English Nonconformists and Scotch Presbyterians treat candidates for their pulpits. With all this, Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Bright, from their theories of church discipline, Anglican and Puritan, have a certain sympathy. Lord Granville and Lord Hartington have probably none at all. They are obliged to make terms with it, however; but many of those who would otherwise be their followers are not under a similar constraint. If this sectarian Liberalism is made prominent in Mr. Gladstone's Mid-Lothian speeches it will probably repel the waverers whose reconciliation to the Liberal party is essential to its success at the polls. Much, of course, will depend upon what is said about the foreign policy which will be pursued in the case of the accession of the Liberal party to power. The Jingoism of Lord Beaconsfield has in itself no other hold on the public mind than the impression that the Liberal party is pledged to the international Quakerism of Mr. Bright. Lord Derby's accession to it, in other respects a source of strength, is perhaps in this particular an element of weakness. A repetition of the language of Canning, Palmerston, and Russell, a reassertion of the principles of their foreign policy as the cherished traditions of the Liberal party, a disclaimer of the tactics of isolation and effacement, will be necessary if ruinous secessions or abstentions are to be avoided. † † †

Correspondence.

ELECTION EXPENSES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your number of March 18 you state that the expenses of the present general election in England are estimated at ten millions of dollars, and that the announcement of the dissolution of Parliament has depressed the price of consols, as being likely to cause a temporary drain of money to the country districts.

Such an effect of electioneering expenditures upon the money market is no new thing in history. Cicero, in one of his letters to Atticus, iv. 15, remarks that electioneering was then going on with great activity in Rome. In proof of his assertion he states that on the 15th of July previous the rate of interest in the money market had gone up from four to eight per centum per annum.

Our recent American experience is different. Since the currency has been controlled and regulated at Washington, the effect of Presidential elections has been to make the money market easier than it would otherwise have been. Which system is to be preferred?

Respectfully, C.

Philadelphia, March 28, 1880.

QUEUES AND CURLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your criticism, in your last issue, on the late ruling of the Supreme Court of the United States, in which Federal jurisdiction is asserted of all cases in which State legislation impairs civil rights, strikes me as eminently just. If the ruling be logically carried out, the authority of the State courts will be seriously impaired. In Rhode Island persons of foreign birth are disfranchised unless they own real estate; therefore in Rhode Island all cases in which persons of foreign birth are concerned will be hereafter tried by the Circuit Court of the United States. In most States no alien can sit on a jury; therefore if an alien is indicted in one of these States, his case is to be removed to the Federal courts. In several States all poor men are excluded from juries; and in these States, therefore, a poor man, who is about to be tried before a jury of rich men, can have his case removed to a Federal court in which no such discrimination obtains. Now, as under the singular dispensation by which jurors in the Federal courts sympathize in politics with the marshals who summon them, we find the Federal juries are of one particular type, it is not unlikely that in the Federal courts we may have, as to a special line of cases, verdicts very different from those obtaining in State courts where this peculiar fatality as to the politics of jurors does not prevail. But, be this as it may, the late ruling you so justly criticise establishes, in several new lines of cases, an appellate court, by which the State courts are to be overruled. Or, what is still more destructive of uniformity and equality of rulings, we have a certain class of cases, in which certain parties are concerned, torn from the dockets of the State courts, and subjected to rulings or principles entirely distinct from those given in other cases involving the same legal issues in the State courts.

My object, however, in the present note, is to ask whether Judge Field has not himself led the way to the extraordinary ruling of which you complain. Last year the Circuit Court of the United States, sitting in San Francisco, had occasion to consider the constitutionality of an ordinance of that city providing that the queues of Chinese convicts should be cut off as a mode of penal discipline. Now, it so happens that this is a common punishment in China; and this fact, as many of your readers will remember, has been amusingly utilized by Jules Verne in his 'Chinaman in China.' But, be this as it may, Judge Field held the ordinance unconstitutional, on the ground that it discriminated against a particular class, and was hence forbidden by the Fourteenth Amendment. I cannot see that the "queue" legislation discriminated any more against the Chinese than do the prison rules requiring shaving of the head discriminate against Shakers, Dunkers, and other advanced or peculiar people who have conscientious scruples against cutting the hair. But I do see that if the Federal courts can annul State legislation providing that convicts' hair should be cut, they can annul the great body of our State laws. The queues of the Chinese should no more exempt them from State laws than do the crisp curls of the negro. But if you concede that either queue or curl is to have a particular code of laws for its government, then you revive the old mediæval system of personal laws as distinguished from territorial. Each tribe or people is to have its own courts and its own jurisprudence, and this is now to be re-established under the auspices of the Supreme Court of the United States. W.

Cambridge, March 29, 1880.

CAN STALWARTS AND INDEPENDENTS BE ALLIED AGAINST GRANT?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The considerations urged by a correspondent in your paper of March 18 against discarding Bayard as an unavailable candidate are very weighty. They seem irresistible in view of the fact that Independents must reckon with the strong possibility of Grant's nomination at Chicago. In that case the situation will be a most serious one. The first and pressing duty of Independents seems to be to work against the nomination of Grant or Blaine. If defeated here, and especially if the convention declares for Grant, their only line of reserve seems to be a strong demonstration in favor of Bayard. If Tilden is nominated against Grant the state of things will be to the last degree disheartening. It will be impossible to contend with any spirit, even against the immense evils and dangers of Grantism, with such a candidate as Tilden. And, in the face of those evils and dangers, the luxury of voting for a third candidate, as a mere protest, will be far too costly. No; if Grant be nominated the supreme effort of the ensuing weeks must be to secure against him a candidate not only worthy of election but who can be elected. The only place where this can be done is the Cincinnati Convention, and, as before that convention, the man who pre-eminently combines fitness and availability is Thomas F. Bayard. His war record will be a burden, but under such circumstances it must and can be carried. For, under such circumstances, and under his leadership, the Democracy will represent constitutional government as against military hero-worship and machine politics backed by menace. Before such as an issue differences upon the obsolete questions of twenty years ago ought to be forgotten.

And yet Bayard's candidature should be regarded by Independents, I think, as their line of reserve, and their first force should be directed to Chicago. For, however the few may reason, the many will be strongly influenced by the memories of the war-time. To run counter to average

Northern sentiment on this subject is a disadvantage which ought, if possible, to be avoided. I think your correspondent underestimates the strength of that sentiment as a political factor. The class from whom Independents and reformers naturally draw their leaders are always prone to overrate the power of pure reason with the mass of voters. Because this class see clearly, or think they do, that slavery and secession are absolutely dead issues, they are slow to understand or believe that the mass of voters, both North and South, are still immensely influenced by the sentiments inherited from that by-gone contest. Reason weighs far less with most men than sentiment and habit. The convictions and passions that four years of war kindled to white heat were worked far too deeply into the blood and bone of this people to have yet subsided into a calm and rational appreciation of results. We are sometimes reminded that a generation is growing up which had no part in the war. But these new voters do not enter on the field at twenty-one as dispassionate spectators; they have been growing up as boys in the households whose fathers and mothers bear the tremendous impress which the war gave. Nor have the fifteen years that have intervened tended wholly to oblivion of the past. During that time party spirit has been constantly fed on the memories of that past. The populations of the two sections have mingled but little. The cold or hostile reception of Northern immigrants, and the overbearing spirit of the master class toward their former slaves, have kept up an irritation which just now finds both expression and stimulus in the most popular novel of the day. The blunders of the Democracy, cleverly exaggerated by Republican demagogues, have helped to keep up an alarm which is slow to cool and easy to rekindle. That alarm, fanned by last summer's extra session, gave to the Republicans such gains at the autumn elections as seemed to put the Presidency within their easy reach. Going a little back, in the '76 campaign the Republican managers made suspicion of the South their key-note, and on that cry, in spite of heavy losses, carried most of the Northern States, and successfully claimed the prize. In a word, it is hard to see how any observant man can doubt that a distrust of the South inherited from the war is still an enormous factor in Northern political sentiment; and that, if weak with the most educated class, it is potent in that substantial middle class on which we must in the long run mainly rely in our efforts for political advance. And the immediate application of this fact is that, for our most hopeful fight against Grantism, we should try to secure a candidate against whom this sentiment will not be aroused.

With this need for conciliating honest "Stalwartism" is to be connected this other fact, that in legislation and administration—in the actual work of the Government—there no longer exists a real Southern question. The interference policy wore itself out long ago, and is wholly unlikely to return. Whatever danger exists to State rights extends equally to North and South. Stalwartism, while it survives as a sentiment to influence popular elections, is dead past resurrection as a thing of legislative or executive policy. It died on the day when President Hayes withdrew the Federal troops from Columbia and New Orleans. The blue-coats are no more likely to reappear there to decide a local quarrel than in Boston or New York. Meantime, industry and education are slowly removing the essential differences between the old slave and free States. The new trunk-lines of railroad which are to serve as commercial arteries uniting the West and Northwest to the South and Southeast will do more for civilization and for national union than all our speech-makers. With every year the scars of war and slavery are healing. We have already reached the point where the South as a section is substantially safe from any serious injury from Congress or President, other than such as the whole country is exposed to.

Here, then, are a few great facts of the political situation: An alliance in Grant's candidature of all the most serious dangers to our Government—machine politics, corruption, military hero-worship, and a distinct menace of force; in Blaine a candidate who, if less dangerous, is more disreputable; among the mass of the people a very imperfect discernment of the present peril, and a considerable servitude to sentiments inherited from the war; which sentiments, however, spend their force on election-day, and can have no effect on governmental policy. In such a state of things the clear course for us is to put forward a man who is satisfactory to the now harmless Stalwart sentiment, while he represents civil procedure as against military force, personal independence as against machine rule, and personal purity as against corruption. Exactly such a man is found in Mr. Edmunds. He thoroughly represents that dogged fidelity to the results of the war which is deep in the hearts of the mass of old Republicans. His is the thoroughly respectable Stalwartism of honest conviction. Four years ago it would have been an objection to him in the eyes of Independents and Liberals; now they can well overlook his position on an issue which they know is practically obsolete. He is not enough of a reformer or an idealist to be distasteful to the average voter. Indeed, he is not enough of a reformer to satisfy fully most Independents. But he is not a worker of the party machine—which is the fatal objection to Sherman. He is not a seeker of the Presidency; a merit so rare that it arouses a genuine enthusiasm toward a cold and "unmagnetic" man. His personal character is above suspicion. He has produced one measure of constructive statesmanship which successfully met the gravest emergency since the war—the Electoral Commission. He has persistently urged on Congress, against the shameful apathy of both parties, an adequate provision for the counting of the next electoral vote. Sherman's achievements as a financier are a high recommendation of his statesmanship; but in his employment of the machine, his sedulous self-seeking, his readiness to jump with the popular humor, as when he waved the bloody shirt in Maine last autumn, and even as to immaculateness of personal reputation, he is inferior to the Vermont Senator. As against Grant, Edmunds is an almost ideal representative of the reverence for constitutional spirit and form, the true legal temper, which distinguishes the statesman from the soldier. There could hardly be a better man to set against the impatience and distrust of popular self-government, the hankering after a "short cut" and a "strong man," the readiness to oppose fraud with force, which support Grant's candidacy. If he is not an ardent civil-service reformer, he would be safer to give us a clean and improving civil-service than any of his rivals. He seems to be the one man who is thoroughly acceptable to the old Republican rank and file, and at the same time represents all for which liberals and reformers ought to care most. To work vigorously for his nomination, and, in case of his defeat by Grant or Blaine, to urge Bayard upon the Cincinnati Convention, seems to me the true course for the coming three months—months which will probably be the real battle-field of the election. G. S. M.

SPRINGFIELD, MASS., March 23, 1880.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. have in press a 'Cyclopædia of American History,' by Benson J. Lossing, and a 'Life of Horace Bushnell.'——D. Appleton & Co. have promptly issued the third volume of the translation of Mme. de Rémusat's Memoirs, and will shortly bring out the fifth and last volume of Theodore Martin's 'Life of the Prince Consort.' They announce also 'Recollections and Opinions of an Old Pioneer,' by the first governor of California, Peter H. Burnett.——For the first time an American novel will be added to the Leisure-Hour Series of Henry Holt & Co.—'Democracy,' by an anonymous writer.——A new and tasteful edition of Prof. Boyesen's 'Gunnar,' being the fourth, has just been issued by Charles Scribner's Sons.——'Alaska,' by the Rev. Sheldon Jackson, D.D., is in the press of Dodd, Mead & Co.——John Wiley & Sons announce 'Resources of Southwest Virginia,' by Prof. Boyd.——Jansen, McClurg & Co , Chicago, have in press and in preparation 'The Story of Religion in England,' by Rev. Brooke Herford; 'The Life of Mozart,' a translation from the German of Louis Nahl; 'The Story of Aunt Lizzie Aiken,' by Mrs. President Anderson, of Chicago University; and 'Demosthenes,' a translation from the French of Prof. L. Brédif, of Toulouse.——Houghton, Osgood & Co. will publish 'The Story of the Jubilee Singers,' by J. B. T. Marsh, and 'Certain Dangerous Tendencies in American Life, and Other Papers,' familiar to readers of the *Atlantic*, by the Rev. J. B. Harrison.——Gebbie & Barrie, Philadelphia, will soon begin issuing in parts 'The Art Treasures of America,' selected and described from public and private collections by "Edward Strahan" (Mr. Earl Shinn). Each part will contain two photogravures, a full-page wood-cut, and fac-similes in the text.——A limited edition for subscribers only is announced of 'The Stage, or Recollections of Actors and Acting,' by Mr. James E. Murdoch, with a biographical sketch of the author. The publishers are J. M. Stoddart & Co., Philadelphia. An etched portrait of the author, and his autograph, a portrait of Edwin Forrest, and a list of subscribers will be added to each copy. The volume will be of a size suitable for further illustrating, to which end it will be delivered in paper covers if desired.——'Reminiscences of an Idler,' by the once notorious Chevalier Wikoff, will be published shortly in this city by Fords, Howard & Hulbert.——J. W. Bouton has the American agency of Bigmore & Wyman's 'Bibliography of Printing,' a work of enormous labor and singular value, which bears the London imprint of Bernard

Quaritch. Vol. i. (A—L) is now ready. But 250 copies have been printed. Cuts of printers' marks and fac-similes of block-prints abound.——We observe that in the French edition of the International Scientific Series Dr. J. W. Draper's 'History of the Conflict between Religion and Science' has reached a thirteenth edition, surpassing every other on the list. Quatrefages's 'The Human Species' is second in popularity.——From the annual report for 1879 of Prof. Geo. H. Cook, State Geologist of New Jersey, we learn that the reconnaisance of the U. S. Geodetic Survey of the northern part of the State is chiefly done, and the work of observations not quite half done; the southern portion has not yet been undertaken. Six new stations have been started to fill out the gaps in previous meteorological records, and enable the climatology of New Jersey to be published in the next annual report. A valuable feature of the present document is a list of iron-mines with notes; a beautiful map of the economic geology of New Jersey is added.——A railroad map of Massachusetts accompanies the eleventh annual report of the Board of Railroad Commissioners, which contains little of striking or general interest, unless we except Appendix G on several forms of railway signals.——No. 9 of the Rhode Island Historical Tracts (Providence: S. S. Rider) is one of the best of the series, to which no rubbish is admitted, and the appreciation of which is shown by the publisher's advertisement to repurchase the earlier numbers. It consists of a reprint of Stephen Hopkins's 'True Representation of the Plan formed at Albany in 1754 for uniting the Colonies,' in connection with a much rarer tract, 'A Short Reply to Mr. Stephen Hopkins's Vindication, etc , by Philolethes.' Mr. Rider has edited these in his learned manner, and even gives the best memoir of Hopkins yet written. He announces his intention to reprint in this series Hopkins's unfinished History of Providence.——Mr. Edwin Bolitho, of the *Engineering and Mining Journal*, No. 27 Park Place, has compiled and published in very handy form a 'Pocket Mining Atlas,' which embraces only the Western and Southwestern regions, with the exception of Dahlonega District (gold) in Georgia, and the Lake Superior Copper and Iron District, in Michigan. Perhaps in another edition the rising silver-mines of the New England coast will find a place.——Of the adornments of *Le Livre* for March, a hitherto unpublished portrait of J. J. Rousseau, after Friley's drawing in sepia, is the most notable. Louis Ulbach has a caustic review of Zola's latest work ("quand l'intérêt languit," he says, "tout à coup Nana retire sa chemise"), and not without reason censures his publisher, Charpentier, for debasing his list with such "realism." Among the other reviews we remark Larchey's 'Dictionnaire des Noms,' an attempt to ascertain the derivation of some 20,000 French surnames; and Van Haeghem's 'Dictionnaire des Devises des Hommes de Lettres, Imprimeurs, Libraires, etc.,' Belgian and Dutch.——A few weeks ago the Comédie-Française gave a special performance of "Hernani" to commemorate the fiftieth anniversary of its first production. For a poet to be alive half a century after the first performance of one of his best plays, and to see that the piece still holds its own, is surely no common thing. It is in a measure as a commemoration of this that MM. Hetzel et Cie, the publishers, and M. Quantin, the printer, are about to put forth the first volume of a final and definitive *ne varietur* edition of Victor Hugo's complete works, to be completed in about forty 8vo volumes of 500 pp. each, with a carefully revised text, new and variorum notes, etc., etc. This edition is ultimately to include all the poet's writings—those now published and those hereafter to appear.

—Dr. Frederic Louis Ritter, of Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y., has undertaken to prepare for Edward Schuberth & Co., of this city, an English edition of 'Schubert's Musical Dictionary,' adapted to the wants of the American public. "All the principal musicians in America, whether of native or foreign birth, will be noticed in the Dictionary, as well as all topics relating to American musical culture." To this end Dr. Ritter requests that musicians will send him information regarding themselves and their labors.

—We have been favored with a copy of the elegantly printed invitation addressed to the governors of the old Thirteen States and of Tennessee by a joint committee of the Washington Light Infantry, of Charleston, and the citizens of Spartanburg County, S.C., who have in charge the celebration on Jan. 17, 1881, of the hundredth anniversary of the battle of Cowpens. It is proposed to erect a massive granite pedestal on the site of this important Revolutionary victory, and it is hoped that a joint resolution now pending in Congress to provide a bronze statue of Gen. Daniel Morgan will enable the monument to be completed in a worthy manner at the appointed time. The chairman of the committee is Mayor Courtenay, of Charleston, and the intention is to make the occasion serve the useful purpose of promoting national feeling and good-feeling. President Hayes has consented to be present, and doubtless the several governors or their representatives will not be wanting. It is desired also that the descendants of officers and men who fought at Cowpens should attend the celebration. Gen. Morgan himself is distinctly honored by the committee as a Jerseyman, and not as an adopted Virginian; and the varied service which he performed, from Quebec all the way to the South Carolina border, and particularly at the last in suppressing the Pennsylvania Whiskey Rebellion, make him the very type of a national hero. Greene, on the other hand, was a New-Englander, and his troops were a medley from all the colonies. These considerations not only will make it easy for all sections to participate in commemorating the battle of Cowpens, but give a peculiar weight to the petition for Congressional assistance.

—The April number of the *International Review* is a particularly good one, so far at least as good editing can contribute to that end. Mr. Clement Hill has an elaborate article on Mr. Gladstone by way of a review of George Barnett Smith's 'Life.' Karl Blind writes of "The Revolutionary Movement in Russia" with a good deal of bitterness towards "the last representative of a long line of cruel, blood-stained tyrants," but without making clear precisely what is wanted and needed by the Czar's subjects. Mrs. S. W. Whitman has a paper full of reverential enthusiasm for the late W. M. Hunt. "Tammany Hall" is described with considerable candor and lucidity by Mr. Van Buren Denslow, of Chicago, which to the many persons who have the vaguest notion of what it is should be a real service. Mr. C. C. Andrews gives an account of the liquor-license system, first adopted in Gothenburg, Sweden, which, though it has been discussed in the British Parliament, Mr. Andrews is probably right in assuming generally unknown in this country. It consists of licensing a single corporation in any city to sell spirits, and allowing it but six per cent. profit on the paid-up capital, the rest of its income being paid into the city treasury; the company employ salaried agents, who, of course, do not share in the proceeds of sales. The obvious theoretical advantages are the securing of disinterested liquor-dealers on the one hand and a public revenue on the other; and in practice the system seems to work well, though for different reasons no definite report upon its success or failure has yet been made. Mr. Henry James, jr., reviews the Letters of Eugène Delacroix in a charming essay, which not only presents Delacroix to the reader, but touches lightly and suggestively various general questions germane to or arising out of its immediate subject. Done by a writer of Mr. James's experience and native tact, this, of course, is one of the most agreeable as it is certainly one of the most valuable elements of criticism, and we do not reflect upon either the amount or the quality of it here in expressing a wish that Mr. James had given us a more complete literary portrait than he has done. The Letters, to be sure, are somewhat meagre material, but, though they do not explicitly tell one much about Delacroix, they are suggestive enough to enable a commentator to avoid fragmentariness, we should say; and apparently Mr. James, confident of the quality of his work, has felt a carelessness about its completeness that is not the less annoying because of the air of unpretentiousness which it secures. But in point of quality this essay, or at least the first five or six pages of it, is exquisite work. It is needless, perhaps, to add that some of its observations, such as "Art is really but a point of view, and genius but a way of looking at things," and a suggestion that the influence of Protestantism has checked "the vivacity of the artistic instinct" in England, have had the effect of inflaming some excellent and serious people; for the benefit of these Mr. James might consider the propriety of copiously annotating whatever he writes that can possibly be taken in two ways.

—The *Catholic World* begins a new volume with the April number, which is sent forth "with fresh hope inspired" by a letter of approval from Cardinal McCloskey—in writing which the prelate certainly evinces his good sense—and with sundry improvements of type and general style. The contents also indicate improvement, and we wish we knew how to say that, for the moment at least, there seems a slight relaxation in the characteristic severity of the magazine, so satisfactory to the faithful no doubt, but at the same time so discouraging to the castigated, without an implied criticism; any criticism from without must appear to the conductors of so zealous a periodical one of the idlest things in the world. The reader, however, who looks for any thing like paltering may be set at ease by turning to the stern article on "The New Christianity," in which the credo thus described is pitilessly exposed. It seems that Max Müller, Dean Stanley, and Matthew Arnold have entered into a kind of con-

spiracy to undermine the foundations of the Christian religion, the first furnishing a scientific basis for the attack, the last acting as a sort of spy within the enemy's ranks, and the Dean of Westminster lending the scheme the weight of his authority. In the more clerical language of the writer Dean Stanley is the "high-priest," Mr. Arnold the "prophet," and Max Müller the "theologian" of this "novelty in religion." From the published American addresses of Dean Stanley extracts are given which when denuded of their context have indeed an ugly look, and a good Catholic would be entirely justified in inferring from them that the Dean was a rank infidel. This is a more serious thing, we suppose, than the references to Mr. Arnold's "blasphemy" and "effrontery," or to "the gratuitousness, the self-acknowledged impossibility, and the evident absurdity" of Max Müller's theories. Anglicanism can hardly be assumed to stand or fall with either of these gentlemen, but the deduction from Dean Stanley's apostasy, namely, that there is no dogmatic security to be found without the pale of the true Church, will, of course, be promptly made. It is perhaps open to him to reply that such obvious misinterpretation of him is too characteristic of Jesuitical controversy to have an effect upon any intelligent person; but at least it is done with sufficient cleverness to warn a wise ecclesiastic of the risk he runs when he coquets with the ungodly in the interests of a "broad church." It does in a measure serve to show that the attitude which regards "liberality" in theology as an end in itself, instead of as the best means of arriving at the end of truth, has its drawbacks.

—Last week's Italian opera introduced a new opera and a new prima donna. "La Forza del Destino," it is true, was performed here fifteen years ago, but it has since been rewritten by Verdi, and is in its present form substantially new. Its plot is of the most gloomy and monotonous character, hardly relieved by any bright and cheerful incident. It failed to gain a success at its first performance in St. Petersburg in 1862, and it is not likely to maintain now a permanent position in the repertory of modern opera. It contains none of the pretty melodies that have made "Trovatore," "Traviata," and "Rigoletto" so universally popular, and it is equally wanting in the finer dramatic and instrumental effects which distinguish Verdi's latest compositions—"Macbeth," "Don Carlos," and "Aïda." Mme. Marie Louise Swift made on this occasion her first appearance in Italian opera in this country. This lady possesses a very pleasing, sympathetic voice, which, however, by lack of breadth and dramatic force, is unqualified for tragic opera. She might acceptably fill a smaller part in lyric music, but she failed to make an impression in the passionate, highly dramatic character of *Leonora*, the heroine of the opera. She was most effective in the great scene of the last act, "Pace, mio Dio," a composition of decided merit, and perhaps the most beautiful number of the whole work. The laurels of the evening belong without doubt to the two artists whose presence has lent grace and interest to every performance in which they have taken part, and who are unquestionably the most valuable acquisitions of Mr. Mapleson's troupe—namely, Campanini and Galassi; their duets at the conclusion of the second and fourth acts were by far the most effective numbers. Several solos, such as the brilliant air in the second act by Galassi, "Io son Pereda," and Campanini's opening aria in the third act, "Oh tu che in seno," were of equal merit and interest. Miss Cary was very pretty and spirited as the gipsy *Preziosilla*, and her song, "Al suon del tamburo," with accompanying chorus, and her "Rataplan" at the finale of the third act, were enthusiastically cheered and encored by the crowded audience. Herr Behrens was very good as *Padre Guardiano*, and Sig. Del Puente's basso bouffe in the humorous part of *Fra Melitone* was a delightful surprise to his numerous admirers. The chorus was fair, considering a first night, and the orchestra, as it always is under Signor Arditi, was excellent. The opera was repeated with great success on Monday. On Good Friday Rossini's "Stabat Mater," followed by a miscellaneous concert, was given before a crowded audience, and repetitions of "Dinorah" and "Aïda" completed the week's programme.

—The often-postponed second chamber-music concert by Mr. Joseffy took place in Chickering Hall on Saturday afternoon. The most interesting number of the programme was a duet by Saint-Saëns for two pianos, on a theme from one of Beethoven's sonatas. Mr. Joseffy received excellent support from young Mr. Rietzel, who rendered his part with great delicacy and finish. The novelties of the performance were a *berceuse* by Mr. Joseffy for violin, a weak and insignificant composition, rendered by Mr. Brandt in a cold and spiritless manner; and a minuet by Rheinberger, for the left hand alone, played by Mr. Joseffy, which is rather an astonishing feat of mechanical skill than a pleasing work of art. Hummel's great septuor for piano, wind, and string instruments was the concluding number.

—The well known antiquarian bookselling house of S. Calvary & Co., at Berlin, has now for sale a remarkable set of Hogarth's engravings. It consists of 267 plates, including most of the rare pieces in nearly all their varieties of states, and a number of entirely unrecorded engravings. The whole set is said to be in a state of perfect preservation. We give here a summary description of it, noting with an initial those plates that are to be found in the list in Nagler's 'Künstler-Lexicon':

1. Arms of the Duchess of Kendall; 2. Rape of the Lock, 1717; 3. The Lottery, 1721; 4. Emblematic print on the South Sea traffic (N. 2); 5. Masquerades and Operas (N. 8); 6. Farinelli, Cuzzoni, and Senesino (1732); 7. Beggar's Opera (N. 5); 8. View of the British Stage (N. 9); 9. Terræ Filius; 10–21. Hudibras (N. 10); 22–40. Hudibras (N.11); 41–53. Motraye's Travels (N. 3); 54. Masquerade Ticket; 55. Political Clyster; 56. King Henry VIII. and Anna Bullen (N. 58); 57. Bainbridge on Trial for Murder; 58. Beggar's Opera; 59. Society of Artists, 1730; 60. The Indian Emperor; 61. Taste; 62. Sarah Malcolm, *avant la lettre* (N. 14); 63. The Farmer's Return; 64. Laughing Audience; 65. Southwark Fair (N. 16); 66–71. Harlot's Progress (N. 17), first state; 72–77. The same, second state; 78. Singing Company; 79. Midnight Modern Conversation (N. 15), first state, in red (Nichols mentions the only known copy, in the British Museum); 80. Same in black, second state; 81–88. Rake's Progress (N. 18), first state; 89–96. Same, second state; 97. Here Justice, etc.; 98, 99. Before and After (N. 19), first state; 100, 101. Same, second state; 102. Sleeping Congregation (N. 20), first state; 103. Same, second state; 104. Same, third state; 105. Distressed Poet (N. 21), first state; 106. Same, second state; 107. Company of Undertakers; 108. Lecture (N. 22); 109–112. Four Parts of the Day (N. 23); 113. Strolling Actresses (N. 24), first state; 114. Same, second state; 115–121. Don Quixote; 122. Enraged Musician (N. 25), first state; 123. Same, second state; 124. Martin Folkes (N. 27); 125. Taste in High Life; 126. Mystery of Masonry; 127. Benjamin Hoadley; 128. Characters and Caricatures; 129–134. Mariage à la Mode (N. 26), first state; 135–140. Same, second state; 141. Battle of the Pictures (N. 59); 142. Lord Lovat (N. 28); 143. Garrick (N. 29); 144. T. Morell; 145. Subscription-Ticket to the March to Finchley; 146. Subscription-Ticket to Moses; 147. Stage-Coach (N. 30), first state; 148. Same, second state; 149–160. Industry and Idleness (N. 31); 161. Hymen and Cupid (N. 1); 162. Gate of Calais (N. 32); 163. Thomas Coram, first state; 164. Same, second state; 165–168. Ticket for the Foundling's Hospital; 170. March to Finchley (N. 34), first state; 171. Same, second state; 172. Same, third state; 173–176. Stages of Cruelty (N. 37); 177, 178. The third and fourth plate of the former as wood-cuts; 179. Gin Lane (N. 36); 180. Beer Street (N. 35), first state; 181. Same, second state; 182. Columbus breaking the Egg, as subscription-ticket for the Analysis of Beauty; Hogarth has added the name of Thomas Stewell (only one copy known, in the British Museum); 183. Same, second state (N. 41); 184. Moses brought to Pharaoh's Daughter (N. 40), first state; 185. Same, second state; 186. St. Paul before Felix (N. 39), first state; 187. Same, second state; 188. Same, third state; 189. Analysis of Beauty, frontispiece; 190, 191. Plates to it, first state; 192, 193. Same, second state; 194. Silver Tankard; 195. Subscription-Ticket to the Election; 196–199. Election (N. 42), first state; 200–203. Same, second state; 204, 205. France and England (N. 44, 45), first state; 206, 207. Same, second state; 208. The Bench (proof impression, no copy known); 209. Same, without inscription, "The unfinished group," etc. (no copy known); 210. Same (copy as described by Nichols); 211. Cockpit (N. 46); 212. Time Smoking a Picture (Nichols mentions a copy in the British Museum as the only one known without the word κρατης in the inscription; the word is not in the inscription in this copy); 213. Five Orders of Periwigs (N. 47), first state; 214. Same, second state; 215. Frontispiece to Architecture; 216. Frontispiece to the Artist's Catalogue; 217. Tailpiece (N. 55); 218. Credulity (N. 48); 219, 220. The Times (N. 49, 50), first state; 221. Same, first plate in second state; 222. Henry Fielding (*avant la lettre*); 223. John Wilkes (N. 51); 224. Churchill (N. 52), first state; 225. Same, second state; 226. Same, third state; 227. Bathos (N. 56); 228. Samaritan (N. 57), first state; 229. Same, second state; 230. Pool of Bethesda; 231. The Politician; 232. Heads from the Cartoons of Hampden Court; 233–241. Hogarth's Tour; 242. Hogarth's Crest; 243. Shrimp Girl; 244. Cornfield; 245–248. Characters who frequented Burton's Coffee-House; 249. Sealing the Sepulchre; 250. Pisces; 251. House of Commons; 252. Sir James Thornhill; 253. Sigismunda; 254. Händel; 255. Mr. Pine; 256. Daniel Lock; 257. St. Paul before Felix (N. 38), first state; 260–263. Caricatures on Hogarth by P. Sandby: A new Dunciad (1746), The Author Run Mad (1751), A Mountebank Painter (1754), The Burlesquer Burlesqued (1760); 264. Hogarth's Portrait (N. 33); 265. Hogarth Painting the Comic Muse (N. 43); 266, 267. The French Banquet (1747), not mentioned by Nichols; the more interesting as, although bearing the inscription "Invented by Hogarth," it is proved by N. 267 that this is only a copy of a print of 1626 by I. v. d. Velde.

—The subject of what French novels are suitable reading for young girls is discussed, for the benefit of French Protestant families, in *La Lecture* for March. The writer is of the opinion that a mother ought never to allow her daughter to read a novel with which she is not herself familiar; and that, furthermore, the reading should be done in the mother's presence, and, when practicable, aloud, in order that the girl may have the advantage of her parent's comments. Of George Sand's works six are recommended: 'L'Homme de Neige,' 'La Mare au Diable,'

'La petite Fadette,' 'François le Champi,' 'Jean de la Roche,' and 'Mlle. la Quintinie.' Of Balzac, the *Lecture* writer views with favor only 'Eugénie Grandet.' Three novels by About are recommended, though "we are far from placing him very high as a novelist; but his clear and rapid style is profitable to study." These are 'Tolla,' 'Germaine,' and 'Le Roi des Montagnes.' Of these, the first two are less entertaining, and, it seems to us, much more *scabreux*, than some of the author's other works, 'Trente et Quarante,' for instance. Of Sandeau's tales we find praised: 'La Maison de Penarvan' and 'Mlle. de Seiglière,' and Mrs. Craven's books are recommended, in spite of obvious faults. "But we do not counsel their perusal, *without commentary*, by romantic or excitable natures," and 'Le Mot de l'Énigme' is strongly condemned. Against certain authors of the day mothers are especially warned: Theuriet, for instance, "is a master, and has preserved the tradition of healthful fiction; but he is *de race gauloise*, and there are too evident signs of it in his writings." The same is true of Daudet's novels, except "'Le Petit Chose,' which was written especially for children, and some of his stories." Some other novelists have written one or two charming books for the young, but mothers must be on their guard against letting this serve as guaranty for the wholesomeness of their other writings. Thus, Malot's 'Romain Kalbris' and 'Sans Famille,' and Assolant's 'Montluc le Rouge' and 'Le Capitain Corcoran' are deemed worthy of high praise, in spite of the bad character of most of their authors' productions.

—The *Gegenwart*, for February 7, publishes an interesting article on the government of Hamburg, from which our own municipal reformers might get valuable hints. The Government consists of two branches, the Senate and the "Bürgerschaft." The second body is formed of one hundred and sixty members, of whom eighty are chosen by manhood-suffrage, forty by real-estate owners, and forty by those citizens who are, or who have been, members of the administrative boards, the courts, or the board of trade. The Senate consists of eighteen members chosen for life, of whom nine are lawyers and nine merchants. When a vacancy takes place the remaining members and the Bürgerschaft appoint each four electors, who select four persons to be voted upon; of these the Senate rejects two, and the Bürgerschaft one of those remaining. But the part of the Hamburg constitution which interests us is the organization of the administrative boards. These are nine in number: Finance, Trade, Public Works, Military Affairs, Schools, Justice, Police, Charities, and Foreign Affairs. At the head of each of these boards stands a senator chosen by the Senate and removable at will. The most important of these bodies is the Board of Finance, formed of two senators, besides the president, and ten citizens. The latter are chosen for ten years, one going out annually. To fill such a vacancy the ten citizen-members propose to the Bürgerschaft three names from which to choose; if none of these suits, the elective body may substitute a fourth by a two-thirds majority. The presiding senator is practically the minister of finance; the other two senators his assistants and substitutes. The branches of the administration, such as the public debt, the treasury, etc., are assigned to the different citizen-members, and no draft on the treasury is honored unless countersigned by the member having charge of the department into which it comes, and who thus acts as auditor. One or more of these citizen-members sit also as delegates of the Board of Finance in each of the other boards, in order to give it the benefit of their advice and later to represent its interests in their own body. The citizen-representatives in these boards are, for the most part, merchants—*i.e.*, heads of the great trading houses—who bring their wide commercial experience to bear upon the interests of the city. Legislation usually originates in the boards, and is, in all cases, decided by the Senate. Finally, a person chosen to any office can decline to fill it only on the ground of other public duties, or of advanced age; but the public spirit in the Hamburg merchant class is said to be so great as to make this regulation superfluous.

—The material for the study of aboriginal languages has just been increased by the welcome accession of a 'Dictionary and Grammar of the Aimará Language,' spoken in the interior and southern portion of Peru by the Collas (*pron.* Cólyas) and cognate tribes. This language is closely related to the Quichua, and at the present period its area is topographically surrounded on all sides by various (Kechua or) Quichua dialects. Though highly developed in forms, Aimará is much less studied by scientists than the Quichua, the latter having had the privilege of being the court idiom of the Incas and of the ruling portion of the Peruvians before Pizarro invaded their vast domain. Many grammatic, derivational, and lexical forms are more archaic in Aimará than in Quichua and in other cognate dialects, and to write a comparative grammar of this southern family would be impossible without a close study of the special dialect. The work alluded to above is a republication of the 'Arte y Vocabulario de la Lengua Aymara, compuesto por el P(adre) Ludovico Bertonio' (Leipzig: B. G. Teubner. 1879. 3 vols. 8vo). Bertonio's work, dating as far back as 1603 and 1612, is here reproduced in a fac-simile edition by Mr. Julius Platzmann, a scientist favorably known by his republication of ancient materials for the study of Brazilian languages and other works of a kindred character. The Aimará dictionary consists of two parts: Spanish-Aimará and Aimará-Spanish, and contains over twelve thousand terms of the language.

ERASMUS DARWIN.*

THIS volume is made up of two parts very different in character and purpose. Dr. Krause's account of the author of the 'Loves of the Plants' is a scientific essay originally published in *Kosmos*. Dr. Charles Darwin's "preliminary notice" is a brief biography of his grandfather, written partly with a view of correcting some glaring errors and misrepresentations to be found in Miss Seward's 'Memoirs.' This book, once so well known, has in the progress of time lost its interest for the general public, and it now seems probable that posterity, instead of relying for their knowledge of Dr. Darwin upon his early biographer, will owe what they care to remember of Miss Seward to the connection between her name and that of her slandered friend. For the facts of the case leave little doubt in the mind of the reader that many of the statements made in the 'Memoirs' were suggested by that peculiar sort of feminine malice often inspired by disappointed affection. Miss Seward was a biographer of a type now happily less frequent than it once was. She allowed herself liberties in narration which, tried by our modern standards, are surprising. She invented an interesting death-bed scene, in which persons figure who were not present at the death of Erasmus Darwin; she misstates his age at the time of his death; she declares that on hearing of the suicide of a favorite son he behaved with unparalleled inhumanity, which she sarcastically describes as "self-command," and she does not hesitate throughout the book to put long speeches into the mouths of her characters which cannot possibly have really been ever spoken. When asked for her authority as to Dr. Darwin's behavior on the death of his son, "she owned that it had been given merely on a report at a distant place, without any enquiry having been made from a single person who could have really known what happened."

Erasmus Darwin was born in 1731. His father, Robert, was the first member of the family who developed the intellectual tastes so strongly marked in the later generations. This Robert Darwin, if we may judge from his singular litany, praying deliverance

> "From a morning that doth shine,
> From a boy that drinketh wine,
> From a wife that talketh Latine,"

was in his own way a poet, and to judge by a paper of the antiquarian Dr. Stukeley, quoted by his present biographer, based on "an account from my friend Robert Darwin, Esq., of Lincoln's Inn, a person of Curiosity, of a human Sceleton, impressed in Stone, found lately by the Rector of Elston," he had some taste for science. He had four sons, of whom Erasmus was the youngest. For an account of the childhood and early youth of Erasmus the materials are scanty. Of this portion of his life a curious and amusing memorial is preserved in a letter from his sister Susannah, written at the age of eighteen, and his reply written at the age of sixteen. His sister sends him an account of her "abstinence this Lent" and begs to be informed in reply what his "temperance" has been, and asks his opinion on the following difficult point:

"As soon as we kill our hog, I intend to take part thereof with ye Family, for I'm informed by a learned Divine yt Hogs Flesh is Fish, and has been so ever since ye Devil entered into ym and they ran into ye Sea; if you and the rest of the Casuists in your neighborhood are of ye same oppinion, it will be a greater satisfaction to me, in resolving so knotty a point of Conscience."

To this her brother playfully replies:

"I must inform you that we unanimously agree in ye Opinion of ye Learned Divine you mention, that Swine may indeed be fish but then they are a devillish sort of fish, and we can prove from ye same authority that all fish is flesh, whence we affirm Porck not only to be flesh but a devillish Sort of flesh; and I would advise you for conscience sake altogether to abstain from tasting it as I can assure you I have done, tho'

* 'Erasmus Darwin. By Ernst Krause. Translated from the German by W. S. Dallas. With a preliminary notice by Charles Darwin.' Portrait and woodcuts. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880.

roast Pork has come to Table several Times; and for my own part have lived upon puding, milk and vegetables all this Lent; but don't mistake me, I don't mean that I have not touch'd roast beef, mutton, veal, goose, fowl, etc., for what are all these? All flesh is grass!"

His sister's Lenten Diary gives what is, we presume, an exact picture of the observance of a fast by a conscientious young English girl in the middle of the last century. The following is the account given of one day:

"Febry 8. Wednesday Morning a little before seven I got up; said my prayers; worked till eight; yn took a walk, came in again and eate a farthing Loaf, yn dress'd me, red a chapter in ye Bible, and spun till One, yn dined temperately, viz: on Puddin, Bread and Cheese; spun again till Fore, took a walk, yn spun till half an hour past Five; eat an Apple, Chattered round ye Fire; and at Seven a little boyl'd Milk; and yn (takeing my leave of Cards ye night before) spun till nine; drank a Glass of Wine for ye Stomack sake; and at Ten retired into my Chamber to Prayers; drew up my Clock and set my Larum betwixt Six and Seven."

In November, 1756, Erasmus Darwin began practice as a physician; in 1781 he moved to Derby. He soon got some practice, which grew steadily year by year until it reached the figure, which for any one but a London physician must at that time have been very large, of £1,000 a year. His life was uneventful throughout, and it is a strong proof of the attractiveness of his character as well as of the charm of his biographer's style that this "notice" should be such entertaining and agreeable reading. From a variety of anecdotes, extracts from letters, and other slight details we get a very good picture of a man who played an interesting and important part in the early development of modern science. Dr. Krause regards him as the "intellectual precursor" of his grandson, and cites several passages from his works in proof of this. In the 'Economy of Vegetation,' for instance, we find the following important queries: "Were all the ammoniæ destroyed when the continents were raised? Or do some genera of animals perish by the increasing power of their enemies? Or do they still reside at inaccessible depths in the sea? Or do some animals change their forms gradually and become new genera?" Again, on the subject of rudimentary organs: "There are, likewise, some apparently useless or incomplete appendages to plants and animals which seem to show that they have gradually undergone changes from their original state. . . . Such as the halteres or rudiments of wings of some two-winged insects, and the paps of male animals; thus, swine have four toes, but two of them are imperfectly formed and not long enough for use." Dr. Krause instructively contrasts this with the language of Buffon, who says of the pig that it "does not appear to have been formed upon an original, special, and perfect plan, *since it is a compound of other animals;* it has evidently useless parts, or rather parts of which it cannot make any use—toes, all the bones of which are perfectly formed, and which nevertheless are of no service to it." As we understand Dr. Krause's view of the progress of this branch of science from the time of Buffon to that of Charles Darwin, we have first the struggle to free science from the incubus of the doctrine of final causes; next we have the ingenious suggestions of Erasmus Darwin as to evolution and descent; finally we have the demonstration by his grandson, supported by a vast array of facts, of the theories which merely floated through the mind of Erasmus as brilliant but unverifiable hypotheses. Indeed, he goes further than this, and maintains that Erasmus Darwin "was the first who proposed and consistently carried out a well-rounded theory with regard to the development of the living world, a merit which shines forth most brilliantly when we compare with it the vacillating and confused attempts of Buffon, Linnæus, and Goethe."

But Erasmus Darwin was not only a man of science. He was a poet, in his day a very popular poet, whose works went through many editions. His stately verses are repugnant to modern taste, and it is hard to imagine them ever becoming popular again. Yet this is in a great measure due to the fact that they are written in a language which is wholly gone by, and which in the ears of those educated in this post-Wordsworthian age sounds stilted and pompous. Byron called the author of the 'Loves of the Plants' a "mighty master of unmeaning rhyme," but this is unfair. His poetry is anything but unmeaning. It is at times even eloquent. The chief defect that would be found with it nowadays (leaving out of view the Johnsonese vocabulary and style) would be that it is rather rhetorical than poetical.

No one can read Dr. Krause's essay and the preliminary "notice" without feeling that he has been in the society of a man of genius. We may not be able to define precisely what we mean by the term, but there is no mistaking it. We feel it in his boyish letters and in his mature speculations. His mind was distinguished not merely by that intelligent curiosity with regard to the secrets of nature which was a noticeable intellectual feature in most of the educated men of his day, but by that wide grasp and capacity for generalization which is the sure indication of real scientific genius. Of his character his grandson gives a most agreeable picture There is, as he says, no safer test of character than the continued friendship of good and able men, and we find that a close intimacy existed between Erasmus Darwin and such men as Day (the eccentric author of 'Sandford and Merton,' of whom an entertaining account is given in the memoirs of Mr. Edgeworth), Small, Bolton, Watt, and Wedgwood. The leading trait of his moral character was, undoubtedly, benevolence. A keen sympathy with all forms of suffering pervades his poetry and his correspondence. He was, indeed—if we can use the word without calling up its disagreeable modern associations—a philanthropist. He never lost the opportunity during his active though uneventful life of turning his scientific knowledge to account in the relief of human misery, and his keen sense of injustice and wrong often lends to his verses a passionate and noble energy which, if not true poetry, has upon the reader the effect of true poetry, as, for example, in the familiar lines ending:

> "But wrapp'd in might with terrors all his own,
> He speaks in thunder when the deed is done.
> Hear him, ye Senates! Hear this truth sublime,
> He who allows oppression shares the crime."

GENERAL HOOD'S MEMOIRS.*

II.

HOOD'S movement in October to the rear of Sherman's army was every way admirably conceived and admirably executed. It was well calculated to draw Sherman back from Georgia and transfer the war again to Tennessee. It became the occasion of the *coup de grâce* to the Confederacy, because Hood had become so weak in numbers that Sherman could afford to leave him to be disposed of by Thomas with a fraction of the army whilst he himself went to the sea. The popular discussion of the authorship of the idea of the march to Savannah overlooks the thing which alone is important from a military standpoint. It is of no real consequence whether Grant or Sherman or Bishop Simpson first thought of it. What gave it value was the decision *to do* it when so active and audacious a general as Hood was in the rear with a veteran army of forty thousand men. Sherman's campaign and his military repute depended not merely upon his performing his own movement, but upon his calculation of the means his subordinate could command in Tennessee for the fulfilment of the task to be done there, and to make the general result the astounding success it was. It is in assuming responsibilities of this sort that the metal of a commander is tested, and hosts of men have broken down under it who have led divisions or corps with the utmost brilliancy.

Hood sorrowfully recounts the disappointments and delays which attended his march against Schofield in Southern Tennessee, but as soon as he had begun it, he justified his claim to be considered an able strategist. His march by way of Lawrenceburg upon Columbia on Duck River, where it was essential to Schofield to preserve his communications with Thomas at Nashville, was well conceived and swiftly executed; but so was the counter move, though there was no time to spare. Again he lost no time, but occupied the Union army in front whilst he led Cheatham's and Stewart's corps by a détour to Spring Hill, another key-point in the rear. But Schofield also withdrew across the river and put his divisions in *échelon* northward. Hood had, no doubt, the great superiority in force when he reached Spring Hill, and blames severely the failure of Cheatham to make a headlong attack. It is possible, but by no means certain, that he might have gained an advantage by it, and he was right in trying it. Schofield was manœuvring for time. Thomas was collecting and organizing the rest of his army at Nashville and every day's delay was of great value to him. He meant to take the field command in person as soon as his detachments could be concentrated, and Schofield was, under his instructions, holding Hood back, even to the extent of consciously taking grave risks, to prevent his appearance before Nashville sooner than might be convenient for Thomas. The delay at Columbia was therefore purposely made as long as was safe, and it was not an hour too short. Thinking and writing of it, Hood naturally repeats the refrain, "It might have been," but it is not certain that Cheatham could have done more at Spring Hill than Hardee did at Atlanta. The Union army had the thrilling experience of making a flank march by night within rifle-shot of the camp-fires of the enemy, whose sentinels had to

* 'Advance and Retreat. Personal Experiences in the United States and Confederate States Armies. By J. B. Hood, Lieutenant-General in the Confederate Army.' Published for the Hood Orphan Memorial Fund, New Orleans. 8vo, pp. 358.

be driven from the road that they might pass. But the enemy was east of them; they were marching "left in front," and had only to halt and face to be in line of battle, and their *morale* was such that it would have been no child's play to attack them. The roadside fences would have made a breastwork in a moment, and one division of the 4th corps was strongly placed as a pivot on which the rest of the army moved.

The narrative makes it clear that Hood impressed it on his officers that night that unless a supreme effort were now made their campaign would be a ruinous failure. They therefore gathered themselves for the attack at Franklin next day with a self-devotion and desperation which is best indicated by the telling fact that more than a dozen generals fell in leading the reiterated assaults, some of them within the slender line of defence, hardly worthy the name of breastworks, which had been thrown together. The position of Schofield's troops was not a desirable one, for they fought with their backs to the Harpeth River, in cold weather (November 30), with a broken bridge and a bad ford behind them. It was no part of Schofield's plan to fight south of the stream, but Hood's advance was too rapid to get the wagons across, and it was a fight to cover the movement of the army-trains, and was made by a part only of Schofield's command. Hood makes the most of such advantages as he had. He says he carried the outer line of works and for a time had driven the United States forces from the centre of their principal line, and that his enemy abandoned the field during the night. The well-established facts are that what he calls the outer line consisted of two brigades expressly ordered to observe only and not to fight, and which were almost literally run over by Hood's advancing line through the failure of their division commander to carry out his orders. It was this rush of fugitives at the centre which gave Hood's assault the only chance of success it had for a moment. Behind them as a cover his centre advanced, our men withholding their fire at that part of the line till their comrades could get in, and of course the gray-jackets came with them. That these were so terribly repulsed with such odds in their favor proves the character of the troops engaged against them better than any other argument could do. Hood concedes that the Federal line of defence was merely a nominal cover, and that it was hard and fair fighting. He says that about twenty thousand men made the assault, though the other corps was in close support, and he seems not to have gone to official sources for his estimate of his opponents. The official reports show that part of Schofield's forces were on the north side of the Harpeth, and two divisions of the 23d corps and one of the 4th corps constituted the Union line, while one brigade (Opdycke's) of the 4th corps was the only general reserve. Hood's really serious attack only covered the front of the two divisions of the 23d corps, one on each side of the Columbia pike, on which the reserve brigade was stationed till it advanced to support the broken line in front. He was therefore repulsed by greatly inferior numbers, and added the crowning and most destructive instance to the list of his brave but useless efforts to turn the tide by his aggressive tactics. In accordance with Thomas's plan, Schofield retired during the night, and the next day the Union army was concentrated at Nashville.

Hood's audacity in following up his movement to the lines of Nashville was characteristic, and was not unwise. It imposed upon the country North and South by the appearance of confidence and success, and tended to make his opponents believe his numbers and his resources superior to what they were in fact. Thomas's apparent timidity, which was really a confident "biding of his time" till he was ready, seemed to give color to Hood's assurance; but the battle of Nashville, when the Union army resumed the aggressive, proved that the enemy had worn out his strength, and broke before the first determined blow. Hood had abundant time to retire from before Nashville without awaiting Thomas's deliberately prepared attack, and his mistake was in delaying so long. Isham Harris, claiming to be Governor of Tennessee, was with him, and they were concerting measures to recruit his army by both volunteers and conscripts. This was a reason for including as much territory as possible within his lines, and takes away from his presence before Nashville the air of mere bravado which it would otherwise have. But he had played the game out to the end; his complete rout finished the great army with which Johnston had opened the campaign the spring before, and it appeared only once again, in the form of a subdivision of the force with which Bragg made an attack upon a part of Schofield's command at Kinston in March following, when both had been transferred to North Carolina.

With all the light on the history of 1864 which both Johnston and Hood have now given us, there seems to be no good reason for changing the judgment already intimated, that Hood's military conduct must be judged with regard to the political necessities of the Confederacy, which certainly imposed upon him the aggressive policy he adopted, and this was implied in his selection for command. Granting that Johnston was right in insisting that his prudent husbanding of his resources would most prolong the struggle, the Southern States were not prepared to admit that their task consisted in prolonging a nearly hopeless defence. Had they been ready for this, they would, no doubt, have opened negotiations for a surrender at once. The hope that one sharp campaign under a soldier of the "Jackson school" would splendidly retrieve their cause in the West was not to be given up without an effort, and the Richmond Government only gave voice to a common sentiment when it called upon Hood to lead that forlorn hope. We do not believe Jackson himself could have done it better, and we ought to give Hood full military credit for the indomitable courage and real ability he displayed in a campaign having considerable resemblance to that brilliant but unfortunate one which Napoleon conducted in 1814.

We have given our attention chiefly to Hood's career in the West because his book is written to vindicate his conduct there, and the sketch of his service in Virginia is only an outline, intended to show the confidence he had there inspired in Lee, in Jackson, and in Longstreet, and the reputation as a soldier which he carried with him into the Army of Tennessee. The feeling that he was on trial before all judges of military affairs made him claim for himself all that the incidents narrated could fairly sustain, and so gives, at times, an air of egotism to his story. Those earlier chapters, therefore, will be more appreciatively read (as they were written) after the rest of the work. Then the fault referred to will be easily pardoned as the result of the almost passionate earnestness with which the writer appeals to his earlier campaigns to prove that his soldierly audacity was not mere rashness and blind impetuosity.

In the account of his assault at Gaines's Mills he describes the position of Porter's corps as "heavily entrenched" and covered with *abattis*. We are told, however, by officers who were on that field that there was no entrenchment, and that the abattis consisted of a little slashing of the timber in their front. He tells also of recovering the crest of South Mountain in the battle of 14th September, 1862, after the Union troops had carried it. It has been abundantly demonstrated that the principal ridge south of the Hagerstown pike was never for a moment in real danger after the 9th corps had gained it in the morning. A detached hill in front was alternately held by both sides, but never occupied in force by Federal troops. It is to this alone he can refer. Still again, in the engagements about Atlanta, he says that on the 6th of August, 1864, a corps of our army assaulted French's division in position near Utoy Creek. The indisputable fact is that the assault was made by one brigade of the 23d corps, was explicitly ordered as a reconnoissance in force, and the loss was not half what he states. Such errors as these, and as his accidental misdating the battle of Fredericksburg by a month—putting it in January, 1863, instead of the December previous—only show that he was writing from memory, and from partial and incomplete data, and that his book must be judged for what it is—a very sincere but controversial defence of his policy as an army commander, and not as a systematic contribution to exact history. It will have a permanent value of its own, and will (as we think it should) modify favorably the judgment of the world upon his last important campaign.

POLITICAL ECONOMY FOR SCHOOLS.*

DR. CHAPIN succeeds in presenting "concisely" all that he offers to the young student, and the greater part of his text-book may be truly called a model of close and clear statement of economic truth. The concluding chapter, for instance, on International Trade, embracing the scientific grounds of free-trade and exposing the fallacies of protection, is as cogent and pungent a summing-up as can be found anywhere. Nevertheless the work is of unequal merit. We find no reference to the law of rent, with which the name of Ricardo is identified; nor to the law of population, which is associated with that of Malthus; nor any substitute for these two laws, which more than anything else constitute the foundation stones of modern political economy. It must be possible for one possessing Dr. Chapin's tact for making dark sayings clear, to make those laws plain to the comprehension of minds fitted to grasp the other portions of his work. Or, if he does not accept those laws as an important part of economic education, he is bound to say why not. For the

* 'First Principles of Political Economy, concisely presented for the use of classes in high-schools and academies. By Aaron L. Chapin, D.D., President of Beloit College.' New York: Sheldon & Co.

'The Economics of Industry. By Alfred Marshall and Mary Paley Marshall.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

rest, we observe that scarcely any attempt has been made to bring the science down to date, or to a later period than the work of Wayland, although later writers are frequently mentioned and quoted. To cite one example of this inadequate treatment of the subject, it is stated (p. 174) that "the most sweeping and mischievous abuse of credit appears in the excessive issue of paper money. This touches all the processes of exchange with disturbing force, *and is the source of panics and commercial crises.*" Elsewhere this broad definition of the source of commercial crises is modified by the words "to a great extent." It is erroneous to say that the excessive issue of paper money is the source or one of the sources of these phenomena. There is an extensive literature of commercial crises, and the best authorities on the subject are agreed that the excessive issue of paper money is one of the *effects* of that abnormal condition of trade and industry which precedes a crash, and is not itself a cause. When a crash comes the excessive issues of paper money are like other excessive additions and multiplications of debt, which demand to be paid in a hurry and which cannot be paid. Again, Dr. Chapin says that "the minimum rate of wages is the rate necessary to support the laborer and his family—the maximum limit is the rate determined by the market value of the product." This is one of the maxims of the old school, but it has been shown to be erroneous by later writers, and indeed a moment's examination of the condition of things existing in India last year, or in Ireland to-day, must convince anybody that there is no such thing as "a minimum rate of wages." The rate of wages may be and often is not merely at starvation point but below it, so that large numbers of the population who would gladly work perish for want of any wages whatever. These, and some other defects, which seem to have resulted from too close adherence to Wayland and those contemporary with him, we shall hope to see cured in a future edition of Dr. Chapin's text-book, the general scope of which is excellent.

The work of Alfred and Mary Paley Marshall is of a higher range, and is addressed to more advanced scholars. It is the first of two volumes—the second, unpublished, relating to the "Economics of Trade and Finance." It attempts to place before the student the latest as well as the earlier and accepted views of economists of established repute. There is certainly a place for such a text-book. A deal of underbrush has grown up in the field of political economy during the present generation, which needs to be decisively cleared away; and some healthy and useful trees have lifted themselves in the same period, which should be marked and made distinguishable to those who have no time to survey the field for themselves. The volume under consideration is a praiseworthy attempt to accomplish this work. We cannot particularize the fresh material introduced, as that would require us to quote a large portion of the text. We conceive it to be a mistake, however, to bring in such sub-definitions as remuneratory capital and auxiliary capital as distinguished from circulating and fixed capital, and especially a mistake in a work designed for the use of students. What political economy most needs is a paring down rather than an extension of its terminology. We find in the 'Economics of Industry' a very good description of the periodical ups and downs of trade, but when we look for a suggestion of the remedy for a commercial crisis, we find it to consist in "having confidence." "The chief cause of the evil is a want of confidence. The greater part of it could be removed almost in an instant if confidence could return, touch all industries with her magic wand, and make them continue their production and their demand for the wares of others." This is like saying that when the great Paris balloon exploded, the reason why it did not rise was a want of gas; if there had been a fresh supply of gas it would have risen again as by magic. What was really wanted in this case was not merely more gas but a new balloon; and in the same way, what is wanted after a commercial crisis is not only a fresh supply of confidence, but a state of trade and industry capable of supporting it; and the latter must always precede the former. This is one of the slips in Mr. and Mrs. Marshall's book, and we are gratified to add that they are few.

Lamartine and His Friends. By Henri de Lacretelle. Translated from the French by Maria E. Odell. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.)—The reader of this book might ask. "Is this all that you, M. de Lacretelle, can find to say about your hero, Lamartine?" A few loose sheets, apparently written for a serial, pinned rather than stitched together, giving a shadowy, ill-defined outline of a grand central figure surrounded by young hero-worshippers, with a few sayings, anecdotes, and *mots* of no significance or value, make up the 326 pages. It is true that there has rarely been a man who filled so large a place in literature and in politics as Lamartine who had so little "staying power." Forty years ago his name was everywhere. He was one of the stars of the new Romantic school of literature that sprang up in France about 1830, and shone as brightly as Victor Hugo or De Musset. Everybody read 'Jocelyn,' the 'Méditations,' the 'Chute d'un Ange,' and the rest of them. We can now see that Lamartine belonged to the Lady Blessington and "keepsake" school of poets, who glittered so splendidly in morocco and gold about that period. His outward man was eminently suited to the engravings with which those costly works were profusely illustrated. He had the tall, thin, aristocratic figure, the large, dreamy eyes; the horse stood always saddled in the background and the greyhounds fawned at his feet; over all, palm-trees, for he had travelled and sung the East. Lamartine had besides a trait of character almost indispensable to the type—he was hopelessly in debt. To-day these engravings seem to us affected and rococo; the gilt bindings are tarnished and dull, and the beautiful thoughts have faded into commonplace. Outside of a young lady's boarding-school we doubt if any one reads Lamartine's verses.

In politics Lamartine was a sentimentalist. By birth and by feeling an aristocrat, he was a liberal from sentiment but never a radical. He detested radicalism. He thundered against Louis Philippe day after day, and suddenly, to his astonishment, found himself associated with Ledru-Rollin, Carnot, Marrast, Flocon, Louis Blanc, radicals all, men of whose theories and measures he could not approve; but they hurried him along with them, and, without knowing it, made the path smooth for Louis Napoleon. Lamartine's name is written in the Provisional Government of 1848, but neither his policy nor his actions have left a trace on the history of France. After his four months of uneasy power were over—when the clubs and the deputations, the *Voraces* and the *Vésuviennes*, the trees of liberty and the *Ateliers nationaux* had culminated in the days of June, and Cavaignac had to restore order—Lamartine gradually withdrew himself and saw with anguish how he had prepared the way for the Second Empire. Thenceforward his life was a struggle with debt and humiliation, a writing for his daily bread, even a handing round of the hat. The grant of land from the Sultan of Turkey in Syria sounded like a story from the land of spirits. It enabled M. de Circourt in a letter to his Boston friends to suggest the parallel between Artaxerxes and Themistocles, but pecuniarily it amounted to little. Lamartine died insolvent. His most durable work will probably be his 'Histoire des Girondins'—a very interesting book if not a quite authentic history. Dumas *père* said to him after reading it: "Vous avez élevé l'histoire à la hauteur du roman"—which seems to us so clever a criticism and a witticism that we repeat it once more although it is so well known.

A sketch of Lamartine's early life, works, and political career might be written which would be extremely interesting, but these recollections are too vague, fragmentary, and rhapsodical to be of any value. We ought to add that the translator has done her work well.

Sunshine and Storm in the East; or, Cruises to Cyprus and Constantinople. By Mrs. Brassey. With upwards of 100 illustrations. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1880. 8vo, pp. xx. 448.)—This interesting journal, like its predecessor, 'The Voyage of the *Sunbeam*' (see *Nation*, vol. xxvii p. 14), owes its charm to the novel concurrence, or rather contradiction, of the circumstances described. An English family—children, friends, servants, and even pet animals included—are shown in a comfortable home, and living, at least during fine weather, luxuriously, with endless elegances and *bimbelots* around them. But the house is a floating one—a spacious steam-yacht—and looking out of their windows on successive mornings the inmates see, not the familiar landscapes of Sussex, but the panorama of the Mediterranean coasts from Gibraltar and Tangier to Paxo, Spartivento, Cagliari, Naples, and the Golden Horn. The saloon-rug of the *Sunbeam* is, in fact, an Arabian Nights' enchanted carpet, bearing the company gathered upon it to the ends of the earth. The narrative thus has its special charm, though the voyage was made for the most part over familiar routes, and though there is no literary achievement in its telling; it is, on the contrary, a rather unimaginative journal, like others that travelled Englishwomen have recently given us. But it is interesting in its variety, and there are piquant touches here and there, as, for instance, in the description of the "travelling professor from Oxford," a type not wholly unknown to Americans, whom the Brasseys met at Constantinople, and who had "very strong opinions of his own, among others that Sir Isaac Newton was a fool." One is reminded of what Shakspere's clown says about England and about *Hamlet's* madness: "'Twill not be seen in him there." The book is, however, quite free from malice, and with its abundant illustrations it makes one of the most readable narratives of the season.

Lives of the Leaders of our Church Universal, from the Days of the Successors of the Apostles to the Present Time. (Philadelphia: Presbyterian House.)—The ambition of this book is nothing less than to present a hagiology which shall be to the Protestant mind what Butler's 'Lives of the Saints' is to the Roman Catholic. But whereas Butler's work does not include any Protestant saints, the present work includes many Roman Catholics. Nevertheless the plan is not so inclusive generally as in the direction of Romanism. On the Protestant side the final test of saintliness is conformity to evangelical standards. Thus, Dr. Channing, though hailed by Chevalier Bunsen as "a Christian saint," is here excluded from the roll. It is a noticeable fact also that there are no Romanist names since the Protestant Revolution. This is a sad omission, including as it does the names of Xavier, and Borromeo, and St. Philip Neri. A good sketch of the last-named would have lighted up the uniform dulness of these pages in a remarkable manner. The sympathies of the American editor are amusingly symbolized by a golden candlestick on the cover of the book from whose seven horns diverge rays of light with names appended. Different forms of Presbyterianism engross seven out of fourteen names, and Roman Catholicism, whose saints have a quarter of the book to themselves, have no mention at all on the cover. Still, there are certain unnamed rays which Romanists and heterodox persons may appropriate to themselves.

The sketches are written by many different authors, and are of various degrees of ability. But the aim throughout to be edifying acts as a sort of monochromatic wash over the entire contents of the book. The manner is generally effusive. Individual traits are generally suppressed. Origen is admitted, but his heretical views are passed over in silence. The sentimentalism of the book reaches its acme in the introduction of Luther's daughter Magdalena as a "child leader." The editor of the foreign part is Dr. Ferdinand Piper, of the University of Berlin. This part is translated under the editorship of Dr. Henry Mitchell MacCracken, who is also the editor of the American additions. These, with some few exceptions, are local celebrities of much less significance than the names of Dr. Piper's part, and it is hardly possible that their embalmment here will canonize them for ever in the estimation of the Protestant world.

The Inter-Oceanic Canal and the Monroe Doctrine. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1880. 12mo, 120 pp.)—The author of this essay believes that the building of a canal through Central America under any other but American control must inevitably lead to mischievous consequences to the prosperity and prestige of this country. He tries to demonstrate that such an attempt would practically reopen on this continent that period of European colonial experiments against which President Monroe made his famous declaration, which the author explains at length. In view of M de Lesseps's attempt to build the Panama Canal, he thinks that "the time has come for our authorities at Washington to announce that the control of any canal to be built . . . belongs and must belong exclusively to the United States of America." This has been done by the recent message of the President. The author also recommends the establishment of naval stations on both sides of the isthmus so as to "secure our safety against local revolutions, broken treaties, foreign interventions, and all the complications sure to spring from the relations of a vast corporation to a weak and unstable government." He afterwards goes even further and advocates (p. 100) the acquisition of the region which contains the gate of the Pacific. As he says that the "smallest beginning in the right direction may result in a most splendid consummation," the deduction is that the Government should first acquire strongholds, and then, as a "splendid consummation," the whole isthmus. "Why not have our Hong-Kongs and Singapores?" he asks. One of the reasons he gives for the establishment of American colonies is curious: the throngs of applicants to the civil service might hope "to find their opportunities in colonial enterprise." The second half of this volume recommends a policy of aggression.

The Child's Catechism of Common Things. By J. D. Champlin, jr., late associate editor of the 'American Cyclopædia' and editor of the 'Young Folks' Cyclopædia.' (New York: Henry Holt & Co.)—This little work differs from an abridged encyclopædia of natural history and chemistry chiefly by its dividing the material under each heading into two portions, question and answer—thus: "Is not whiting, used for polishing metals and glass, made of chalk? Yes; by grinding it fine and purifying it by washing. Putty, used by glaziers to fasten glass in window-frames, is made of whiting mixed with linseed oil." "Did not the ancient Egyptians embalm or preserve dead bodies with bitumen? Yes; and this is what makes mummies so black and hard." The book is as fascinating to read as a dictionary, and as well adapted for teaching. The information contained in it we believe to be entirely trustworthy.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Bartol (Rev. C. A.), Principles and Portraits	(Roberts Bros.) $2 00
Bergel (J.), Naturwissenschaftliche Kenntnisse der Talmudisten, swd.	(W. Friedrich)
Bonitz (Dr. H.), Origin of the Homeric Poems	(Harper & Bros.) 75
Boyesen (Prof. H. H.), Gunnar: a Norse Tale, 4th ed.	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1 25
Dobson (A.), Vignettes in Rhyme	(Henry Holt & Co.) 2 00
Eisler (Dr. M.), die Judenfrage in Deutschland, swd.	(New York) 50
Feuillet (O.), The Little Countess, swd.	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 50
Furness (H. H.), Variorum Shakspere: King Lear	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Gautier T.), Captain Fracasse	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 00
" "	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
Gregg (J.), Rowlandson the Caricaturist, 2 vols.	(J. W. Bouton)
Kingsley (Dr. N. W.), Treatise on Oral Deformities	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Körner (G.), Das deutsche Element in den Vereinigten Staaten von Nordamerika (1818-1848), swd.	(A. E. Wilde & Co.) 2 00
Las Cases Count de), Memoirs, etc., of the Emperor Napoleon, 4 vols	(W. J. Widdleton) 5 00
Littledale (Rev. R. F.), Plain Reasons against joining the Church of Rome, 10th thousand	(Pott, Young & Co.) 4
Matthews (J. B.), The Theatres of Paris	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1 25
Muirhead (Prof. J.), Institutes of Gaius and Rules of Ulpian	(Scribner & Welford) 10
Northend (C.), Elihu Burritt	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Pocket Mining Atlas	(Edwin Bolitho)
Rémusat (Mme. de), Memoirs, vol. III., swd.	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Round (W. M. F.), Hal: the Story of a Clodhopper	(Lee & Shepard)
Sayce (Prof. A.), Introduction to the Science of Language, 2 vols.	(Scribner & Welford)
Taswell-Langmead (T. P.), English Constitutional History, 2d ed.	(Stevens & Haynes)
Todd (A.), Parliamentary Government in the Colonies	(Little, Brown & Co.)
Vincent (J.), Return of the Princess, swd.	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Whitney (Prof. W. D.) and Knox (Mrs. N. L.), Elementary Lessons in English	(Ginn & Heath)

Fine Arts.

THE SOCIETY OF AMERICAN ARTISTS.—MODERN AMERICAN TENDENCY.

THE distinction of contributing to an exhibition strictly representing art-work as separated from shop-work has been much appreciated this year as in the two previous seasons, and our painters have been separating their winter's product astutely into two portions—one representing technic, for the American Artists; one representing the sweetness of commercial hope, for the Academy. The method of collecting used by the younger association suggests the Sultan and the dropped handkerchief. Contributors emerge only on their invitation; their representatives fly to distant cities and return with odd-looking panels selected in secrecy; and the most distinguished supporters of previous exhibitions, happening to reside abroad, have been debarred membership. This policy is purifying, but it is human. The committees returned from their missions this year bearing surprising sheaves with them. Several pictures of the most abject Düsseldorf vacuity have been admitted into the collection, and the visitor has hardly climbed the stairway before he sees a cattle-scene, a shooting-scene, and, further off, a tall marine of the Stanfield order, each of which is in the flattest, most stolid opposition to the spirit of the collection. One picture, selected by the Society's own representative—a prize canvas from a distinguished neighboring Academy—was at first rejected, and then skied; while the interesting quota from France, which had made the success of the first exhibition, was narrowed down this year to a couple of portraits by Sargent and Flagg. In alluding to the Paris contributions it is but writing history to say that the cold shoulder shown to the artists practising there has plainly hurt the Society's prospects of permanence without any gain in elevation of quality. Mr. Bridgman, for instance, the only contributor with a Salon medal, having three important things disposable about the time of the opening, chose to send them to Mr. Avery's commercial gallery. The cut cannot be entirely disposed of by proclaiming that one does not like Mr. Bridgman's later style. It is true that this young man, since the earning of his official honors, has gone into the manufacture of what artists call machines—he composes, and arranges, and exerts imagination, instead of setting down the impression of a single glance of the eye; but can the most Puritan advocate of uncontaminate nature-study deny that the exhibition contains many a figure less technically sincere than those of the three sculptural and chastely-lined groups sent by Mr. Bridgman? To assert the superiority of the rank-and-file of the exhibition over work like this betrays a radical danger in the Society's habit of mind, for it would degrade the structural study of art to those other studies proper to it, study of values and study of colors, and give a false predominance to the two last. It says that to produce a work of structural completeness is inartistic, while to produce a work of color or chiaroscuro—whether successful or not, at least undegraded by the research of structure—is to do something artistic and stamped with mental distinction. The Society is in great danger of seeming to maintain this doctrine, judging from what it condemns rather than from what it accepts; and by such enunciation it surely flings itself into opposition to

the course of the great work by which the history of art has advanced, for this advance has followed upon the perfecting of drawing and structural design rather than upon the delightful exceptions introduced from time to time by masters of quality.

It is only to produce reasonably the line of thoughts suggested when this issue is raised, to reflect that the sculptor's part of the present exhibition is the strongest, most illustrative, and least prentice-like. In sculpture, after all, as in a last ditch, the struggle between structural design and the seeking for values and vigors must come to its final test. Sculpture nowadays seeks graphic picturesqueness of light and shade more than heretofore, but it is of necessity kept in a state of wholesome confinement to structure; pure Rembrandtism in sculpture, with design in mere rudiment and chiaroscuro in high honor, is dared by no one. Yet while the tiresome Academic modelling seeks structure before all things, some modern modelling has dared a great deal by falsification of structure. Luckily the exhibition of the Society is strong enough in modelled work to set forth this problem very instructively. In sculpture, one would think, the hold upon strict design must necessarily be very close. Yet there is good work present in which the design is the last part of the charm. Mr. Baur's frieze—we alluded the other week to this artist's exquisite "Psyche"—shows groups representing the bounty of the orchards and the woods, in the style of Makart's "Abundantia"; the generous beauty of the thing is less in the design and the composition, less even in the prodigal grace of the sylvan goddess and her Rubensesque torso, than in the calculation of light and shade, the degree in which the principal figure advances beyond the others and forms a central boss, the subduing and chiselling of subordinate parts, and the mystery of leaves, fruits, dogs, hares, and birds, which seems to fill the panel with space, distance, incident, and sound; his sketch of a dog's head, and that of a Bacchante, slight as they are, show that same subtle calculation of chiaroscuro which sculpture has heretofore so imperfectly understood, or seemed but to attain by an occasional vagary. Mr. St. Gaudens's portrait bust of the President of Yale College is like a painted one by Holbein. Mr. Olin Warner, in a style full of color and effectiveness, though one by no means indifferent to academic accuracy, contributes a portrait-bust of a fellow-artist, based upon Michael Angelo's "David" perhaps, but energetic and graphic, with a wonderfully quick play of shadow and movement in eyes and mouth, and a clever suggestion of motion in the preponderance given to the left shoulder, which defines an action, and suggests a complete pose. The same sculptor's medallions are brilliant, incisive as to character, and like condensed definitions of their originals; one of a lady, with noble carriage of the head and fine sweep of hair, is a work of large comprisings in small scale. Those of Mr. O'Donovan, on the other hand, are mysterious and shadowy rather than incisive; it is evidently this artist's determination to get rid of the commonplace of the die sinker. He has given evidence of genius in former works which will make the public treat these more hesitating tentatives with respect. The effort to leave the camp of the sculptors bodily behind, and to find that camp where the etchers play with light and shade and the painters convey color and imitate movement, is the besetting need of the moment for him; he presents bas-reliefs which are not profiles, as if he would make the head turn on its axis while we look on it; he sinks these profiles into their fields, as if he would lose them in shadow, like the portraits by old masters; he etches these fields with lines and scratches and every device to suggest distance or atmosphere; it is not sculpture, perhaps, and it is clearly experiment; but it is the experiment of an artist to whom ordinary experience has become satiating from the completeness with which he has mastered it, and for whom the trammels of sculpture have become irksome in a keen appreciation of the beauties of sister arts.

Concerning the paintings, though they form of course the bulk of the exposition, there is little to say that would conform to the old-fashioned way of interesting the public, for drama, incident, and event are wanting, and the art of making technical method explicable to the reader has not yet got into literature. Mr. Chase, the Society's president, shows various portraits treated as still-life, with striking devices for expressing the hair or the beard, with deliquescent flesh for the ladies and terra-cotta flesh for the male presentment, with imperfect rather than generalized design, and with character-study in each case coarsely pushed to the theatrical. His study of an old wall at Munich, with realistic dusty cobwebs produced by a single wipe of the paint-rag, and a creepy suggestion of tragedy in the pool of blood that dribbles from the door, is the best thing he sends. Mr. Shirlaw sends a scene in a marble quarry, with much cleverness in the suggested forms, but a scheme of color fatally known to commerce in the German lithograph. Mr. Sargent has contributed the portrait of Carolus Duran from last year's Salon, with a well-moulded colorless head, and hands treated on an entirely different principle of modelling, so that we seem to see a sculptured head with paper extremities; his inconsistency here shocks the sight in America, as it lost him a medal in France. Mr. Thayer sends an *académie* of Bacchante and tigers, of which the head alone is rapid, definite, and good, recalling his pearl of portraiture just sent to the Academy. Mr. Brush's "Miggles" is a studious, broad, practical piece of form-sculpture under crackling drapery, honest and of excellent type, but without charm. Mr. Eakins has a piano-playing girl over whom blackness appears to have descended like a blight, but who, studied at high noon, seems to develop depth on depth of life, sweetness, delicacy, and well-understood subtle movement. Mr. Sartain has an Arab maiden's head that is treated with the solidity of sculpture and the unction of the Venetian school of painting. Mr. Marshall's female portrait is a masterpiece of sympathy and sweetness, where inexhaustible delicacy of character is strangely expressed in the definite methods of Dürer and Cranach; and Mr. Beckwith has a study in which the tranquil loveliness of peaceful age is expressed by a broad, easy, assured, and really masterly painting-method. The landscape is brilliant and unconventional. Mr. Twachtman's "bits" represent the glitter of the canal or the contrast of the sailing cloud-shadow in summer meadows. Mr. Eaton has a broadly generalized mass of scenic trees seeming like a background, and recalling the distant objects in a well-known harvest-scene of his a few seasons back. Mr. Miller's old mill, with its boldly eccentric wheel, is a flashing bit of pseudo-Constable. Mr. Martin, with that fatal bent towards mysticism and that Lawrence-like stretch on red-hot racks which have canonized him among the mystics, exhibits a circular pond, from which the watery quality has been so successfully eliminated in pursuit of some higher good that it resembles an incandescent griddle, and suggests the compensations of a future life for the artist in a polar region where sunsets are only inflicted twice a year. Mr. Bunce has a dreamy, superficial, yet exquisite Venice scene, which, if it does not go very deep into nature-study, at least detaches the superficial charm and cements it to the canvas. Mr. Fuller shows, or half shows, one of his admirable twilight woods, with a strange poetry thrown about the ordinary country boy and straying calf.

A few water-colors recall the superb impressionist-work of some of the water-color painters in their late exhibition. Mr. Riordan has several delicate sheets of landscape, recalling Corot and Currier; Mr. Blum and Mr. Twachtman show aquarelles of the greatest sincerity and simplicity of handling. The former, however, had in that exhibition superb studies of cabbages in their succulence, or rabbits in their furriness, or turkeys in their damaskeened armor, superior to any of the slighter works here present. And Mr. Riordan's evanescent impressions of landscape do not convey the solid charm of works in the late display like Mr. Gifford's "East River Docks"—a lordly male-sapphire, if there ever was one—or Mr. Reinhart's Martin Rico-like "Schuylerville." E. S.

Cory's Guide to Modern English History

By William Cory. Part I., 1815-1830. 8vo, $2.

To teach history in epigrams would seem at first sight a difficult undertaking, if practicable at all. To combine in such teaching the brilliance of epigram with the solid power of a view going below the surface of events and politics into the conditions of society by which events are shaped, would seem hopeless indeed. Yet this is what Mr. Cory has to a great extent accomplished. Nothing could be less like the conventional style of second-rate historians, or more fitted to fix the reader's mind and make him think out questions for himself.

Dobson's Vignettes in Rhyme.

By Austin Dobson. With an introduction by E. C. Stedman. Square 12mo, $2.

"Mr. Austin Dobson's fame has already crossed the ocean, and his name is known to all choicer spirits among readers here as that of the wittiest, cleverest, and most felicitous of modern verse-makers, who is also greatly more than a verse-maker; a poet, whose humor has a touch of tender pathos in it, and whose cleverness is reinforced by unmistakable poetic inspiration."—*N. Y. Evening Post.*

SECOND EDITION READY OF

Cox's Popular Romances of the Middle Ages.

8vo, $2 25.

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 8, 1880.

The Week.

WHAT is the sound orthodox doctrine about "seeking the Presidency"? In 1876 it was held by a great number of good Republicans to be a shocking indecorum on the part of Mr. Tilden to superintend his own canvass personally (this was before anything was known or suspected about the cipher negotiations), and in particular to set up a "literary bureau" from which he issued documents of various sorts in support of his claims. We thought ourselves at the time, and think still, that it is far better for a candidate to do this and shoulder the full responsibility of his canvass, than to sit in his parlor while others are cozening and intriguing in his behalf and with his knowledge and consent. Where Mr. Tilden came to grief was in pleading ignorance of the doings of his agents in Baltimore and Charleston after he had formally assumed the personal direction of his electoral operations. But it was said that it was unseemly in him to give any public sign of his desiring the Presidency. Well, does this rule apply to Mr. Sherman? He announced publicly two months ago—indeed, we believe we may also say nearly a year ago—that he was a candidate, and last week took the stump for himself at Mansfield, Ohio, and declared that he wanted the Presidency and meant to get it by fair means if he could. After this it is, of course, not at all improbable that he will open a "literary bureau" in Washington and distribute printed reasons for voting for him. Can anybody tell us how a really good man ought to regard this conduct of his? His speech on the occasion referred to consisted of a modest presentation of himself as a candidate; a eulogy of the Republican party, with corresponding castigation of the Democrats; a glowing account of the condition of the national finances, and very gloomy predictions as to what "the rebel element" will do if they get into power. Should they succeed, he said, in carrying the election of this year, the rebellion of 1861 will be "a success." As the object of the rebellion of 1861 was to set up a confederacy composed exclusively of slave States, and governed by the jurisprudence peculiar to such communities, it seems extraordinary that as dry and unimaginative a person as Mr. Sherman should make such extravagant statements even on the stump.

The third-term movement has been openly and formally started in Massachusetts, and an address to the Republicans of the State, in which Gen. Grant's services to the country during his former two terms are enumerated, is issued. These services include the support of the Fifteenth Amendment, the establishment of the public credit, the reduction of the public debt, the prevention of an inflation of the currency, the making of permanent arrangements for the resumption of specie payments, the settlement of foreign questions which had disturbed the country for generations, and "the vindication of the rights of persons at home and abroad without distinction of color." This plan of claiming for him the credit of every good thing that occurred during his two terms (he actually wrote a message approving the inflation bill on the same day on which he wrote the other vetoing it) is a new one, and is more plausible than "the strong man" plea, but will hardly bear minute examination any better. No attempt is made to explain or deny the scandals which constitute, in the minds of nine out of ten of the opponents of a third-term, the chief objection to it. When we say that Mr. Boutwell and Mr. N. P. Banks are two of the best-known signers of the document, and that Simmons is likely to be a leader in the movement, we give a very good idea of its character. Its object professes to be simply the instruction of the Massachusetts delegation in favor of General Grant.

It has, however, drawn out a strong counter-demonstration from the anti-third-term men in an address signed by some of the best Republicans in the State, many of them members of the present Legislature, and there are only two "Young Republicans" among them. This is worth notice because it is frequently said that the opposition to General Grant in Massachusetts is confined to Independents, Scratchers, and "Democrats at heart." When we say that the list of signers includes such names as E. R. Hoar and John M. Forbes, we indicate clearly enough the serious nature of the opposition of which the address is the expression. It calls attention to the probable closeness of the vote at the next election, and the consequent danger of repelling any section of Republicans, however small; strongly condemns the effort to force a third term on the country as a violation of a sound precedent, uncalled for by any exigency; comments on the dissatisfaction excited in many minds by the character of General Grant's Administration and of some of his personal affiliations, and the consequent likelihood that if nominated the canvass would turn on a defence of his methods and measures instead of on questions of present public importance; denounces "the strong man" cry either as having no meaning, or as indicating an intention to resort to "unconstitutional or revolutionary or questionable methods of government"; ridicules the notion that the South would join in electing Grant, and calls for a candidate who would "command the confidence and enthusiasm of all Republicans."

The proneness of Methodist ministers to nominate General Grant for a third term is a singular phenomenon. Whenever even half a dozen of them are assembled anywhere for any purpose one of them is pretty sure to suggest before the meeting is over, like Senator Carpenter, that the interests of "virtue" call for a third term. At the Annual Conference in this city, the other day, the Rev. J. J. Dean delivered the opening sermon, which was on "True Greatness." He traced the history of "greatness" from ancient times down through the middle ages, with depreciatory references to the love of money and position, until he reached Charles Sumner, from whom he passed to Abraham Lincoln, and then "in this connection" alluded to "another great man, who had twice been President, was likely to be so again, and, he hoped, would be."

Congressional proceedings during the week have at least had a certain liveliness. The General Deficiency Bill in the Senate was amended on Wednesday week so as to vest the appointment of United States special deputy-marshals of elections in the circuit courts, or, if these were not in session, in the district judges. Mr. Blaine unexpectedly turned up with an amendment restoring to the employees of the Government Printing-Office their national holidays without loss of pay—the motive of which became perfectly clear when he was informed (or rather reminded, for he knew it already) that the subject was under favorable consideration by the Committees on Printing of both houses. Mr. Edmunds called him to order for violating a rule of the Senate against adding legislation to a general appropriation bill, and the Chair having decided that the bill could not be so described, Mr. Blaine engaged in what the *Tribune* calls a "gallant struggle," and succeeded in wasting a large part of the session to no purpose except the furtherance of his own reputation for demagogy. Mr. Carpenter, with Mr. Dawes fighting under cover of him, inflicted a good deal of damage on the magnetic statesman. The bill was passed the next day, in spite of Mr. Edmunds's argument, which we have discussed elsewhere. The Senate has also passed the bill "to provide for celebrating the one hundredth anniversary of the treaty of peace (1783)," otherwise known as the New York International Exhibition of 1883, and has debated with some asperity the bill to carry out the recent agreement with the Utes made by the Interior Department. The Wallace Committee on frauds at the fall elections has reported a bill to pre-

vent political contributions of money by officers and employees of the Government. In the House the Committee on Contested Elections has agreed to report Mr. Washburn, of Minnesota, not entitled to a seat, and his Democratic opponent, Donnelly, equally without claim—an act of moderation for which Mr. Springer was taken to task, but which will be remembered to his credit. Under the new rules Mr. Weaver got a vote on Monday for his resolution declaring Government the sole source of money, and providing for the payment of the national debt in paper. He found 85 supporters against 117 opponents. On the same day Mr. Townshend tried to pass under a suspension of the rules his surreptitious bill aiming at a revision of the tariff, and succeeded in showing a majority of 113 to 80 in favor of some reform. The Republicans went almost solidly against him; for what reason it would be hard to say.

Mr. Edmunds objected to the appointment of the deputy-marshals by the judges of the United States Circuit Court partly on the ground that the court might not be in session when the election occurred, and then no appointments could be made, and partly on the ground that the judges were not proper persons to appoint executive officers at all, and that, anyhow, the deputy-marshals being the agents of the executive and bound to obey its orders, the plan of dividing them between the two parties was absurd. Officers so appointed would be independent of executive control. Nobody but the court could remove them, and if the court adjourned before the election was over they would remain in office until the court convened again. He ridiculed also the requirement that they should be of "good moral character," on the ground that the term was too vague for legal definition. The remainder of his argument was drawn from the character of the framers of the bill (the Democrats), maintaining that it was but a part of the instrumentalities by which they sought to rob the Government of all control over elections, and to destroy all efficient guaranties of the fairness of elections, and he urged them to pass the bill paying a Government debt, and leave the changes of the law for "more suitable occasions and for better methods," but did not indicate in any way when these occasions would occur.

At the close of March the Treasury bought $5,000,000 of bonds for the Sinking Fund; but even this unusually large purchase was insufficient to take the loan market out of the control of stock speculators, who ran up the rates for money on several days to 12 to 45 per cent. per annum. The last weekly statement of the New York banks showed that, taken altogether, they hold a reserve less than 25 per cent. of their deposit liabilities by the sum of $310,000; but as the statement is made upon averages for six days it is likely that at the close of the week the banks were above what is called the legal limit. On this theory the loan market was easier at the close of the week and the rates for foreign exchange immediately advanced. The block in the export of breadstuffs, which was made by stock-exchange speculators, has been broken and the exports are again large, which is against gold shipments in the early future. The Stock Exchange markets were feverish during the week. United States 4 per cent. bonds advanced to 107⅞, ex-interest due April 1; this is the highest price ever reached, and is an advance of 7¾ per cent. within a year, exclusive of the 4 per cent. interest. Mr. W. H. Vanderbilt continues to be a large buyer of these bonds, and now owns something over $43,000,000 of them. In the speculation of the week, which was fitful but with the tendency towards lower prices, the stocks of the elevated railroads were prominent. That of the Manhattan Company, which leases the Metropolitan and the New York elevated roads, fell from 34⅞ to 26¾. The stock of the Metropolitan fell from 108 to 93¼, and that of the New York from 116½ to 113¼. Manhattan declined because of the threat of the creators of the company, who were the large stockholders of the other two companies, that they would break up the lease, which is all the property the Manhattan has. Metropolitan declined because if the lease is broken it will not be able on the present capitalization to earn 10 per cent. dividends, which the Manhattan guarantees to it; and because of the decision, in the case of Caro *vs.* this company, that the elevated railroad companies are liable for damages to adjacent property. If this decision is sustained by the Court of Appeals the elevated companies may expect innumerable suits and claims for many millions of dollars for injury to property. The price of silver was steady during the week and closed at 52½*d.* per ounce. The bullion value of the "buzzard dollar" at the close of the week was $0.8836.

The San Francisco election of last week, which resulted in the decisive defeat of the Workingmen's Party, following so closely upon his conviction and sentence in a criminal proceeding, is generally assumed to be the end of Kearney. His own utterances on the stump immediately prior to the election show much deterioration in fire and enthusiasm, and he even went so far as to read an important speech from manuscript, which probably had a depressing effect upon the ardor of the Sand Lots. The Citizens' Protective Union appear to have taken every precaution within the limits of legitimacy to secure success. Their party included the Republicans and the more respectable of the Democrats, but they were careful to have representatives at the polls to "keep track" of the voting, and to provide ballots of different paper from those procured by their opponents from the Secretary of State. The workingmen threaten, of course, to contest the election on this ground, but will probably not attempt much serious protest, and even if they should the majority against them is so large, being about seven thousand, that they would hardly be able to accomplish anything.

The Commissioners of the State Survey, in their special report to the Legislature on the proposed International Park at Niagara Falls, make a case which must appeal strongly to all cultivated people, by simply setting forth the present condition of the neighborhood of the Falls and its possible amelioration. Lord Dufferin, we believe, is to be credited with originating the idea of an international park, and the Canadian Government stands ready to co-operate with the State of New York whenever the latter signifies its willingness to take any steps in the matter. The whole point is, that the greatest natural spectacle in America, and one of the "wonders of the world," is at present made to serve the merely commercial uses of manufactories, ice-houses, small hotels, laundries, bath-houses, and so on, and that it is entirely possible to rescue it from such perversion. The opinion of Mr. Olmsted, who has examined the neighborhood in conjunction with the Director of the State Survey, is of course conclusive upon the feasibility of the proposed improvement, which contemplates a restoration of the scenery to a state of nature, at least so far as to exclude everything save earth, air, and water, from the observer's range of view. Whether its desirability will be borne in upon our legislators is another question; to all appearances there is, it must be admitted, no "job" in it, and a memorial in its favor has been signed by Messrs. Carlyle, Ruskin, Lowell, Emerson, Max Müller, and others who have presumably no talent whatever for "practical politics." At the same time from the point of view of "practical politics" there is nothing to be said against the scheme, and as to its expense it is perhaps sufficient to say that so rigid an economist as Gov. Robinson strongly favors it.

The latest City Charter underwent a terrible handling before the Cities Committee of the Assembly on Wednesday week at the hands of Mr. George Bliss and Professor Dwight. Mr. Bliss not only exposed its true motive but castigated the members of the committee in a manner which, according to the reporters, made some of them "turn red" and others "look uneasy." One of his interesting pieces of information was that our old friend "Tom" Murphy, some time Collector of this port, has been promised a place in the Public Works Department, and has been feeling so sure of it that he has been going about urging his cronies to send in anticipatory bids for contracts, which shows, if true, that "Tom" is the same thoughtful citi-

zen he was when he used to sit in the Custom-house and "reorganize the party" in this city. Professor Dwight went beyond mere criticism of the proposed change, and laid down some of the principles which should underlie all charter legislation. He showed that a good charter should arm the chief executive officer with great power, and at the same time make his responsibility clear. He should not be compelled, as at present, to share his nominating power with the Aldermen, and he warned the Republicans in the Legislature against using their power over the government of the city to defeat the majority who live under it, as hostile to the fundamental principles of republican government.

The elections in England have resulted—though not over at this writing—in a great Liberal victory. The Liberals will almost certainly have a majority of 46 in the new Parliament without the Home-Rulers, and with the Home-Rulers of 109. They carried Southwark, whose loss at the election two months ago caused so much discouragement, and, in fact, have won back nearly every borough they lost in 1874, though with a few conspicuous exceptions—London for one. To crown all, Mr. Gladstone has carried Mid-Lothian against the Earl of Dalkeith, the son of the great proprietor of the county, the Duke of Buccleuch, whose influence has not, we believe, been successfully resisted before. Great exertions were made to repel this attack on a great Jingo stronghold, including the creation of small freeholds or "faggot votes" in considerable numbers, which Mr. Gladstone's supporters met by running up small houses for workingmen. The enthusiasm his candidacy roused and his own torrent of eloquence carried the day, though only by about 200 votes. The city of London, in which the influence of "society" is now strong, remained with the Jingoes; but that the best educated opinion of the country has continued sound was shown by Mr. Lowe's return again for the London University, a constituency in some respects unequalled anywhere. The many friends in this country of Professor Bryce, the author of the 'History of the Holy Roman Empire,' will be glad to hear of his return for the Tower Hamlets, a London borough which he and his colleague have wrested from the Jingoes by a heavy majority. The election is the most important one which has occurred in England since the passage of the Reform Bill, and is likely to be far-reaching in its consequences, and strengthen the friends of pure popular government all over the world.

Mr. Gladstone has declared that he will not take office again, and will undoubtedly keep his word. Even, however, if he were disposed to reconsider, some obscure personal dislike of him entertained by the Queen would make his re-entrance into office a matter of difficulty and embarrassment. The new Ministry will probably be formed by Lord Granville, and led in the Commons by the Marquis of Hartington. Sir William Harcourt will probably this time enter the Cabinet, but it is difficult to see how Sir Charles Dilke can, considering his agitation about the cost of royalty a few years ago.

Mr. Parnell, whose ardor seems to have been in no way abated by the rough handling he received in Enniscorthy, went down to Cork at the last moment and there, in spite of the protests of the Catholic clergy, flung himself into the contest with a nominee of his own named Daly, and beat a Conservative and Liberal by small majorities. He took occasion while there to announce that his hostility to the Whigs was just as great as his hostility to the Tories, and that arrangements for coercing them were just as needful. This is an old tradition of Irish politics. O'Connell's favorite epithet for the Whigs was "base, brutal, and bloody," and his followers and successors have always been much more vituperative towards them than towards the Tories, and have, apparently as a consequence, got office from them much more frequently. There is a rumor, which it is to be hoped is true, that the Liberals mean to offer the Chief-Secretaryship for Ireland to the O'Conor Don. One of the irritating practices of English party politics has been the rule of giving this place to an Englishman, and usually an Englishman more than usually ignorant of Irish affairs. Under the Beaconsfield government Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, a Gloucestershire squire, held it for a while, and it is now held by another Englishman, Mr. Lowther, who has just been defeated at York. He made at the close of the session a speech on Irish grievances of the most exasperating kind, and full of insult and menace against the bulk of the Irish people—the kind of speech, in short, which has for a century past done much to make Ireland ungovernable.

Lord Lytton will now promptly come home from India. In fact he is said to have forestalled the dismissal which he knew awaited him if the Liberals succeeded, by placing his resignation in Lord Beaconsfield's hands, to take effect absolutely on that event. This was made inevitable by the Marquis of Hartington's declaration in the House of Commons a year ago that he (Lord Lytton) was "the very embodiment of all that a Governor-General of India ought not to be," and that the first duty of the Government was to recall him. He was sent out to start the "imperial policy" and pick a quarrel for that purpose with Shir Ali, and he displayed as much enthusiasm for "the gates of India" and "the scientific frontier" as his chief and brother novelist. Sir Henry Layard will doubtless also be promptly recalled. He has not only made himself a rabid friend of the Turks, but has associated himself in a very unseemly manner with the quarrels of the Ministry at home by forwarding slanderous stories about Mr. Gladstone, for which, their falsity having been thoroughly proved, he refused to apologize. He has probably done more than any other man to get the Tories into their Turkish embarrassment by his hopeful views of Ottoman rule, although no more searching exposures of its incurable rottenness are to be found anywhere than in his books in his better days as a traveller and explorer.

Prince Bismarck has resigned the Chancellorship of the Empire owing to a quarrel with the Bundesrath, or Federal Council, over a proposal to impose a stamp duty on the receipts for postal money-orders. This was defeated by a vote of 30 to 28, the former representing 7,500,000 of population and the latter 30,000,000. The Bundesrath corresponds somewhat in composition and functions to our Senate, except that in fixing the number of representatives from each state some account has been taken of difference of population. The large states have several (Prussia 17), but every state, however small, has one, and the representatives of each state are obliged to vote as a unit; a state, too, need only send one representative to cast all its votes. The Prince has thus been beaten by a combination of the small states, and insists on retiring in spite of the Emperor's refusal to accept his resignation. He pleads ill-health as a reason for his persistence, besides the bad behavior of the Bundesrath; but it is probably ill-health which makes the behavior of the Bundesrath seem so bad. There can be little doubt that means will be found to make the Bundesrath give way, but it is also probable that the Chancellor's retirement from active service is not far distant. The Emperor may go any day, and the Crown Prince does not rely on the Chancellor greatly, and there is every reason, therefore, why the latter should wish to retire while he can do so with undoubted dignity.

Prince Napoleon has made the oddest stroke of his eccentric career by publishing a letter supporting the decrees against the religious orders, on the ground that these decrees are in accordance with Napoleonic principles and traditions, and, therefore, even if they do come from the hands of the enemies of religion and morality, he cannot conscientiously oppose them. The Republicans are naturally delighted with the letter, both as an approval of their policy and a sign of the confusion in the Bonapartist camp, while it has filled the Bonapartists with dismay, as it practically amounts to their desertion by their own chief. The Bonapartism of the First Empire was an openly cynical and sceptical affair, which made no secret of regarding the Church as a department of police; but the modern edition professes to be pious, reads its *Heures* punctually, and rolls its eyes over the infidels with as much unction as the Legitimists.

MR. EDMUNDS ON THE SUPERVISION OF ELECTIONS.

MR. EDMUNDS'S speech on the Deficiency Bill appropriating the back pay for the United States marshals, and changing the mode of appointing the deputy marshals, might be ascribed to what some people consider the over-critical temper which he carries into debate, if it had not been supported by the vote of the party in the Senate. This may be said to make it the expression of the party view of the Democratic amendment of the law, for he does not appear to have laid much stress on the objection that this amendment is in the form of a rider to an appropriation bill. His chief ground of opposition was that the object of the Democrats was really to get rid of *all* the guarantees for fair elections now supplied by Federal legislation, and that the proposed change in the mode of appointing the marshals would aid them in attaining this object, inasmuch as deputy-marshals appointed by the courts could not be subject to the discipline and control of the executive branch of the Government. He made no mention of, and seemed to attach no importance to, the abuses which have been proved in the present mode of appointment, and in the way in which the deputy-marshals discharged their duties. His position, in short, seemed to be that *any* law passed by the Republican party for securing the purity of elections is praiseworthy, that *any* machinery created by it is respectable and more efficient than anything that Democrats are likely to substitute, and that Democratic complaints about its operation are not to be heeded, because they in all probability are a mere cloak for hostility to any legal protection for voters.

This mode of meeting the Democrats, if it came from any one who made railing at them his principal work, would hardly call for comment. But coming at this late date from a man who stands deservedly as high in the Republican party as Mr. Edmunds stands, and from one who pays so much attention to the serious business of legislation as he does, it has real gravity. It amounts to proposing in effect that all Republican action should be based on the theory that the Democrats are public enemies, and that anything they propose, however fair its outward seeming, may and ought to be treated as an attack on the Government of the country. This is the old Republican theory of the war period, it is true, and it may have been necessary to act on this theory in war-time; but the war is over, and has ended in a renewed attempt to carry on a free government in conjunction with the Democrats. In other words, instead of fighting the Democrats in the field, the Republicans are now engaged in co-operation with them for the maintenance of a Republic on this continent.

The way of looking at them, therefore, which was perhaps proper and necessary while fighting them in the field, is clearly out of place on the part of those who are working with them for a common end in the forum. They are not a small set or faction, either, whose feelings and opinions may be disregarded when attacking any great national problem, or whose excesses may be curbed by exceptional legislation. They comprise fully half the voting population, and if not the more intelligent and enlightened half, probably the more energetic and active. They cannot, therefore, be got rid of or put down by force. In order to make this Government succeed, especially in the Republican sense of success, they must be consulted and conciliated and won over. The talk of dealing with them by means of a "strong man" is too silly for serious discussion. They are not collected in one corner of the Union, as the slaveholders were in the late war, to be marched against with infantry, cavalry, and artillery. They are about half the people of every State at the North. It is, therefore, not simply desirable but absolutely essential that, whatever any man's opinions about their designs may be, the work of national legislation should be conducted on the assumption that they mean the public good, and are amenable to persuasion and convinceable by experiment. This assumption may break down frequently in practice, and a thousand facts may every week be adduced which tell against it, and yet it has to be clung to by every man calling himself a statesman as our only defence against "Mexicanism." It is the inability of the Mexican mind to lay hold of this assumption which makes the Mexican Republic the abortion that it is. It is the difficulty which the French mind has had in laying hold of it which has filled the last century of French history with revolutions, and still makes the future of republican government in France uncertain.

Now, applying all this to this matter of the supervision of the Federal elections, it is obvious that the hostility of the Democrats to fair elections—supposing it to be as deep-seated and as wide-spread as their worst enemies believe—is either conquerable or unconquerable. If it be unconquerable, if half the American people like to see elections carried by fraud and violence, and cannot be in any manner taught the more excellent way, of course free government on this continent is a failure, and we have only to wait patiently until things become bad enough to bring in the Cæsar who will get rid of electoral corruption by getting rid of elections altogether. But if it be conquerable, is it conquerable in any other way than by opposing reason to unreason, moderation to violence, legality to illegality, fairness to unscrupulousness? Is not the result of meeting violence by fraud, or fraud by fraud, perfectly well known? Is there any record of it ever having, under any circumstances, led to purity and peace? Is there any arrangement in the moral order of the universe by which the reign of justice can be established by mutual cheating? It is not denied and cannot be denied that the present mode of appointing deputy-marshals on election day has been marked by gross abuses. The law under which they are appointed applies only to cities of over 20,000 inhabitants, and by far the larger number of such cities are to be found at the North. The United States marshals who appoint these deputies for service on election day are always strong partisans, and, in fact, generally receive their own places for strong partisanship. It has been proved that in a very large number of cases the deputies selected by them have been persons of the worst character, who do the dirty work of ward politics—keepers of grog-shops and of houses of prostitution, pugilists, gamblers, and in many instances discharged convicts and drunkards. If these men were on election day held together as a police force under a commanding officer with disciplinary powers, it might perhaps be said that their moral character and antecedents were of no consequence. But they are not when on duty under anybody's control. The authority of the marshal over them, even if he could look after them, is merely nominal, for they are only hired for the day, and the only penalty that could be inflicted on them is dismissal. They stand around the polls virtually as independent agents, and actually have the right of arresting without warrant any man whom they choose to accuse of offering a fraudulent vote, and carrying him off in custody. Now, even if this power had never been abused—and it *has* been abused, though not as often as Democratic politicians pretend—and even if it be a power which ought to be lodged in some officer present at the polls, it is against natural justice to lodge it in the hands of a partisan, no matter how good his character, and grossly indecent to lodge it in the hands of a partisan of no character at all. It may be that the Democratic plan of having these men appointed by the judges of the Circuit Court is, as Mr. Edmunds pointed out, a faulty one, and it may be that the phrase "good moral character" is a loose one; but surely he ought to have admitted that some change was desirable, even if the one proposed was not, and that no difficulty in defining "a good moral character" ought to stand in the way of improving the character of the deputy-marshals, as it has stood hitherto. One may not be always able to say what constitutes a really good man, but every one knows that a thief or keeper of a house of ill-fame, or a drunkard or gambler, is, *ipso facto*, unfit to hold office under a Christian government even for a day, and unfit to exercise the power of arresting any man without warrant, and that the machinery which puts such men in office needs alteration.

The notion which seems to have run through Mr. Edmunds's speech, that machinery of this kind, however bad it may be, is good enough for the Democrats, is one which, useful as it may sometimes prove in sweetening the malignity of a private quarrel, has no place in statesmanship. It is, nevertheless, one of the usual

sequelæ of a civil war, and we fear reconciled a good many people at the North to the abuses of the carpet-bag régime at the South. But there is no room for it in civilized government in our time. It is no part of a statesman's duty to "pay off" anybody or "get even with" him, or hoist him with his own petard. It is a cardinal rule of modern politics that no man can ever lose his right to good government. Even when in jail for crime his title to justice and fair dealing is in no way shaken by the atrocity of his offences. No matter how corrupt the Democrats may be, no matter how ready to accomplish their ends by fraud, no matter how hostile to the political ideal which the Republican party cherishes, their claim to have elections conducted by their opponents with all the guaranties for impartiality which would be exacted in a private transaction remains unshaken. Unless the theory of the American Government is a huge mistake, the only way to reduce or put an end to Democratic wickedness and restore the old love of honest voting and honest counting, is to leave no man fair grounds for suspecting or alleging that the party in power does not desire honest voting and honest counting. In other words, the only remedy for dishonesty is honesty, and for corruption, purity; and in politics, as in law, it must be remembered it is not enough to be honest or pure—you must so act that no man shall have reason to doubt that you are honest and pure.

We cannot help feeling that the Republican mode of dealing with this question in the Senate will increase the number of those who believe that the Bourbonism of the party is in many ways more objectionable than that of the Democrats; that the implacability of temper handed down to it by the war, and which some of its members cherish as a gift of the God of Peace, has unfitted it for constructive statesmanship, and that nothing short of its complete expulsion from power will purify the political atmosphere. The number of adherents who are lost to it from this view may in any one year be small, but no one can deny that it is every year a perceptible quantity, and that in one way or another the hold of the party on every State in the Union has come to be very slight even in times of excitement. Its majorities everywhere are now very small, and nothing will increase them but some policy that will, as when the party was founded, touch the springs of moral enthusiasm. A game of tricks and counter-tricks with the Democrats, however successful, is hardly likely to do this. Nor are people who seek moral foundations for their politics likely to be well pleased with the total ignoring in Mr. Edmunds's speech of the important bearing which this supervision of elections by the general Government has on the question of a non-partisan civil service. It is simply preposterous to ask any party out of power to accept calmly the doctrine that elections are sure to be pure if watched by functionaries appointed as United States marshals are now appointed, and who, like these functionaries, are dependent for their places on the result of the election.

THE BRITISH ELECTIONS.

IT is at first sight difficult to account for the surprise which the result of the elections in England has created even among the best English observers. Neither Conservatives nor Liberals seem to have been at all prepared for it. We know that the Liberals themselves were very despondent up to the dissolution of Parliament, and the Tories were satisfied that their prospects were decidedly better then than they were a year ago. It was, in fact, a current belief among the Tories, and found expression on the stump immediately before the election, that Mr. Gladstone's speeches were actually helping them; and some went so far as to say that if he kept on talking in the same vein to the end it would give them most of the boroughs and all the counties. Lord Beaconsfield undoubtedly took this view of his rival's eloquence, and the confidence he felt was fully displayed in his letter to the Duke of Marlborough, which was published as an electioneering manifesto. In it he did not even think it necessary to explain what his policy was. He simply declared that in order to save the Empire from dissolution and maintain the "ascendency" of England in the councils of Europe it was necessary to keep him in power. Sir William Harcourt was, indeed, if we remember rightly, the only prominent speaker on the Liberal side who ventured to predict confidently that the Ministry would be overthrown by a general election. The Tory speakers, as a rule, took no pains to conceal their contempt for efforts made to oust them. The Liberals were treated as a body rent by dissensions, and thoroughly discredited even in the eyes of the moderate men of their own party, and, although they might achieve some success in Scotland and Ireland, they had alienated the English public. The *Pall Mall Gazette* up to the last represented the secession of the Moderates as having already occurred, or as being sure to show itself at the election on a great scale, and the *Times*, in an article which appeared since the dissolution, apropos of Mr. Gladstone's Scotch speeches, expressed great anxiety lest the Liberals should not command sufficient strength in the new Parliament even to perform the duties of a respectable opposition.

This ignorance or uncertainty about the state of the public mind was probably due to a variety of causes. In London, where the press is largely influenced by "society," Mr. Gladstone appeared to be the embodiment of the Liberal party, and it therefore became the object of the dislike and distrust which he had excited in the class which sets the tone in the clubs, and which was disgusted by his enthusiasm, his indiscretions, and his volubility both with pen and tongue. The Court, too, which is now, owing to the size of the royal family, an unusually potent element in society, had set its face against him for a variety of reasons and lavished its favors without stint on Lord Beaconsfield, who was visited in his country-house both by the Queen and the Prince of Wales with somewhat ostentatious favor. The Army was immensely tickled by the "imperial policy" as promising active service, and giving increased weight to military considerations and questions. So that altogether the social world of London appears to have come to look on the greatest Englishman of our time as in some sort a dangerous and unsound person, and to have concluded that it was impossible that a majority of English voters could at a critical season entrust with power a party which was under his guidance or likely to take its inspiration from him. In the provinces, and especially in the North of England, where the newspapers are more directly exposed to popular influence, there was by no means the same confidence in Liberal weakness; but there was, nevertheless, no assurance of victory. The best explanation of the mystery perhaps, after all, lies in the fact that the constituencies have greatly changed, not only since 1868 but since 1874. It was in 1874 that household suffrage first came into the field, and it is reasonable to suppose that the voters it had created were still unconscious of their own power, unused to forming political judgments, and still under the influence of the middle and upper classes, who, in that year, furiously revolted against Mr. Gladstone, whose reforms had wearied and alarmed them. Since 1874 these voters have probably got more into the way of making up their own minds in politics, and then there are more of them. The votes cast have increased since that year by nearly half a million, and the recent additions clearly form a quantity which electioneering agents and political prophets and wire-pullers seem to have known very little about, and to have supposed to be as much pleased with the imperial policy as "their betters." But no explanation can make the miscalculations of all the leading organs of public opinion anything but a very singular phenomenon.

The unexpectedness of what has happened of course goes far to make all speculation about the past idle; but there is, nevertheless, apparently good reason for thinking that if Beaconsfield had dissolved Parliament and gone to the country in the first stage of his foreign policy, after his triumphal return from Berlin, he might have obtained a new lease of power. The programme he then produced was very brilliant, and imposed for the moment on a good many Liberals. The public fancy was touched by the acquisition of Cyprus, about which people knew nothing but what Beaconsfield, who knew nothing himself, told them. The protectorate of Asia Minor seemed a splendid responsibility and one suited to Eng-

lish genius and traditions, and even the arrival of the seven thousand Sepoys at Malta was looked on as a master-stroke. The Salisbury-Shuvaloff Secret Memorandum, to be sure, was an unpleasant circumstance, but it was overlooked or forgotten in what seemed to be the great triumph of Berlin, which the Queen recognized by giving the two British negotiators the Garter, and the leading Conservative noblemen and gentlemen by giving the Premier a great dinner, at which the Duke of Buccleuch presided. At that dinner Lord Beaconsfield probably passed the happiest hours of his life. He had his blue ribbon on, he was surrounded by his brother peers in the character of the savior of England, and in his intoxication he poured forth a flood of haughty vituperation on Gladstone as "the verbose rhetorician" who had dared to doubt the competency of a company of "English gentlemen" like himself and his Cabinet to manage the affairs of the nation. From that moment there was a steady decline in the position of the Ministry. The value of Cyprus as a "place of arms" began to be found out. The Treaty of Berlin was read more critically and found really to take more from Turkey than it took from Russia. The responsibility assumed by the Anglo-Turkish Convention, which made the Turkish line in Asia Minor a British frontier, was seen to be an enormous one for a non-military power to assume, for of course the fleet could not manœuvre in the Armenian mountains. Then came also the abortion of the attempt to convert Afghanistan into a "strong, friendly, and independent power," and the resolute refusal of the Turks to "reform," as by the Convention they had bound themselves to do.

These things, it is fair to believe, would have had a disastrous influence on the prestige of the Ministry, even if his picturesque foreign policy had been the only attractive feature in Lord Beaconsfield's play-bill. But he had added to it also a scheme for effecting a considerable but ill-defined change, not exactly in the structure, but in the working of the British Government, which he foreshadowed in one of his early novels, under the sounding title of "The Monarch and the Multitude." This change, which is illustrated by the way in which he kept Parliament in the dark about his designs abroad until they had been actually carried into execution, consisted in a kind of reversion to the Elizabethan type of constitutional monarchy, in which the great affairs of state were settled by the sovereign and a small council of ministers, subject, however, to a general power of complaint and discussion, though hardly of ratification, on the part of the House of Commons. That he had such a change in view was not simply an inference from his high-handed way of committing the nation to responsibilities abroad. Its necessity was openly expounded in the Tory press by prominent writers, who represented the House of Commons as having fallen, under various influences, into a sort of by no means venerable decrepitude, and "the multitude" as looking eagerly and justifiably to "the monarch" and her counsellor for the legislation as well as the administration which their interests required. The gravity, not to say solemnity, and the minuteness of illustration with which this theory was set forth and Lord Beaconsfield made to figure as a sort of remodeller of the British Constitution have now, in the light of the late election, an almost ludicrous air. That he should have got men of acknowledged intellectual and social weight to produce him in this character must always remain one of the most striking incidents of his extraordinary career.

That career is now closed. Lord Beaconsfield will doubtless never hold office again; and considering the stir he has made and the airs of political authority he has assumed, there is something really marvellous in the fact that, though he has been over forty years in public life, he had only held office for six years, at different periods, and had acquired no distinction whatever, except as a novelist and epigrammatic debater, when in 1876 he undertook to regulate the affairs of Europe and redistribute the sovereignty in the British Government. His failure in the last stage of his enterprise has been so complete, and has taken him so suddenly, that it will probably make the earlier stage seem more absurd, and even ridiculous, than it really was. It would be unfair to throw on him alone the responsibility of his strange, eventful history. He could not have cut the figure he did if the conditions of his success had not existed in Tory society and manners. If Tory culture had not prepared the party for the leadership of a charlatan, a charlatan would never have led it. And whenever the story of Lord Beaconsfield's hold on the Tory imagination is told for a reproach, it must also be told for a still greater reproach that during the period when they were helping their theatrical chief to amuse himself by arranging the great powers of the British Empire in tableaux, the Englishman whose genius had made the most beneficent and striking contributions of the last fifty years to the statute-book, and whose speeches alone maintained the great traditions of English oratory, was the main object of their ridicule and vituperation. There is one feature about the election which may almost be called pathetic. The area of the globe over which the result was looked for with eager anxiety was, of course, very great, and illustrates strikingly the vastness of the Empire. But what gives a touch of splendor to the Liberal victory is that whole races in the East have seen it as a great light. To every Christian still groaning under Turkish rule it means speedy help and deliverance. To the Christians lately emancipated and to the Greeks it means the consolidation and maintenance of their freedom and independence. To the Hindus it means government for their own sake and not for the gratification of foreign pride. For the Afghans it means a cessation of pillage and slaughter in aid of a "scientific frontier." To the Turk it means that he must be clean and honest and industrious or die. These things must sweeten their triumph to the English Liberals, and would make it precious even if they did not know that it had probably put an end to the last effort that will ever be made on English soil to set up personal government and restore the mystery of statecraft.

FUTURE CIVIL-RIGHTS CASES.

MAY, 1880.—An interesting phase of the Civil-Rights question, based on the recent rulings of the Supreme Court of the United States, has just been presented in Chicago. The Supreme Court of Illinois, as will be remembered, ruled in April last that it was in the power of local school-boards to make obligatory the reading of the Bible in the public schools. The effect of this has been to deprive the Roman Catholic population of Illinois of the right to education in the public schools, which they are taxed largely to support. An application has just been granted, in the United States Circuit Court in Chicago, to remove this case into that court. "Every man," said the learned judge presiding in the Circuit Court, "has a right to an equal enjoyment of the privileges of education for which he is taxed; and to abridge this right is an invasion of the Fourteenth Amendment." A similar ruling has just been made in the United States Circuit Court in Alabama. A State law providing that colored children should have separate schools allotted to them has been held unconstitutional. "What right," said the circuit judge, "has a State legislature to make any discrimination against any class or sect?"

September, 1880.—A late decision of the Supreme Court of Ohio, to the effect that compulsory reading of the Bible in the public schools must be abandoned, has just been reversed by the Supreme Court of the United States. "Have not Protestant Christians," argued Mr. Justice Strong, giving the opinion of the court, "their rights under the Fourteenth Amendment, believing, as they do, that the Bible is the basis of education; and can they be constitutionally deprived of these rights in a State where their money goes to supply three-fourths of the expenses of these schools?" It had been objected, on the argument, that this position was inconsistent with a late ruling in Chicago, by the United States Circuit Court there sitting, to the effect that reading the Bible in the schools could not be constitutionally enforced, as the effect was to impair the civil rights of the Roman Catholics. But this objection was triumphantly refuted by Judge Strong. "It proves," he said in the course of his opinion, "that under the Fourteenth Amendment the rights of no class in the community can be invaded, and that the Fourteenth Amendment, as it was lately remarked by a distinguished Federal judge in Virginia (Rives, J.), in fact as well as in theory, proclaims liberty throughout the land. It might indeed be argued that this breaks up the schools, since they cannot at the same time read and not read the Bible. The objection, however, is irre-

levant; and if the schools interfere with civil rights, so much the worse for the schools."

December, 1880.—Two interesting cases of contempt have just come up at Columbia S. C., before Judge Bond. A Jew, summoned as a juror, was committed by a State court because he declined to sit on Saturday, and, on being brought into court on attachment, closed his ears with cotton, informing the judge that he did not mean to listen to a word that was said. On the same day a witness, claiming to be an atheist, was committed for contempt in refusing to be sworn. Both parties were immediately released on *habeas corpus* by Judge Bond.

January, 1881.—Great excitement, which the Federal marshals, though aided by the military arm of the Government, have had great difficulty in suppressing, has been felt in Boston at the trial of Chief-Justice Gray before Judge Clifford, sitting with a jury in the United States Circuit Court. The Legislature of Massachusetts, it will be recollected, had passed a statute providing that no persons having constitutional scruples as to death punishment should sit on juries in capital cases. Two respectable sects, the Shakers and the Quakers, hold such scruples; and the question of the constitutionality of the statute excluding them was brought last week before Chief-Justice Gray and Judge Morton in the case of Com. *v.* Jones, the defendant being a Shaker indicted for murder. Notwithstanding a learned argument by the U. S. District Attorney, intervening on the part of the United States, to the effect that the Fourteenth Amendment gave Shakers a right to be summoned on juries, and that a State statute excluding them was unconstitutional, the Chief-Justice overruled a motion to quash the array made by the defendant, and ordered the case to be placed on the trial list for the next day. A warrant, however, was instantly issued, as is well known, for the arrest of Chief-Justice Gray, and he was subsequently bound over by a Federal commissioner for trial. The trial took place yesterday, and occupied but a few hours. The jurors, having been summoned by the marshal from persons friendly to the Government and to the due enforcement of civil rights, were challenged by the defendant on the ground that it was a strange way of enforcing civil rights to select jurors from one party alone; but the challenge was overruled by the court. The evidence occupied only half an hour, consisting simply of the fact that the defendant, as charged in the indictment, had refused to quash an array of jurors from which Shakers had been excluded. Judge Clifford, in charging the jury, told them that the questions of law raised by the defendant had already been decided by the Supreme Court of the United States, in March, 1880, in Cole's case; Cole being a Virginia judge who, in obedience to a State law, had refused to quash a jury from which colored men had been excluded. Judge Clifford further said that he had dissented, as was well known, from the decision in Cole's case, but that now, sitting on circuit, he was bound to carry out the decision of the majority of the court. It was alleged by the defendant in the present case that what he did was in the exercise of his judicial discretion as Chief-Justice of Massachusetts. This point had been taken in Cole's case, so Judge Clifford said in his charge, and had been overruled by the Supreme Court. After the rulings of the Supreme Court in Cole's case, so he went on to tell the jury, there was nothing for them to do but convict, which they accordingly did somewhat promptly. The defendant was sentenced to be imprisoned for thirty days, with the statement that as this was a first offence it was to be regarded with comparative leniency, but that any subsequent misconduct of the same class would be much more severely punished.

THE AMERICAN GIRL.

IT is probable that when the American novel comes to be written, as in the due course of evolution must finally happen, the American girl will figure in it with importance. She has the two-fold advantage of being of much intrinsic interest, and of having remained hitherto for the most part unexploited. The fact that she has been so much neglected is a little remarkable; but it is mainly due, we imagine, to the absence of any suspicion in our writers of fiction that she differs in any respect from her foreign analogues. Either they have depicted her after the model mirrored in their own imaginations, instead of reconstructing her from the results of observation, or they have given us individual portraits here and there which, however admirable in themselves, have not the force of generalizations that might portray a national type. Mr. Howells is by far the best instance of the latter method; a very delightful bevy of maidens might be made up from his books first and last; but Mr. Howells seems to be concerned chiefly with the genus rather than with the American species, to be versed and interested in girls as girls instead of in American girls as such, even when he does not go to the other extreme and show us in Kitty Ellison the Ohio girl, or the South Bradfield girl in Miss Lydia Blood. It is complimentary to be thus assured of variety, but all the same a large field is left unexplored. Mr. James, to be sure, has made several incursions into this, with, if not especially complimentary, certainly most interesting results; he has, however, either from diffidence or because it was easiest, confined himself to the drawing of silhouettes, as it were, against the strongly-contrasted background of European society, and the extremely piquant features disclosed are after all only those defined by the juxtaposition. At the best Mr. James's treatment cannot be called exhaustive; he has made various studies of a certain pose, and the sitter is so rounded and complete and distinct that she is worthy of a finished portrait.

She is, nevertheless, of comparatively recent growth, and with all her definiteness is characterized by a bewildering complexity designed to baffle the acutest novelist's scrutiny, so that as the profession of novel-writing is also young with us, and still alloyed with other literary effort, the explanation of her neglect is perhaps not difficult. Twenty or thirty years ago she did not exist even in New England, and in Indiana it is doubtful if she exists to-day. But no society develops so rapidly as a new one without the drawbacks of barbarism, and it is already clear that the general tendency is towards her; that, as a rule, her ranks will have more recruits than deserters; that she has won the present and has not yet, to all appearances, "lost the future." She is the product—wholly natural, it must be admitted—of two of the things we prize most, personal independence, namely, and education. The latter of these enhances, if it does not involve, the other; and since our girls have begun to receive the same education as boys there has grown up in them an imperious desire for independence and the personal dignity it carries with it, which is, perhaps, the distinguishing trait of the best of them. Girls are now in general as well educated as the youth of the other sex—or, at least, are rapidly coming to be—in everything that is a requisite for intellectual equality in the social sphere wherein they have relations to each other. As this condition of things is in this country a new one, however, it has various complications whose effect on character is noteworthy and evident. The mother of the American girl, or, at all events, her grandmother, in six cases out of ten, finished her education at the district school, and betook herself to housekeeping of a kind, and child-bearing on a scale, now grown indisputably antiquated. "Such women are beginning to become rare," writes Turgeneff of his charming Arina Vlassievna; adding, "God knows whether we ought to rejoice at it." Whether we rejoice or not is, perhaps, unimportant. They have with us become impossible, and, whatever the American girl ultimately becomes, it is certain that retrogression is out of the question. It is out of the question that she should "count" as little or in precisely the same way as her mother has done.

Men are beginning to see this, but they have come to it rather tardily and timorously, and for this reason women have been compelled to force it on their attention. This has involved self-assertion, without which it is clear personal independence can never be won, although it may be quite needless to the maintenance of it when once attained. Self-assertion, however, has its drawbacks, and the wonder is that the American girl has been able to reconcile it with so many agreeable qualities; for the necessity of making good one's position is always an awkward one, and pioneers of any sort are handicapped with self-consciousness. Self-consciousness, in fact, is a prominent characteristic of the American girl—self-consciousness with all the miseries it involves, which, nevertheless, she contrives to endure with admirable heroism. Having no force of matured public opinion to rely upon, no social conventions that are the outgrowth of long development to regulate her life so far as to save her the necessity of looking before every leap, she is inevitably driven in upon herself. Her mind is naturally far more occupied with rights than with duties—except, of course, those set down in the decalogue. Her claims altogether transcend her concessions. If she were in the least introspective—which, with all her self-consciousness, she is very far from being—she would perceive that she measures other people by a standard considerably higher than her own. Without being in the least conceited, being, on the contrary, extremely diffident and exasperatedly conscious of it, her vanity is something abnormal. Constant justification of her position rivets her attention upon her success or failure, and what is called "effect" becomes of singular importance to her. How imminent is the peril of shallowness her lack of introspection prevents her from discerning. The possession of hitherto forbidden fruit is so delightful that she is frequently content with its fragrance and leaves

it untasted. The number of entirely serious American girls who have within the decade made an acquaintance with literature, bric-à-brac, art, music, and even science, in quick succession, merely to increase their stores of social ammunition, is, we suspect, very large. To know a Corot or a Boldini when they see it, to tell a Japanese vase from a Chinese, to be familiar with the names of different orchestral instruments, with the controversy between Mr. Tyndall and Dr. Martineau, and so on, is in itself so grateful as to be satisfying. This is, moreover, the antipodes of pedantry. It is perhaps not quite sincere enough to be pedantic. Nothing is more disagreeable to the American girl than the idea of a "blue-stocking." Cant allusions to "the strong-minded" by unimaginative young men she regards as a trifle coarse and wholly inapplicable. For what are called "the rights of woman" she cares nothing; it is her personal importance that concerns her. She does not want a vote—though she has a conviction that women of property should be allowed a voice upon questions of taxation—but her anxiety to "count" as a "person" approaches intensity.

From all this it is possible to conclude that the American novel might do worse upon the whole than to take a suggestion from Turgeneff and treat of 'Mothers and Daughters'; just now in America this conflict seems to bear an analogy to the conflict of 'Fathers and Sons' in Russia. In both instances tradition has lost its sanctions for the younger generations, and what has so far been substituted for it is in a state of flux, promising or not as one likes, but undeniably picturesque. Who has not witnessed the loving contempt the better sort of American girls display for their mothers, and the affectionate jealousy with which these in turn contemplate their successors? The two are come to have scarcely an intellectual sympathy in common; the acquirements of the one are yet too recent to be leavened with toleration, and the arrogance inseparable from their rawness is keenly resented by the other. No small part of the family conversation in many homes is probably made up on the one hand of laments over the "doings" of "these days," and on the other of protest against the unreasonable impossibility of putting young heads on old shoulders. The result is never in doubt: it is the resignation of age on the one side and the irritability of youth on the other. And the latter certainly is outspoken. The American girl honors the fifth commandment scrupulously, but she does not decorate it. For social conventions, having outgrown obsolete conditions, she has precisely the respect they seem to her to merit; and it must be admitted that her examination of their deserts is to the last degree conscientious. Secure in two natural qualities in which she has possibly no equal the world over, good sense, namely, and integrity, she may with more impunity than most treat them as surplusage. Only the delicacy, the charm, the fine flavor which comes of itself by the mere unquestioning following of conventions is apt to elude the best directed efforts of even feminine logic; to make the world over something besides integrity and good sense is necessary, and the American girl would undeniably like to have the world made over again in two respects: she would like to have the world's distinction between young girls and married women obliterated, and she would like to be judged by her intentions instead of by her conduct, both of which desires are notoriously in the teeth of conventions. Unhappily for the gratification of the former wish, the world has decided that the *ingénue* quality is too attractive in a young girl to permit her to know anything of one-half of life. The American girl chafes at this; her curiosity is piqued; and, since to her enquiry as to why knowledge of any sort is hurtful to any one, it is impossible for even her mother to make any reply, she concludes there is nothing in it; which would be all very well if she did not act accordingly. As it is, though only a German would argue from her exercise of her right to do as she likes that she "has carefully elaborated a system of licentious behavior"—a Teutonic induction from a Bangor young lady's conduct in Mr. James's 'A Bundle of Letters,' it may be remembered—it causes people to make allowances for her, which is fatal to her position as a "person." To gratify the other wish is equally fatal to this and equally difficult to do. Most people do not understand her request to be granted the consideration of an adult together with the impunity of a child; on the contrary, they *mis*understand her, which is always the more unfortunate for the misunderstood. They esteem her inconsiderateness selfishness, for example, which it is not at all; and it is she who suffers. When people are too much perplexed they become indifferent; the game is not worth the candle, the world being sordid.

What makes it a singularly difficult thing, moreover, to judge her by her intentions solely is a certain unconquerable incapacity of expression that infallibly characterizes her. This is wholly feminine, it may be said, and women have mistranslated their emotions in speech and action with exasperating persistency since Eve. But in the American girl it is of a peculiar and exaggerated type. More invariably than any of her contemporaries she hoists the black flag when she sounds a parley. It is the reserve neither of instinct nor of principle, but of inability to be frank. The almost passionate worship of personal independence probably instils a distrust of frankness as implying, however faintly, a confession of weakness. Absolute personal independence is, of course, an impracticable ideal; but this can only be learned empirically, and of experience the American girl has none whatever. To the thousand obstacles in the way of her efforts to attain it she is obliged to oppose her only weapon of native tact. One's own supply of tact, however, is never adequate if it is unassisted by experience; fencing becomes necessary and finally habitual. Any one whose acquaintance with American girls is at all intimate must have had frequent experience of the suspiciousness, the almost morbid sensitiveness, the consequent wearisome "rallying" which marks the conversation of some of the gentlest and best disposed girls in the world, who it is all the time clear would be glad to get rid of it if they could. It may be that, as Carlyle says of "the dumb English," "the element of Shaksperian melody does lie imprisoned in their nature." The difficulty is that on really serious topics they are tongue-tied; and they take refuge in banter, with the result that men learn to expect nothing else of them. That aimless personal contest, that competition in which there is nothing at stake except the grateful avoidance of defeat, in which there is no real interest taken, which is never pursued as an art, and which is thus oftener brutal than brilliant, ensues. Nothing being so cruel as fear, and dread of defeat being omnipresent with her in this incessant conversational contest, the American girl is apt to say the bitterest things she "can lay her tongue to," as the phrase is, at the same time that she may be feeling kindliest. Hence with no one is familiarity so dangerous and so likely to be abused Her attitude is one of unconquerable hostility, based on diffidence and distrust; being essentially modest, it never occurs to her that she can wound or affront; being in constant fear of patronage which threatens her dignity, the complimentariness implied in familiarity seems satirical. If she is in doubt, she takes care to be on the safe side. It is probable that more incipient matrimony than we are apt to suspect gets nipped in the bud from the failure of her male correlative to understand this. It does not make him any wiser to assure him that she is, after all, more feminine than American, and that anybody but a fool would discern or divine her real feeling. She is altogether too much of a "person" for him to take such a liberty; no doubt, too, she would call it a "liberty" herself. This attitude, however, requires certain sacrifices; whether when she realizes these she will care to make them is still an open question.

MEMOIRS OF MME. DE RÉMUSAT.—VOL. III.

PARIS, March 19, 1880.

NAPOLEON had never abandoned the project of his divorce from Josephine. We have represented him in 1807, holding his court at Fontainebleau, the arbiter of Europe and at the height of his power. He wanted nothing but an heir; he was establishing a new Empire with kings as his satellites; he was building, at least he thought so, for eternity; and everything hung upon the thread of his life. He sometimes spoke to Josephine of the death of young Napoleon, the son of Louis; of the delicate health of the other son of his brother—and hinted at the idea of a separation. He asked her once if she could not take the initiative, and save him the odium of a forced rupture:

"The Empress knew him too well to help him in this circumstance; she replied with calm and dignity that she would always obey his orders, but that she could do nothing more. 'Sire,' said she (for since his accession to the throne she had accustomed herself, even in *tetê-à-tête*, to address him with ceremonious forms), 'you are the master and you will decide my fate. When you order me to leave the Tuileries I shall obey at once; but the least you can do is to give me a positive order. I am your wife; I have been crowned by you in the presence of the Pope; such honors cannot be voluntarily abandoned. If you divorce me France shall know that you turned me out, and shall not be ignorant of my obedience or of my profound sorrow.'"

For a while the project of Napoleon was again abandoned, but Josephine became very uneasy, and her fears were such that she once allowed herself to say to Madame de Rémusat: "If I am too much in his way, who knows what he is capable of, and whether he would resist the wish to get rid of me?" to which Madame de Rémusat contented herself with replying: "Madame, be sure that he is not capable of going so far."

Two or three weeks before the end of the sojourn in Fontainebleau, Fouché, the Minister of the Police, arrived one morning and stayed a long time with the Emperor. Towards midnight everybody had retired; Madame de Rémusat was already in bed, when she was summoned by the Empress, and going immediately to her room found her dishevelled, half-dressed, and with her face quite *renversé*. She sent away her maids and showed her a long letter, signed Fouché. In this letter the Minister of the Police represented to her that the Emperor, who was now absolute master of France, owed something to the future of France. "It cannot be disguised," said the letter, "that the political future of France is compromised by the Emperor being deprived of an heir. As Minister of the Police I am well placed to know the state of public opinion, and I know that some uneasiness is felt about the succession of such an Empire." Fouché told the Empress that the affection of the Emperor for her did not allow him to propose a separation, and boldly asked her to make a courageous effort. He ended by saying that the Emperor did not know he was writing to her, and asked the Empress not to betray his confidence. Mme. de Rémusat at once judged that Fouché had done nothing except by the Emperor's order. She advised Josephine to go at once to the Emperor, to show him the letter, to express her anger to him, and to declare again that she would only obey a positive order which he should himself give. When Josephine showed the letter to Napoleon he affected great anger himself, said that he did not know what Fouché had done; that Fouché had now gone back to Paris, otherwise he would have scolded him. He was very affectionate and caressing; still, Josephine found him somewhat embarrassed.

The Rémusats had little affection for Fouché; they informed Talleyrand what had happened. Talleyrand heard quietly what they had to say, pronounced Fouché's letter ridiculous, and sent word to the Empress, through Madame de Rémusat, to answer Fouché haughtily that he should not meddle with matters which could only be treated without intermediaries. The Empress followed this advice; Talleyrand read her answer, but advised that it should be shown to the Emperor, who, said he, would not dare to disapprove it. Everything happened as he had said. Napoleon again affected much anger with Fouché, but asked his wife to forgive one who was so useful to him. When a week afterwards Fouché returned to Fontainebleau the Emperor took care to be a little cold with him, but Fouché did not seem to mind it in the least. Napoleon became more tender with Josephine than he had been for a long time; he often pressed her in his arms, sometimes declaring he never could live away from her. "In these scenes," says Madame de Rémusat, "first played intentionally, he slowly and involuntarily became animated, and he ended by being moved and softened *bonâ fide*."

Talleyrand seemed at that time really hostile to the divorce; he did not look on it as merely an "affaire de ménage." "There is nobody," he said to Madame de Rémusat, "in this palace who ought not to desire that Josephine should remain with Bonaparte; she is sweet-tempered, she is good; she knows the art of calming him; she enters into everybody's position. She is a refuge for us on many occasions. If we see a princess come here you will see the Emperor break with the whole court, and we shall be crushed." Still he often asked Madame de Rémusat what she would do if the Emperor divorced. She answered, without hesitation, that she would follow the fortunes of Josephine. She was attached to her, and, though she knew her to be "light and little susceptible of a prolonged affection," she would be faithful to her. "I entered this court through Madame Bonaparte; I have always passed before the world as her intimate friend; I have received her confidences, and though she has been often too preoccupied with her own position to amuse herself with loving me, the public, which cannot enter into the secret of our relations, and which shall not know it from me, would, I am sure, be surprised if I did not share her exile." Madame de Rémusat judged aright; it was quite evident that Napoleon would not have left her near a new empress, as she would have been for him a sort of living remorse. She did not affect to have a very deep affection for Josephine, who was herself very frivolous, very changeable, and incapable of any profound sentiment; still, she liked her, and she owed her much. Josephine had been uniformly kind to her, and had saved her and her husband almost from poverty.

It is a great pity that Madame de Rémusat does not in her 'Memoirs' give us the last act of the drama of the divorce. How interesting would it not have been to have from her the details of these historical scenes! She remained faithful to Josephine, as she had promised to do, though Queen Hortense herself tried to persuade her to remain at the Court. She had promised Josephine not to leave her, even if she were to quit France. Sometimes Napoleon had hinted that his wife should always have a throne, perhaps at Rome itself. "When he spoke thus," says Madame de Rémusat, "the Pope was still in this same Rome, and nothing announced that he would have to leave it. But the gravest events seemed quite simple to Napoleon." We find no details about the divorce in the last volume of Madame de Rémusat; it seems as if she had not liked the concluding chapters of her court-life. We see in the notes that the Rémusats both fell into disgrace with Talleyrand, though M. de Rémusat kept his title and his functions of great-chamberlain. As for Madame de Rémusat, she had left the Court at the same time as Josephine. She went only once to the Tuileries, in order to be presented to the new Empress in great ceremony; she never saw the Emperor again till the end of 1812. The Duke of Friuli came to her and told her that Napoleon wished to see her, and he gave her the order to ask for an audience. She could not refuse; she asked for an audience, and was received. M. Paul de Rémusat, who tells this in the notes, says that he does not know what passed between Napoleon and his grandmother; he knows only that there was some question of Josephine's debts, and of some of her conversations. Josephine was always in debt, and Napoleon did not much mind her extravagance; so it seems to me probable that the visit must have had some object which Madame de Rémusat kept to herself. Josephine was at the time absent in Geneva, and Madame de Rémusat, to obey the orders of the Emperor, was obliged to write to her, and to give her advice which was to appear spontaneous, as the Emperor desired not to be named. This letter seems to have occasioned some *refroidissement* between Madame de Rémusat and the Empress Josephine.

It is interesting to know what were the feelings of Talleyrand in this great affair of the divorce. Fouché had made himself the ally of the Bonaparte family against the Beauharnais; he was induced to take this course by Madame Murat, who was very anxious to dethrone Josephine. Talleyrand was not absolutely hostile to the divorce, but he disliked and dreaded Fouché; he was anxious also to make of the divorce, if Bonaparte determined on it, a diplomatic instrument and power for France. Napoleon was leaning towards a Russian alliance, but Talleyrand knew that the Empress of Russia would not give one of her daughters to Bonaparte. The Spanish war was imminent, and Talleyrand, who was afraid of its consequences, took for a time the side of Madame Bonaparte. He denounced Fouché to Napoleon as a dangerous man:

"He is," said he, "and always will be the man of the revolution. Take care; it is by factious arts that he wishes to lead you to an act which requires a monarchical apparel [Fouché had hired some popular manifestations in favor of the divorce]. He wishes a mob, collected by his orders, to come and vociferate and ask for an heir with the same outcries that imposed on Louis XVI. I don't know what concessions, which he could never refuse. When you have accustomed the people to interfere in your affairs by such means, who knows but the people may acquire a taste for it, and what they will ask next?"

Napoleon was moved by these remarks; he was, besides, really attached to Josephine, who was the only charm of his interior life. There are curious and almost painful details in the last chapters of Madame de Rémusat on the emotions of Bonaparte, on his nervous state, his agitation: "My poor Josephine, I shall never be able to leave you." The terrible man, who felt unmoved on the battle-field and who played with the lives of men as a child plays with sand, cried easily; he loved and tormented his "little Creole"; he wished to see her covered with diamonds and to tear all her ornaments from her. He did leave her after all, and the 'Memoirs' of Metternich show that he regretted deeply the "folly" which he committed when he abandoned his first wife. The Archduchess Marie Louise was, in his thought, a tie between his dynasty and the old dynasties of Europe. He soon saw that she had only been sacrificed, like Iphigenia; that the old dynasties did not and could not forgive him; Marie Louise helped them and gave them a little breathing time, but the coalition had become inevitable and the days of the Empire were already numbered. The popular feeling in France justified the instincts of Bonaparte; even now you will find, among the peasants, the soldiers, the poor, a vague notion that Napoleon's luck was tied to the "bonne Joséphine," and that when he left her he signed his own condemnation.

Notes.

CASSELL, PETTER & GALPIN will shortly bring out a new and cheaper edition of Fred. Barnard's 'Character Sketches from Charles Dickens,' in a handsome portfolio, large quarto size; also, 'Woman's

Work and Worth,' by W. H. Davenport Adams.——G. P. Putnam's Sons publish immediately, 'William Ellery Channing: His Opinions, Genius, and Character,' by the Rev. H. W. Bellows, and have in press Dinglestedt's romance, 'The Amazon,' translated by Prof. James Morgan Hart. ——Still further availing himself of the Napoleon "boom" excited by the memoirs of Metternich and Mme. de Rémusat, Mr. W. J. Widdleton has followed up his reimpression of O'Meara's 'Napoleon in Exile' with a cheap edition in four volumes of Count de Las Cases's 'Memoirs of the Life, Exile, and Conversations of the Emperor Napoleon.'——The editor of the *Magazine of American History* gives in the March number a very trenchant review of Benedict Arnold's career, apropos of his kinsman's late exculpatory memoirs. Incidentally he warmly defends Gates against his detractors. A steel portrait of Arnold accompanies the text. Several interesting illustrations occur in connection with a notice of the Chew family of Pennsylvania; and a chart of Newport and its defences in 1781, by one of Rochambeau's officers, is reproduced along with an easy translation of the author's diary.——In the April Johns Hopkins University Circular Dr. Wm. Hand Browne, the Librarian, enumerates with details the libraries of Baltimore, of which that of the Peabody Institute is the largest. The aggregate number of volumes accessible to readers is 197,-450.——The fourth Cincinnati Biennial Musical Festival under the direction of Mr. Theodore Thomas is definitively announced for May 18, 19, 20, and 21. Beethoven's Missa Solennis will be repeated in conjunction with the Symphony in C minor.——The monthly review called the *Molièriste*, and edited by M. Georges Monval, the archivist of the Comédie-Française and historian of the Odéon, has reached the end of its first year, the twelfth (March) number containing an ample index to the proper names in the three hundred and seventy-five pages of the volume. The *Molièriste* has been illustrated with etchings and fac-similes from time to time as required. The most important article, in many respects, is an account of the late Charles Fechter's ill-advised attempt to modernize and, so to speak, romanticize "Tartuffe," much as he afterward melodramatized "Hamlet." It is not a little curious that there is no similar periodical publication in English devoted to the Shakspere cult.——A curious work for the art-collector is 'Les Illustrations des écrits de Jérôme Savonarola, publiés en Italie au XV. et au XVI. siècle, et les paroles de Savonarola sur l'art,' by Gustave Gruyer (Paris: Firmin Didot). It is adorned with thirty-three engravings executed after the original wood-cuts.

—In the March number of the *American Art Review* Mr. W. J. Linton pays a proper tribute to his art and to his adopted country by beginning a serial 'History of Wood-Engraving in America.' The first chapter is devoted to Dr. Alexander Anderson, a native of this city, born in 1775 —"the same year that Bewick (then twenty-two years of age) received the premium of the Society of Arts in London for his engraving of 'The Huntsman and Hound,' afterwards printed in an edition of Gay's 'Fables.'" Anderson's first impulse towards wood-engraving was derived from seeing some of the works of this master, of whom he became a creditable disciple so far as method is concerned; for original power of design he is hardly to be reckoned an artist. He copied many of Bewick's cuts, reversing them, and was in point of industry not unlike his great exemplar. The illustrations to Mr. Linton's text are numerous and very interesting. They include a portrait of Dr. Anderson in his ninety-second year. In the forthcoming number of the *Review* Mr. F. W. Putnam will expose a palpable attempt at fraud in finding an Egyptian image in a Florida shell-mound.

—To the Boston *Medical and Surgical Journal* of March 18 Dr. Charles F. Folsom, Secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Health, contributes a valuable article on the Freeman homicide at Pocasset, Mass., under the title, "Cases of Insanity and of Fanaticism." Freeman is the Cape Cod Adventist who actually sacrificed his little daughter in her sleep after the manner of Abraham's would-be sacrifice, and with the full assurance that the fatal blow would not be required of him: "He raised his hand to the highest, kept it up a long time to give God plenty of time, brought it down and struck the bed," and again raised it for the fatal blow. A minute sketch of his history is given, and, although Dr. Folsom mentions hereditary tendency as a very strong cause of his insanity, the physical predispositions seem to count for more, particularly a sun-stroke and an attack of diphtheria. Freeman's character was upright and respectable, and his domestic feelings strong and tender. His religious aberration dates from his hearing in the Methodist church of which he was the care-taker a sermon from the Old Testament which made him think if the book "were all true, and men lived up to it, they would soon be in the poor-house with their families." Going home in much agitation, he found a copy of Mr. Murray's *Golden Rule*, containing a sermon on renunciation "by a popular preacher"—perhaps the editor himself; and then began a series of attempts to test the truth of the Bible—"to follow the letter to its logical sequence, and see whether God would support a man in it, as 'the Spirit of God leads a man in the opposite to the natural direction.'" Later he came under the influence of an Adventist revival, and took the leadership of the local body, some two dozen strong. His wife unintentionally put into his head the notion of a sacrifice like Abraham's, and did not oppose his undertaking it, feeling sure he would be stopped before it was consummated. After the first shock he comforted her with the certainty that the child's resurrection would take place in three days, and likewise persuaded his Adventist brethren and sisters. At the end of that period the three days, as in the familiar interpretation of the first chapter of Genesis, became days "in the Scriptural sense," of unknown length.

—Freeman is but thirty-four years of age, his wife a few months younger. Their acts (murder excepted) and arguments can all be paralleled from the history of the Millerite excitement which culminated in 1844, two years before Freeman was born. Dr. Folsom remarks:

"So far as the other eighteen Adventists who shared the delusion of the immortality and bodily resurrection of the murdered child are concerned, little is to be said. With the exception of three, who are ill-balanced, they belong to the sensible grammar-school-taught, neat, industrious Americans of the rural districts of New England. Their delusion, in the midst of the realities of the practical life of our day, is more like the witchcraft delusion than any other which comes to my mind, and opens a field for most interesting philosophical enquiry too wide to be entered upon here."

It also reopens the discussion as to the methods of our common-school instruction; and perhaps it would be found on examination that the distinctions on which the sects of Christendom pride themselves have often no better warrant than Freeman's belief that "his incarceration is spoken of in the Bible, where it is said that God shall hold his own in his right arm," because he was shut up in Barnstable jail; "Barnstable being in Cape Cod, and the cape being sometimes called the right arm of the State."

—The recently incorporated Free Circulating Library is an enterprise which deserves to meet with complete success. It was begun in a most modest way a year ago in a little room in Thirteenth Street, with voluntary contributions of books by a number of ladies and gentlemen who wished to test the question whether there was any demand among the poorer public in New York for a library. Nobody has ever very satisfactorily explained why the largest city in the United States is destitute of a free library. Every one knows, however, that for the general public, and particularly for the poorer portions of it, access to books is almost as completely cut off in this city as it is in the Adirondacks. The Astor Library is a reference library, intended for, or, at any rate, chiefly used by, scholars. The Mercantile Society Library is not free. The Apprentices' and Young Men's Christian Association Library furnish books only to particular classes. Experience shows that to have a library in a large city generally used it must be free, and it must actually *lend* books. With ninety-nine people out of a hundred the difference between a library from which they can take books home and a library in which they must remain to consult books, is the difference between what they want and what they have rather an aversion for. The projectors of the Free Circulating Library determined on this account to see for themselves whether there was any demand for a library liberated from all the restrictions governing those already in existence. They very soon found that the demand outran the supply, and that the applications for books far exceeded their means of furnishing them; they therefore determined upon incorporating themselves under the State law and appealing to the public for assistance. Their plan is to increase their resources as the demand increases, and to establish distributing points wherever it may appear to be most advisable. A house has been taken at No. 36 Bond Street. We learn that during the past year the circulation was seven thousand, although the library was only open for a few hours two days in the week. It is a surprising and important fact that there was in this period a loss of only three volumes. The State law authorizes liberal municipal subscriptions to enterprises of this kind, but the managers of the Free Circulating Library have, it seems to us, done wisely in resisting the temptation to apply to the city government for aid. Politics in New York have always had a baleful influence on all charitable enterprises that have come in contact with them, and there can be little doubt in any one's mind that a public library supported by the Common Council

would speedily become a politician's football. Money would not be given without conditions, expressed or tacit, being attached to the grant, and those conditions would include patronage. To have the management of a public library fall into the hands of the hangers-on of the Common Councilmen would be a public calamity, and the managers of the new scheme show great prudence in being unwilling to risk such a danger. What is most needed now by the Free Circulating Library is money to meet the continually increasing demands upon it, and we have no doubt it will be supplied with all it needs. There are few thinking people in New York who are not aware that its condition in respect to public libraries is a scandalous reproach to its pretensions as a civilized capital. The following is a list of the trustees: Hamilton Fish, Joseph H. Choate, A. S. Hewitt, Robert Hoe, jr., Levi P. Morton, F. W. Stevens, Benjamin H. Field, Philip Schuyler, W. W. Appleton, Temple Prime, Mrs. W. C. Tuckerman, Miss A. Redmond, Mrs. E. Hobson, Mrs. J. F. Kernochan, Miss C. Emily Hyde, Mrs. W. H. Draper, Miss Catharine C. Hunt, Mrs. Angelica L. Hamilton, Mrs. d'Oremieulx, Mrs. Julia G. Blagden, and Mrs. F. C. Barlow. Mr. L. P. Morton is treasurer of the organization, and contributions may be sent to him at 25 Nassau Street. Contributions of books also will be gladly received at the rooms of the Library.

—The Bijou Opera House was opened last Wednesday evening with Gilbert and Clay's "Ages Ago." Mr. Gilbert has never done anything for the stage that was not marked by originality, and "Ages Ago" is worth seeing, if only as a dramatic oddity. The idea would never have occurred to any one but Mr. Gilbert, and no one else could have carried it out with his ingenious humor. The "legend," in which the characters of the play appear as pictures, is very pretty, and the vitalization of the portrait of *Brown*, the imaginary maternal grandfather of the possessor of the gallery, quite a stroke of genius. Here and there the dialogue seems better calculated to impart useful information as to the progress of the arts and sciences than to advance the action, but generally it is bright and amusing. Mr. Clay's music is, like all his music, good, though it is open to the criticism that it is hardly of a popular character. The two essentials for popular music are melody and strongly marked time, and one is as important as the other. Mr. Clay's songs are all marked by a very melodious quality, but that regular rhythm and beat which, for instance, characterizes all dance music, is wholly wanting. All really "catching" tunes have this, and, of course, for operettas what is most wanted is "catching" tunes. We can easily understand Mr. Clay looking down upon this requisite of light operatic music, and, indeed, we do not mean to say that his music is not a great deal better than the best music Offenbach ever wrote. So is Mendelssohn's; but the "Songs without Words" are not whistled in the streets. To combine excellence with general popularity is, in music as in other departments of human activity, a difficult task. To come as near it as Mr. Clay does in "Ages Ago" is a remarkable feat. In "Charity begins at Home," another operetta produced on the same evening, the composer, Mr. Cellier, has made a more distinct bid for popular approval. The airs are all "tuney" to the last degree, and there are a great many of them. The play itself, too, by Mr. Bolton Rowe, is much more dramatic than "Ages Ago." The characters are *Bumpus*, a beadle; *Mrs. Bumpus*, his wife; *Susan*, their daughter; *Joe*, a charity boy; and *Gorringe*, a travelling photographer. The beadle's source of maintenance is a village charity, the continuance of which is dependent on his each year making a wayfarer drink some water from the town pump, putting a vagrant in the stocks, and holding an examination of the charity scholars when the inspector comes to the village. The difficulty is that the water has such a peculiar taste that no one will drink it, that the vagrants carefully avoid the town, and that there is only one charity scholar. As the time for the annual examination comes on the beadle grows anxious, but the appearance of the photographer gives him a means of escape from his difficulties. He forces the photographer to drink some of the water and then claps him in the stocks. The photographer (who is, of course, in love with *Susan*) assumes, in revenge, the disguise of the inspector and insists on an examination. The beadle, to create a school, brings in his wife and *Susan* as scholars, and a musical examination ensues, which is very pretty. In the end the loves of the photographer and *Susan* are triumphant over every obstacle. The music is very light but very pleasing, and several of the part-songs are as good as anything of the sort we have ever heard.

—Colonel Mapleson's effort to produce what is called grand opera has not been successful. The first performance of the "Huguenots," which took place on Friday last, was far from being satisfactory. Much allowance must be made for the drawbacks incidental to such an occasion, but the whole performance gave evidence of hasty, insufficient rehearsals. Signor Campanini, whose presence has ensured success to almost every performance in which he has taken part, suffered from hoarseness, so that even in the first act it was painfully evident that it cost him extraordinary efforts to fill the difficult and exhausting part of *Raoul*. In spite of his indisposition, however, he succeeded in interesting his audience throughout, and his acting and singing in the great duet in the third act was exceedingly effective. Mlle. Ambre is a charming actress, as she has proved in every part she has undertaken; but her voice is altogether lacking in dramatic power, and yet she is the only lady in Mr. Mapleson's company who could fill the part of *Valentine*. The same opinion which we expressed of her *Aïda* applies also to her *Valentine:* she is sympathetic and thoroughly artistic, but wanting in strength and fire. Signor Galassi, as *St. Bris*, was not effective, but that was not his fault. *St. Bris* is a bass part, while Galassi is a baritone of the purest kind, and the best tones of his beautiful organ had no chance of being heard. Signor Del Puente was very good in the insignificant part of *Nevers*, and Mlle. Marimon as *Queen* acted and sang her part with perfect grace and finish. Herr Behrens is sometimes very good and sometimes very bad. Unfortunately, Friday last was one of his unsatisfactory nights, and he sang terribly out of tune the whole evening, though his acting was very spirited and effective. The chorus was not sufficiently trained, and Signor Arditi had the greatest difficulty in keeping it in order. The house was crowded to overflowing. The opera will be repeated this week, and it is to be hoped with better results than on Friday.

—The third and fourth of Mr. Joseffy's chamber-music concerts offered programmes of extraordinary interest, but their performance was far from satisfactory. Mr. Joseffy has a fault which is common to many great artists, in that they place the virtuoso above the discriminating musician. We censured the same mistake in Mr. Wilhelmj's chamber-music performances last season, and Mr. Joseffy sins in this respect even more than his distinguished brother artist. This was most evident in Schumann's beautiful pianoforte quintet, in which many passages were spoiled by Mr. Joseffy, who completely drowned the string instruments, and in other places took perfectly unwarranted liberties with the *tempo*. The performance of Bach's famous Triple Concerto at the third concert was still less praiseworthy. There was a want of vigorous and correct ensemble-playing, a certain nervousness in almost every artist, that spoiled the effect of the composition, and everybody was glad when the eleven performers finally met again in the concluding D minor chord. Mr. Müller gave a very satisfactory rendering of Beethoven's Sonata for violoncello and piano in A, Op. 69, and Mr. Brandt the same cold and uninteresting interpretation of the Kreutzer Sonata which we have heard before. Mr. Joseffy's solo numbers were by far the best of these performances; they were, as usual, distinguished by faultless execution, superb touch, and thoroughly poetic conception.

—The martyr of 1553, Michael Servetus, has been the object of a good deal of study recently, the result of which has been in a high degree to vindicate his memory, and seriously to damage the reputation of his persecutor, John Calvin. The principal investigator in this field is Dr. Henri Tollin, preacher in Magdeburg, who has for a number of years been engaged in this study, and has published several monographs upon it. The result of these labors is stated briefly and popularly in No. 254 of the *Deutsche Zeit- und Streitfragen;* which does not, however, profess to relate the life of Servetus, but to discuss his character and theological position. It begins with a vivid picture of the *auto da fe* of Geneva, and then passes in review the various phases of activity of Servet (this is his true name) and the charges brought against him. Servetus was not merely a theologian; he was, says Tollin (p. 7), "the discoverer of the circulation of the blood, the inventor of Comparative Geography, the editor of the best edition of Ptolemy." And as to his theology: "Whatever Servet might be engaged upon, from the time of his finding a Bible in Toulouse until his death, he was throughout one thing—a Bible student" (p. 24). A still better sketch, because more complete, is "Michel Servet," by Charles Dardier, in the *Revue Historique*, vol. x. (May–June, 1879). M. Dardier agrees fully with Dr. Tollin's judgment, although he cannot give to Servetus the credit of having discovered the greater circulation of the blood; but he did discover "the lesser circulation, the pulmonary circulation, which must easily have led to the other, and proved it in clear, exact, and decisive terms" (p. 33). He, like Dr. Tollin, refutes completely the charge of pantheism: "It would be more correct to say that he was a *pan-Christian*, for Christ is, to him, immanent in the world, the soul of the world" (p. 19). M. Dardier concludes his sketch with

these words—reversing the judgment given by Pastor Henry: "A definitive judgment, from which there is no appeal, has been pronounced by historians of different Christian churches and nations, at Geneva, in Germany, England, France, Holland, and elsewhere. But the terms of the verdict are reversed; Servet is declared *not guilty*, and Calvin *guilty with extenuating circumstances*—with the exception, be it understood, of the action of the Genevese reformer in denouncing the Spanish doctor to the French inquisitors; of this guilt he cannot be acquitted—there is on this point no extenuation possible" (p. 54).

—Dr. Tollin's principal work is in examining the relation in which Servetus stood to the several Protestant reformers. About this he has published several treatises—'Michel Servet and the Wittenberg Reformers: 1. Martin Luther and Michel Servet. 2. Philip Melanchthon and Michel Servet'; 'Michel Servet and the Oberland Reformers: 1. Martin Butzer (*Bucer*) and Michel Servet. 2. Capito and Servet.' Dr. Tollin says ('Butzer and Servet,' p. 11): "The Orthodoxy of the sixteenth century held Servet's appearance for a 'sin of Canaan,' and laid upon the 'shameless' man a threefold curse. The first curse was to burn him to ashes; Michael met the fate which hundreds of thousands before him experienced. Refined by fire, he has attained a purer immortality. The second curse was the destruction of his works. By this he was for two centuries deprived of the honor of having discovered the circulation of the blood, and philologists, philosophers, geographers, physicians, theologians have been able to learn very little about him. Not till the present day has begun the more complete estimate of the Spanish writer. But the third curse is not yet healed. It is the effacement of all traces of his intercourse with his contemporaries, executed with the most painful care. To discover these traces is one of the most difficult tasks of historical investigation." Another work of Dr. Tollin is the publication of a brief treatise of Servetus, discovered by himself in Paris: 'Apologetica disceptatio pro astrologia.' It contains only twenty-five small pages, but is one of the grounds of Servetus's condemnation, and had been supposed to be so completely lost that Dr. Tollin could hardly believe his eyes when it was laid before him in 1858. All these works are published by H. R. Mecklenburg, in Berlin.

MIND IN THE LOWER ANIMALS.*

OF books on brute psychology one may easily form a good-sized library, and few libraries devoted to a single subject would contain as much useless rubbish. But of all the books in such a library Dr. Lindsay's would henceforward have to rank as the very queerest. One hardly knows whether most to admire the immense amount of note-taking, sorting, rewriting, indexing, and consulting of Roget's 'Thesaurus' for synonymous names by which to describe the same mental manifestation; or whether most to wonder at the total absence of criticism and psychologic analysis which the author reveals. Indeed, if one of the lower animals had undertaken to write a book on "mind in man" he could hardly have shown a greater destitution than Dr. Lindsay presents of most of those attributes of analysis and generalization which have given to man his extraordinary eminence. The fact is that Dr. Lindsay's sympathy with the objects of his study seems to have swept everything before it except his industry. He has but a single thesis to enforce in his book, which is that the human mind excels the brute mind not in kind, but only in degree. To this end he has some chapters to show how bestial human savages may be, and other chapters to show under what an immense variety of terms, derived from the vocabulary of human operations, we may class the acts of animals wild and domestic. The chapters have such titles as "Religious Feeling," "Self-education," "Use of Instruments," "Power of Calculation," "Foster Parentage," "Commission of Error," "Crime and Criminality," "Suicide," "Deception," etc., etc. Each of these chapters is packed full of brief accounts of animal actions, with laborious enumerations of the dictionary headings under which their specifications may be classed. The name of the authority for the fact is usually given in brackets, but without reference to chapter and verse. A bibliographic index, however, of one hundred and thirty-two books (almost exclusively English, and with lacunæ at that) is appended, and a really superb index of seventy-two pages concludes the book.

The author says in the introduction that he has aimed rather at arranging and indexing material than drawing inferences. He himself considers his book to be a triumph of condensation and compression—"five or six volumes in two." From a certain point of view it would be unfair to deny him this praise. All persons who wish for a work of reference by which to ascertain promptly whether a given human attribute is paralleled in the animal kingdom will have to keep Dr. Lindsay's volumes on their shelves. For our own part, however, we deem ten pages of good analytic work to be more valuable than ten volumes of anecdotes, however curious or marvellous. These will no more sum themselves into an understanding of the essential differences between the brute and the human mind than will the weather reports for a year sum themselves into a law of storms, unless some one deliberately "work them over." The single article by Mr. Romanes in the *Nineteenth Century* for October, 1878, represents an infinitely more hopeful manner of attacking the subject than that which Dr. Lindsay has chosen.

The study of animal *propensities*, as distinguished from their modes of reasoning, does indeed have to be carried on by a collection of instances, exotic and remote, as well as familiar. And it often casts on morbid peculiarities in man a light which we are rather surprised to find Dr. Lindsay take so little account of. Consider, for example, the "feigning of death" which we find so widely spread throughout the animal kingdom, and which Dr. Lindsay describes under the head of "Deception," saying it must require "great self-command" in the animals which practise it. It is really no feigning of death at all, and requires no self-command. It is simply a paralysis from fear which has been so useful in certain creatures as to become hereditary. The beast of prey does not think the motionless bird, insect, or crustacean dead. He simply fails to notice them at all, because his senses, like ours, are much more strongly excited by a moving object than by a still one. It is the same instinct which leads a boy playing "I spy" to hold his very breath when the seeker is near, and which makes the beast of prey himself in many cases motionlessly lie in wait for his victim or silently "stalk" it, by rapid approaches alternated with periods of immobility. It is the opposite of the instinct which makes us jump up and down and move our arms when we wish to attract the notice of some one passing far away, and makes the shipwrecked sailor frantically wave a cloth upon the raft where he is floating when a distant sail appears. Now, may not the statue-like, crouching immobility of some melancholiacs, insane with general anxiety and fear of everything, be in some way connected with this old instinct? They can give no *reason* for their fear to move; but immobility makes them feel safer and more comfortable. Is not this the mental state of the "feigning" animal?

Consider again the strange human symptom which has been described of late years by the rather absurd name of *agoraphobia*. The patient is seized with palpitation and terror at the sight of any open place or broad street which he has to cross alone. He trembles, his knees bend, he may even faint at the idea. Where he has sufficient self-command he sometimes accomplishes the object by keeping safe under the lee of a vehicle going across, or joining himself to a knot of other people. But usually he slinks round the sides of the square, hugging the houses as closely as he can. This emotion has no utility in a civilized man, but when we notice the chronic agoraphobia of our domestic cats, and see the tenacious way in which many wild animals, especially rodents, cling to cover, and only venture on a dash across the open as a desperate measure—even then making for every stone or bunch of weeds which may give a momentary shelter—when we see this we are strongly tempted to ask whether such an odd kind of fear in us be not due to the accidental resurrection, through disease, of a sort of emotion which may in some of our ancestors have had a permanent and on the whole a useful part to play?

As another example, turn to the mania for hoarding. The "miser" has played a great part in novels, on the stage, and in works on psychology of the associationist school. He figures in the latter place as one who has transferred to the gold by which one may buy the goods of this life all the emotions of affection and delight which the enjoyment of the goods themselves would yield; and who thereafter loves the gold for its own sake, preferring the means of pleasure to the pleasure itself. There can be little doubt that much of this analysis a broader view of the facts would have dispelled. "The Miser" is an abstraction. There are all kinds of misers. The common sort, the excessively hoarding, niggardly man, simply exhibits the psychological law that the potential has often a far greater influence over our mind than the actual. A man will not marry now because to do so puts an end to his indefinite potentialities of choice of a partner. He prefers the latter. He will not use open fires or wear his good clothes, because the day may come when he will have to use the furnace or dress in a worn-out coat, "and then where will he be?" Exactly where he puts himself now by his own choice, one may reply to him. But for him better the actual evil than the

* 'Mind in the Lower Animals. By T. Lauder Lindsay, M.D.' 2 vols. 8vo. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880.

fear of it; and so it is with the common lot of misers. Better to live poor now with the *power* of living rich than to live rich at the risk of losing the power. These men value their gold, not for its own sake, but for its powers. Demonetize it and see how quickly they will get rid of it. The associationist theory is as regards them entirely at fault.

With other misers there combines itself with this preference of the power over the act a further and far more instinctive element—namely, the simple hoarding propensity, the impulse of the collector. Every one knows how valueless intrinsically the objects collected may be—shells, postage-stamps, old pamphlets—but the collection once begun (perhaps quite fortuitously), a deathless passion seizes upon the individual to make it more complete than any one else's. Now, every one collects money, and when a man of petty ways is smitten with the collecting mania for this object he necessarily becomes a miser. Here again the associationist psychology is wholly at fault. The hoarding instinct is a blind passion which prevails widely among animals, and of which Dr. Lindsay gives us many curious examples. Characteristically enough he places them in the chapter entitled "Crime and Criminality," apparently because hoarding animals often steal from men what they hoard. Prof. Silliman has thus described one of the hoards of the California wood-rat, made in an empty stove of an unoccupied house:

"I found the outside to be composed entirely of spikes, all laid with symmetry, so as to present the points of the nails outwards. In the centre of this mass was the nest, composed of finely-divided fibres of hemp packing. Interlaced with the spikes were the following: about two dozen knives, forks, and spoons; all the butcher's knives, three in number; a large carving-knife, fork, and steel; several large plugs of tobacco, . . . an old purse containing some silver, matches, and tobacco; nearly all the small tools from the tool-closets, with several large augers, . . . all of which must have been transported some distance, as they were originally stored in different parts of the house. . . . The outside casing of a silver watch was disposed of in one part of the pile, the glass of the same watch in another, and the works in still another."

In every lunatic asylum we find this sort of instinct developing itself in an equally absurd way. Certain patients will spend all their time picking pins from the floor and hoarding them. Others collect bits of thread, buttons, or rags, and prize them exceedingly. Now, the "miser" *par excellence* of the popular imagination and of melodrama, the monster of squalor and misanthropy, is simply one of these mentally deranged persons. His intellect may in many matters be clear, but his instincts, especially that of ownership, are insane, and their insanity has no more to do with the association of ideas than with the precession of the equinoxes. As a matter of fact his hoarding usually is directed to money; but it also includes the filthiest old clothes, old bones, scraps of paper, and almost anything beside. Lately in a Massachusetts town there died a miser of this type, who principally hoarded newspapers. These had ended by so filling all the rooms of his good-sized house from floor to ceiling that his living space was restricted to a few narrow channels managed between them. This, nevertheless, is the kind of miser the associationist psychology seems to have selected as an example of its great principle.

These few instances give us a glimpse of how fruitful the comparative method in mental science may become. It is a pity that Dr. Lindsay with his learning and his practical experience as an asylum physician should have used it so little.

OPPERT'S COREA.*

THE appearance of the grave-robber in print is a unique event in literature. The author, who is described in the diplomatic correspondence of twelve years ago, from China, as "a needy Hamburg trader," "a Jewish peddler," etc., is the same whom Mr. Seward accuses of having engaged in a body-snatching voyage to Corea—"an attempt to take from their tombs the remains of one or more sovereigns of Corea, for the purpose, it would seem, of holding them to ransom." Mr. Oppert, being a North-German subject, could not be tried in the United States Consular Court at Shanghae; but Jenkins, the interpreter, an American, who accompanied Oppert and furnished the capital, was put on trial charged with making "an unlawful and scandalous expedition to Corea, and of violently attempting to land in a country with which the United States had no treaty relations." On purely technical grounds the defendant was acquitted. The author now appears in print. After giving what to his own mind are evidently eight merely introductory chapters, he narrates his thieving expedition in the last chapter. He leaves out some details which readers of the trial at Shanghae may remember, but nevertheless, coolly and without denial, tells us that the main object of his voyage was to steal some buried relics held in great veneration by the regent of this peninsular kingdom. The ultimate purpose to be gained by possession of these relics was to extort a treaty of commerce from "the blood-thirsty tyrant," as Mr. Oppert styles the Regent, and to make commercial intercourse the *sine quâ non* of the return of the stolen bones, corpses, ancestral tablets, or heir-looms. The plan was suggested to Oppert by a French Romanist priest, who had been several years in the country as missionary, who spoke Corean and knew the locality of the treasures. This was inland, about fifty miles from the sea, and the river which they must navigate had three feet of water in it only once a month, during spring-tides, for thirty hours; at other times being wholly dry. This priest figures in the trial under the pseudonym of Farout, but his real name was Féron. Mr. Oppert takes some pains to assure his readers that Féron was not a Jesuit, nor had ever belonged to that order (p. 295); but on page 299 he gives M. Féron's proposition in his own words:

"If the project I am going to lay before you [*i.e.*, to rob the grave] will at first sight appear to you strange and out of the common, remember that *a great aim can never be gained by small means*, and that we must look at this affair from another point of view than that which may be taken by narrow-minded people."

The italics are our own. On being assured that the "object gained" would serve as an effective means of coercing the Regent, the author chartered the steamer *China* at Shanghae, ran up the North-German flag at the fore, hired a hundred Chinese coolies, who with twenty Malays and eight Europeans comprised the force, and on April 30, 1867, left Shanghae, and steamed over to Nagasaki. There he bought several cases of muskets to arm his company, and on May 8 arrived at Prince Jerome Gulf, on the west coast of Corea. The main force embarked in boats, towed by a steam tender called the *Greta*, and moved up the river, whence disembarking, they shouldered their spades and muskets, and marched over the hills to the mausoleum. Owing to shallow water and miscalculated distances, and the fainting of one of the men, who had to be borne in a chair, they arrived at the tomb after having lost nearly ten hours. This was a dangerous loss, in view of the impending fall of the tide, which threatened to leave them high and dry in a hostile country in which the soldiery and amazed people were gathering in thousands. A fresh disappointment awaited them at the tomb, which, instead of the expected "stone-house," proved to be a burglar-proof, walled-in place, strongly protected by an earth-work all around (p. 307). Being equipped with "hardly any" implements of tomb-breaking, they "borrowed" a few in the village near by, and began the task of exhumation. After five hours' work, "instead of the expected door we found its place taken up by a huge stone block, which had been fitted into the opening" (p. 308), and which it was vainly attempted to force. A retreat was ordered, and by great good luck the party managed to get back to the steamer before the tide had utterly gone out, or the Corean soldiers could lay hands on them. It is needless to add that though Mr. Oppert during his trip held several conferences with Corean officials, and even received an autograph letter from the Regent, the gist of which was that "Corea had no need of foreign intruders," he went back to China fleeceless and shorn.

Mr. Oppert has recorded his adventures and observations in a style that savors at times of Hans Breitmann, of country newspapers, and of the British slang at China ports. Many of his expressions are German patois in English words. His book, if not written twelve years ago, might well have been, for he seems utterly ignorant of events since that time. He nowhere mentions the American (perhaps we might say the Robeson) expedition of 1871, nor does he refer in any way to the treaty made by Japan in 1876. Although his unsigned preface—a curiosity of English syntax—is dated October, 1879, he does not refer in any of his chapters to the opening of the ports of Fusan and Gensan, on the east coast, to Japanese residence and commerce. His only knowledge of Chinese and Japanese references to Corea is derived from such sources as Du Halde and Siebold, and he does not seem to know of the existence of Dallet's 'Histoire de l'Église de Corée,' or of the rich stores of Japanese writings concerning Corea, or of the large and splendid maps and charts of the country issued by the Japanese War and Naval Departments. He has no knowledge whatever of the east coast. Some of his statements are not trustworthy, as that "nuptial ceremonies on the celebration of weddings are unknown"; whereas the French missionaries give elaborate accounts, as eye-witnesses, of ordinary marriage ceremonies.

* 'A Forbidden Land: Voyages to the Corea; with an account of its Geography, History, Productions, Commercial Capabilities, etc., etc. By Ernest Oppert.' With two charts and twenty-one illustrations. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo, pp. 351.

Mr. Oppert devotes a chapter to the language, and prints in the appendix a Corean syllabary and a voluminous vocabulary, which he ascribes to Dr. Hoffman, but which was collected by the illustrious Franz von Siebold. In his linguistic researches Mr. Oppert is at least twelve years behind the times, the labors of the French missionaries and of Mr. W. G. Aston, of Tokio, and of Bishop Ridel, who is at work in Japan on a Corean-Latin dictionary, being nowhere referred to. His statement that "the Corean language is a distinct idiom in itself, totally different from the idioms of the Chinese and Japanese," is disproved by the comparative studies of Mr. Aston, who shows that the languages of Corea and Japan are two brothers of one family. Even in the sub-title given to his book Mr. Oppert imports a Gallicism into English, and has as much grammatical right to write "the Corea" as to speak of "the England," "the Germany," etc.

Although Corea, or Chō-sen, as the natives call it, still awaits a competent chronicler, it must not be supposed that 'A Forbidden Land' has no merits. It is well bound and beautifully printed, and the illustrations are excellent. Mr. Oppert clearly establishes some facts which, to the outside world, are as yet rather shadowy. He proves that the supposed protectorate or suzerainty of China over Corea is a delusion. China has no right to meddle in the affairs of the peninsula, and she holds the same relation to Corea as to Burmah, Siam, and Cochin China. Corea is a free and independent state, and as such has entered into treaty relations with Japan. The lumbering embassies which annually set out from Seoul, the capital, to visit Peking, still keep up the farce of paying homage to the Chinese emperor, receiving the Chinese calendar as token of inferiority and loyalty; but they expect and get in return presents far more valuable than the paper and furs they give. In reality, the huge embassy is only a trading expedition, of which the Peking Government would gladly be rid. All who are interested in "the forbidden land" from a missionary point of view will be encouraged by Mr. Oppert's opinion that no country in Asia offers a more promising field for the teachers of the Protestant, as well as the Romanist, form of Christianity. His descriptions of the Corean physique, manners, customs, and religion are fresh and well worth reading, though set forth in the colloquial English of the tiffin-table. His theory of the "Caucasian" and the "Mongolian" origin of the Coreans is not fairly dealt with if dismissed with a smile, though it ought to rest upon something more than an observation of Corean infants. Mr. Oppert states that many of the children seen by him had "regular features, rosy skin, blue eyes, and auburn hair," and were so much like European children as to excite his wonder. These phenomena, however, one may see in Japan, where many a traveller has remarked the European cast of the infantile features. A thorough study of the physical traits of Japanese and Coreans, especially their affluence of beard, and their dark brown (not black) hair, as distinguished from the Chinese scantiness of beard and blackness of hair, corroborates the argument from language that the peninsulars and the islanders are of one stock. We are also inclined to accept Mr. Oppert's judgment that Corea is rich in mineral deposits, including gold, silver, and coal. Indeed, from a study of the geology of China and Japan, from the researches of Richthofen in the former country and of our American Professor Lyman in the latter, this is a natural conclusion. The agricultural as well as the other material resources of the peninsula sadly need development, and an abominably oppressive government is responsible for the present utter but unnecessary poverty of the country.

Our general impression of Mr. Oppert's book is that he has added something, but not a great deal, to our stock of knowledge of Corea as derived from Klaproth, Siebold, Hamel, Basil Hall, McLeod, Gutzlaff, Dallet, and our own diplomatic and naval reports from China.

William Ellery Channing. A Centennial Memory. By Charles T. Brooks. With illustrations. (Boston: Roberts Bros. 1880.)—The title of this little work suggests its slight structure. It gives a brief narrative of the leading incidents in Channing's life, and with a somewhat nearer approach to fulness essays an estimate of his character; but it signally fails to convey a distinct impression of Dr. Channing's work, that is, to show what he did—even precisely what he believed—that entitles him to posthumous fame and gratitude. This surely is a serious defect in a book designed partly for the young. Dr. Channing's relations to the anti-slavery movement are stated perhaps with candor, but without taking account of all the facts; and nothing could better reveal the want of robustness which kept Dr. Channing from hearty co-operation with the Abolitionists than the following sentence of his biographer's (p. 145):

"And what a dulness or wilfulness it implies, not to recognize the rare *greatness* of the man, who, with such a native craving for the calm atmosphere of meditation, deliberately at the command of conviction sacrificed his ease and comfort to the turmoil of social and political conflict—the greatness of a man who, with all his deep and long and patient thought, suffered himself to learn and to be led along, with the meekness of a little child, by Divine Providence, even though its instruments were men whose ways and manners often shocked his taste and his sense of Christian justice."

This apology for a Christian minister, who had seen slavery in his youth in Richmond, who, having preached for more than thirty years (1803–35) in one pulpit, on the publication of his first work on slavery in the latter year was disowned by his society, so little had he done to prepare them for even the moderate views he expressed, and who took this step only after the most impassioned appeals on the part of the Abolition leaders—this apology is nothing less than grotesque. Mr. Brooks is here rebutting Mrs. M. W. Chapman's depreciatory remarks on Channing in her 'Memorials' of Miss Martineau. He does not conceal, he admits the justice of the rebuke administered to Channing by his co-sectary and spiritual peer, the Rev. Samuel J. May, in 1834, a whole year before the appearance of the work just referred to, and which elicited the confession: "I have been silent too long." Mr. May reports that the Doctor's objections, "if they were as well founded as he assumed them to be, lay against what was only incidental, and not an essential part of our movement. He dwelt upon them till I became impatient." This accords with Mrs. Chapman's general statement, in a foot-note having reference to a religious topic, and so not quoted by Mr. Brooks: "He [Channing] constantly needed the admonition of the French statesman conveyed in his definition of a *bêtise:* 'C'est oublier la chose essentielle.'"

We must add that the pictorial adornments of the volume before us—portraits and views of buildings and scenes associated with its subject—give it a peculiar value.

Memoir and Letters of Captain W. Glanville Evelyn, of the Fourth Regiment ("King's Own"), from North America, 1774–1776. Edited and annotated by G. D. Scull. (Printed for private circulation by James Parker & Co., Oxford. 8vo, pp. 140. 1879.)—Mr. Scull is a Philadelphian and of a family long settled there and well known for its good works in times past and present; Nicholas Scull's Map of Philadelphia, prepared by him as Penn's Surveyor-General, is still of more than local value and interest. While visiting at Wotton House, Surrey, England, once the residence of John ('Sylva') Evelyn, now the home of his kinsman, Wm. John Evelyn, Mr. Scull found some sixteen letters written by the grand-uncle of his host, a captain serving with his regiment, the Fourth Foot, or "King's Own," in the early days of the Revolutionary War, to his relatives in Ireland and Great Britain. These letters he has printed in a very attractive volume, with full annotations, and with portraits of two of the Evelyns, the writer of these letters and his father, of his correspondent and kinswoman, the Hon. Mrs. Boscawen, and of Colonel Harcourt, General Charles Lee, Lord Harcourt, and Earl Percy, all mentioned by young Evelyn in the course of his letters. It is a fact worth noting that as early as 1609 a Robert Evelyn, the great-great-grand-uncle of Captain Evelyn, came to Virginia on a voyage of adventure, and he was followed by his youngest son, Robert, who, on his return home in 1637, published a 'Description of the Province of New Albion,' which is one of the rarest of the works on the early settlements of America; and George, supposed to be an elder brother of this Robert, was, in 1637, appointed to an office of importance in the Province of Maryland.

Young Evelyn served in the English contingent during the Seven Years' War in Germany, and a letter written by him from Hanover in 1761 shows that he had learned something of war while in his teens. His first letter of the series, specially interesting on account of his share in the operations in the Province of Massachusetts, was written from Boston, July 6, 1774; he naturally accepted the description in vogue on his side, of the character and conduct of those whom he considered "a most execrable set of villains," although he had some apprehension of the result of the contest "from the unsteadiness of the English Government, the intrigues of a disaffected faction at home, and the stubbornness and perseverance of the enemies to all government here." His successive letters show his increased respect for the strength of the rebellion and his diminishing hope of an early extinction of the treason that was so rapidly spreading. His letter of April 23, 1775, gives an account of Lexington and Concord, in which he took no important share, as his brigade only went out in the evening to meet the returning column, although "for fourteen miles we were attacking fresh posts and under one incessant fire," and one of his

comrades was killed and another captured, out of a total loss of 70 killed and 150 wounded. On the 18th of October, 1776, he was wounded at the skirmish at Throgg's Neck, and died in New York on the 6th of November, nursed by his "friend," Peggie Wright, to whom he left all his little effects, with a half apology to his family for preferring her claim to theirs. His will was carefully probated by Joseph Galloway, Superintendent-General of the city of Philadelphia, on the 8th of March, 1778, for the Evelyn family, but it never reached their hands, and its existence was unknown to them until it was found in the possession of a collector in New York, who lent a copy of it to complete the story of the testator's early death. Mr. Scull has added very full notes from contemporary letters and publications, throwing light on the topics mentioned in the letters, but, after all, these owe their greatest interest to the fact that they give just the sort of ingenuous description of men and events that might fairly be expected from a young officer on the British side.

The Origin of the Homeric Poems. A Lecture by Dr. Hermann Bonitz. Translated from the fourth German edition by Lewis R. Packard. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1880.)—Among American Hellenists Professor Packard has probably paid most attention to the Homeric question, which will always be a problem of deep interest to all students of literature, whether Hellenists or not; and he has published more than one paper on the subject in the Transactions of the American Philological Association, and in the recently-established *American Journal of Philology*. The mere fact, then, that Professor Packard has selected Bonitz's lecture as a familiar introduction to the subject is a new testimony on the part of an expert to the merits of a treatise which, indeed, has met with a success seldom accorded to an occasional paper. Professor Packard says in his preface: "I have been led to translate it mainly by the fact, as I suppose it to be, that there is no work in English which gives any idea of the difficulties of accepting the Homeric poems as the production of one poet, unless it be the large and expensive work of Mure, which defends the unity of authorship." He might have added that there is scarcely one so compact in any language, and the writer of this notice, who had been cut off for several years from the current of Homeric study, remembers with lively gratitude his first reading, in 1865, of this clear, succinct, and forcible presentation of the whole discussion. To be sure, certain German critics, who considered Homer their exclusive province, seemed to resent the intrusion of Professor Bonitz, whose distinction had been gained in other lines of research, upon their special domain, but all debatable subjects gain very much by the fresh vision of those whose eyes have not been wearied by gazing at minute points. At all events, there is no treatise of the same compass which presents the elements of the controversy so well as Bonitz's lecture. In this translation, which is made from the fourth German edition, the literature is brought down to a late date, and every scholar, whether acquainted with the German original or not, will be glad to have the work in its present attractive form. Professor Bonitz has been fortunate in finding so accomplished an editor and translator as Professor Packard, who has made the book still more acceptable to the general reader by condensation of the notes, an undertaking which could not have been safely entrusted to the hands of the ordinary translator.

The Logic of the Christian Evidences. By G. Frederick Wright. (Andover: Warren F. Draper. Pp. 320 16mo. 1880.)—It has been said that "there is no more call for discussion of the evidences of Christianity, since believers are already satisfied with the grounds of their faith and unbelievers will not give attention to anything which may be written on the subject." If this sententious statement means that the subject has no popular interest, or has ceased to have any in our day, it certainly is not true. There were few more popular writers than Bishop Butler and Archdeacon Paley, and if they are less thought of and seldom read now, except by those who are writing other books to take their place, this is because the discussion has moved on to other grounds, where the opposing parties are more evenly matched, and where less depends upon the individual prowess of redoubtable leaders. No doubt modern imitators of the old champions tilting with antiquated weapons, now against windmills and now against solid walls, are as much out of time as Don Quixote was out of the age of chivalry, and so are not much attended to; but the interest in attack and defence is none the less because both have become more scientific and strategic; and perhaps at no time has there been more critical discussion of this class of topics than just now.

What is wanted on the theistic and Christian side, and what the Rev. Mr. Wright has endeavored to supply, is a convenient text-book or manual adapted to the thought of our own day, marking out the line of the Christian defences which his party are now holding and mean to stand by. Moreover, what is wanted, and, indeed, is necessary to secure attention, over and above ability and learning—of which our author seems to have a fair share—is candor and a disposition to rest within the lines of greatest strength; and in these respects our author appears to advantage. His book is throughout sensible and considerate, therefore inviting and with promise of usefulness. It is not often that a parish clergyman is found so well fitted as he shows himself to be—by a knowledge of what natural science is, and what its methods and rightful claims are—for dealing on the one hand with the "oppositions of science" to religion, and on the other with the objections of theologians to the tendencies or recent achievements of science. This we judge from a perusal of the first part of the volume, which discusses the principles of induction, the value and right use of scientific hypotheses, and from the pertinent illustrations drawn from physics, astronomy, geology, and natural history. The vantage ground which he thus possesses, we incidentally learn, has been gained by solid study and investigation in one field of investigation, namely, that of surface geology. A real acquaintance with any one branch of science gives the means and the right to judge scientific methods.

The second part of the book treats in general of Theism and Christianity, under the heads of personality; wisdom and benevolence of the Deity; the congruity of miracles in the Christian system; the character and power of Christianity; and the character of the evidence for theism. The third part deals with specific evidences, such as the early general reception of the New Testament, the character of the gospels, heathen and Christian testimony of the first and second centuries, the claims of Christianity by its founder, the value of the evidence in support of them as compared with that which serves in astronomy, geology, and natural history generally, and as being as satisfactory as the nature of the case will allow. The conclusion is stated in the words of an accomplished writer and scholar, that "Christianity, if not true, is the most extraordinary thing in the world—really much more extraordinary than if it is true"; that "this world of our experience is ten times more strange and puzzling than it is now if Christianity is not true."

The author is naturally thinking of "young men whose opinions have not yet become fixed, and whose minds are destined to come more and more under the subtile and powerful influence of the prevailing habits of scientific thought"; for whose sake "it is important to throw upon the foundations of our religious hope just the light which the present day affords." And it is a crowning merit of this little volume that the subject is so treated "as not to exaggerate the antagonism between modern science and Christianity." There is a copious analytical table of contents and a full index. We are not sure whether this use was specially in view, but the author has produced an acceptable elementary text-book, as well as an interesting volume for the general reader.

Short Studies of American Authors. By Thomas Wentworth Higginson. (Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1880.)—Mr. Higginson has secured such an established position for himself in the field of American authorship that he enters that of criticism with a more than ordinary claim upon our attention. In reading these little studies our only regret has been that they were not planned on a more extended scale. They discuss the writings of Hawthorne, Poe, Thoreau, Howells, Helen Jackson, and Henry James, jr., and are all marked by that delicate literary sense and finish of style which characterize whatever Mr. Higginson does. There is nothing in them that is very new, and here and there we feel doubtful of the soundness of the criticism, as, for instance, in the paper on Thoreau, in which he takes Lowell to task for what he says seems to him "almost wanton misrepresentation" of the Walden poet. Mr. Higginson is essentially modern in the tone of his criticism. The chief distinction and boast of the literary criticism of our day is that it is unsystematic and impressional. It professes to have no fixed rules or canons. The critic performs his office not by comparing the subject he discusses with a standard supposed to be imposed by the laws of taste, but by "seeing the thing as it is." Of course the value of the impressional critic's report of what he has seen will depend upon his capacity for observation, comparison, and reproduction of impressions. Mr. Higginson's capacity in these directions is not small, as witness some very delicate discrimination between the novel-writing of James and Hawthorne. He has, moreover, a singularly pure English style and a remarkable ease of expression. We cannot help fancying that he would

occasionally write with greater force if he were less impressional and more hostile. It may be malicious to say of James: "Mr. James's cosmopolitanism is, after all, limited: to be really cosmopolitan, a man must be at home even in his own country"; but it is very clever, and much the best thing ever said in a hostile spirit about Mr. James's internationalism. Mr. Higginson would probably deny the hostility, and we only use the word in distinction from that tone of neutrality which he evidently considers most becoming the true critic.

Insects Abroad. A Companion Volume to Insects at Home. Being a Popular Account of Foreign Insects, their Structure, Habits, and Transformations. By the Rev. J. G. Wood. (New York: George Routledge & Sons. 1880. Illustrated. 8vo, pp. xii.-780.)—The readers to whom this book will be most unsatisfactory are those who know something of entomology and those who are most anxious to learn. It may be classed with the light literature of natural history. It was written for such as interest themselves in the habits and peculiarities of animals without making special studies, rather than for students. Persons who enjoy looking at pictures of strange creatures and reading stories about them will find it well suited to their tastes. The author has drawn much from Westwood, Wallace, Bates, and others whose names are sufficient guarantees for the accuracy of their statements. In consequence of the care with which he has selected his authorities the quotations which occupy so great a portion of the work are generally reliable. Accounts which had their origin in hearsay are cautiously given as doubtful or not proved. Illustrations of certain genera of each family of the various orders of insects are accompanied by more or less incomplete descriptions of forms and habits. Those figured were brought together from all parts of the world outside Great Britain. Some are known only to the few who have access to the collections of the British Museum. Eight or nine are brought into notice here for the first time, and it is to be regretted that these were not described more in detail. For a popular work many of the illustrations are very good; others do not bear a critical examination and will not be considered recognizable by specialists. Probably there is none more faulty than the figure named *Ascalaphus imperatrix*, in which the venation could hardly be worse, and both of the posterior wings are drawn for the same side of the body. It would be interesting to know how the author justifies himself in placing such a characteristic species of *Nemoptera* in a genus so different as *Ascalaphus*. Apparently the classification followed is that of the leading English authorities.

The Succession to the English Crown: A historical sketch. By Alfred Bailey, of Lincoln's Inn, Esq., Barrister-at-law, M.A., etc. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 8vo, pp. 299. 1879.)—Mr. Bailey's book is a good deal more than a historical sketch, although even as a historical sketch it is crowded with clear and interesting accounts of some of the most romantic events of English history; we need only mention the Wars of the Roses, the executions for treason in the reign of Henry VIII., the names of Lady Jane Grey, Arabella Stuart, and the Young Pretender. All these are described with as much fulness and animation as is compatible with an elaborate discussion of the law in every case. The treatise thus serves as an illustrative law-book on the succession to the English crown, probably not complete enough for the lawyer by profession; but affording to the historical student an adequate solution of many of the most difficult problems of English history. There are few historical students, we imagine, who will not find much that is entirely new to them in regard to these problems.

One of the most interesting passages is in treating of the reign of Henry VIII., especially the execution of the Duke of Buckingham and the Earl of Surrey. Without undertaking, like Mr. Froude, to make out Henry to have been an amiable and just monarch, our author thinks nevertheless that both these executions were justified by real perils which menaced the state, and real schemes which were conceived by these noblemen. He supports entirely Mr. Froude's view of the nervous anxiety as to the succession felt by the king as well as by the people, in view of the long civil wars of the previous century. This occasioned, on the one hand, the successive marriages and divorces of the king; on the other, the removal of all possible pretenders to the crown as soon as they manifested the smallest disposition to make their claims prominent. The Earl of Surrey, to be sure, was no claimant of the throne; his attainder, however, on the charge of aiming at the protectorate after the king's death, is related at length; "partly because all that relates to this 'young, gallant Howard,' the gifted, wayward Surrey, is of interest; and partly that 'bright names will hallow' prose as well as 'song,' and, lastly, because the circumstances in which the Duke's [of Norfolk] supposed attainder was in Mary's reign declared null have an important bearing on the validity of Henry VIII.'s testamentary limitation of the crown" (p. 137). This case, occupying twelve pages, depends almost entirely upon the law of heraldry, as Surrey's overt act consisted in quartering the arms of Edward the Confessor upon his shield.

The student of Shakspere's historical plays will be grateful for the assistance here given him in unravelling the complicated questions which beset him on every hand. An interesting point is found on page 41, where it is shown why young Richard Plantagenet was able to succeed to the title and estates of his grandfather, the Duke of York, in spite of the attainder of his father, the Earl of Cambridge. His father's sentence had been approved by Parliament "*so far as his attainder would warrant it at common law only*"; that is—as we understand it, for Mr. Bailey neglects to explain it fully—so far as to work forfeiture, but not corruption of blood. His father's title and estates were lost to him, but when his uncle, Edward, Duke of York (Shakspere's *Aumerle*), died a few weeks later, the boy succeeded to the entailed dukedom. Another interesting point is raised by the succession of Henry VII., who was not a mere usurper or adventurer, but put forth a claim as legal heir, on the ground of the legitimation of the House of Beaufort (the descendants of John of Gaunt's third wife, Catharine Swinford); this has been commonly assumed to have excluded the royal dignity, but Mr. Bailey is clearly of the opinion that it did not; hence the dangerous claim of the Duke of Buckingham, a descendant of that house.

We have only spoken of points in mediæval history; the modern questions are treated with equal fulness and accuracy, but the Anglo-Saxon and Norman times are dismissed with a cursory sketch of ten pages. Surely, the claims of William the Conqueror and the controversy between Stephen and the Empress Matilda deserved more attention. There are some very useful genealogical tables; we would especially notice Table xvii., which gives the descendants of Henry VII. living at the death of Edward VI. Table xxi. we cannot understand. There is also an elaborate Table of Contents, but no Index. We will quote the passage (p. 111) which gives the author's views upon the execution of the Duke of Buckingham:

"Modern sentimentality, engendered by the security which the vigorous action of our forefathers, of the kings, lords, and commons of England has given to us their descendants, loves to indulge itself by investing every self-seeking traitor who, in Henry VIII.'s days, was ready to plunge England into civil war for his selfish aims on the crown, with the respect due to such 'traitors' as More and Fisher. I avow my own conviction that, in Henry VIII.'s reign, the doubts as to the rights of succession to the throne which had prevailed since the deposition of Richard II. had produced in the minds of almost every great peer who shared the royal blood the notion that the crown was a thing to be dashed at on any favorable occasion by any eminent member of the royal family. Such pretenders, however, reckoned without the English nation, which in Henry VIII.'s reign had no notion of permitting their splendid imperial crown to be the price of ambition, and was bent on upholding, if possible, the happy union of the houses of York and Lancaster."

Elementary Lessons on Sound. By Dr. W. H. Stone. (New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.)—The author has endeavored to combine researches on the sensations of tone with the purely physical side of acoustics. The book, as the author states in his preface, contains information "intermediate between acoustics and music proper." In the main this plan has been successfully carried out. In so small a treatise it is strange that so much space has been given to large illustrations. In some cases the men who listen to vibrations are portrayed on a scale better suited for a pictorial paper than for even a popular scientific treatise. An American is naturally surprised to find the telephone dismissed with five lines, which convey only the intimation that it is an instrument for transmitting musical tones. Perhaps an American would have given too much space to very modern ideas. Edison's phonograph, the author says, "traces the impression on a sheet of tinfoil, as will be more fully described in a later chapter." This promise is not fulfilled; we have looked in vain for the later chapter. The author falls into a common error when he speaks of the microphone as an instrument for magnifying sound, and calls it essentially a relay. The microphone does not magnify sounds, but merely permits one practically to place the tympanum of the ear nearer the source of sound. The book is essentially English in the characteristic of being thorough and trustworthy in old facts and sluggish toward new developments. It is, nevertheless, a valuable treatise.

Fine Arts.

THE METROPOLITAN MUSEUM.

SAVE the loan collection of modern paintings, most of the objects at the Metropolitan Museum of Art are familiar to New York amateurs, but they have never before been seen to any one's satisfaction, and have, of course, never been seen at all by the mass of the general public. Whatever benefit is to be obtained from an acquaintance with them the public has now, however, every opportunity to secure. The building, though only one-twelfth, we believe, of the structure designed to be hereafter completed, is amply commodious for its present contents, both permanent and lent; and its conveniences have apparently been appreciated so far by many persons who never entered the old galleries in Fourteenth Street, and to whom art itself is a novelty. At present the museum is a kind of sensation; whether, when it ceases to be this, popular interest in it will continue must depend, certainly, upon the continuous effort of the managers to make it attractive as well as instructive. Its permanent possessions, except the Avery and Di Cesnola collections, are not yet of large importance. The show of sculpture has still a hap-hazard appearance, and its prominent objects remain Mr. Story's rather commonplace conceptions, with their evident effort after repose and their obvious struggle for severity. The array of old masters is large, but much of it quite apocryphal enough to prevent it from being imposing, and altogether inferior to the Bryan collection at the Historical Society, which by the way nobody visits, though it has been virtually open to the public for years. The collection here is, nevertheless, interesting, and to students who never have been abroad should be valuable; the difference between old masters and modern being after all more in mental attitude than in technique, and a reasonably faithful copy of the Mona Lisa, for example, such as there is here, much better than nothing, and quite as instructive as the scores of contemporary works to be seen in the other rooms. The old canvases are now, moreover, enforced by several temporary accessions, and, indeed, we are not sure that, everything considered, the galleries given over to them are not a good deal more satisfactory than those at the west end of the museum, which are devoted to contemporaries. Such an impression, at all events, is deepened by a small canvas by Leonardo, of the daughter of Herodias with the head of St. John the Baptist, to instance the most noteworthy painting, perhaps, that the museum now contains. It has been long in this country, but has not hitherto, we believe, been exhibited by its owner, perhaps out of timorousness at the scepticism customarily manifested in the teeth of never so overwhelming documentary evidence. The presumption against the genuineness of so important a work, owned at such a distance from where it would naturally be most prized, is not slight, of course; but intrinsic evidence is more convincing than any other, and, so far as a painting may do so, this seems to carry its authorship on its face. It is certainly not faultless, but its shortcomings are very much those to be found in Da Vinci. In its presence, at any rate, any question of its genuineness will interest professed *virtuosi* more intimately than any one else. There are four figures, or rather four heads. Salome, the centre of the action and interest, has the face and wears the half smile which Leonardo never tired of painting, and which it sometimes seems his chief distinction to have known how to fit to the most widely-sundered moral traits. She is a very lovely object, and at the same time endued with the requisite repulsiveness; the man who extends to her the pallid head, yet dripping blood, has an expression which beside hers is intense horror. In idea, what one remarks most prominently is the subtlety with which so cruel a tragedy is elevated into dignity and beauty without losing anything of its tragic effectiveness. In its other elements it is quite as remarkable perhaps. Both in linear and color design it is extremely decorative; from a distance too great to distinguish details one is charmed by the grace of its composition, and its glow as of stained glass. These qualities more than counterbalance the precision of treatment which operates a little against its force and causes it to fall just short of largeness, it may be; in treatment, it is well enough known, Leonardo was not always what we mean by "large."

The modern paintings in the mass have at first a curious look, which one presently discovers to proceed from the novel notion, conceived in a moment of inspiration by the hanging committee and executed with intrepidity, of hanging foreign and American pictures side by side. It results from this that one's mind is a little confused, and it is difficult to tell whether the collection is upon the whole better or worse than the loan collection at the Academy in 1876; we incline to the latter opinion. There are, however, very many admirable works, and not a few that have never been seen before outside of their owners' galleries. They are numerous enough and admirable enough to create a doubt as to whether the hanging committee is to be credited with courage or reproached with cruelty for the opportunity it has afforded every one of seeing the precise relative position much American painting at present occupies. One may visit an exhibition of exclusively American pictures, and then one exclusively foreign, and still permit his prejudices to preside in his comparative criticism without being keenly aware of it. But it is impossible not to respond to the challenge here proclaimed and reflect that, whereas the majority of the foreign pictures are by picked men, however widely different in point of merit, the home product is accepted in the mass and in virtue of its being American; and even cursory observation justifies the obvious *à priori* induction. However agreeable it may be to those who bring patriotism into the consideration of art to see one of Mr. Sartain's most solidly-painted Eastern market-scenes in juxtaposition with a pale and puerile Hamon, it cannot be disguised that this is an exception, and that such proximities as that of Mr. Nicoll and Daubigny are the rule. They afford an interesting study, nevertheless, and serve to point clearly the essential differences between works done in a society where art is old, and those of which the authors are of necessity still too much concentrated upon methods and materials to play with them in entire freedom. Mr. Eakins's "Chess-Players," for an apt example, is placed between a figure by Meissonier and one by Zamacois. All three are cabinet canvases, and are of much the same relative importance. Mr. Eakins, moreover, no more represents the average American painter than either of the others represents the average of the French school—as it is loosely enough called; on the contrary, in both original force and training he is one of the best painters that we have. His picture is infinitely more elaborate than either of the others; in almost every detail of it there is no definite fault to find; it employs almost every technical resource known to the painter in producing almost every technical excellence that a painting need possess. But compared with its neighbors it has the look, equally unmistakable and indescribable, that mental crudity always has; the figures are so real as to seem a little too much like portraits of three Philadelphia merchants; the air of distinction which comes from an artist's unconscious generalization from a painter's material the picture is quite without. One only needs to draw a legitimate conclusion from this circumstance to perceive that it is hardly art at all.

There are, however, several American paintings which no juxtaposition is likely to hurt: Mr. La Farge's "St. Paul on Mars Hill," Mr. Sargeant's "Oyster-Gatherers," and Mr. Thayer's cattle-piece, to take three very diverse examples; but these are already very well known to people who go to see pictures. Among the foreign works those of the Fontainebleau men and the Fortunists make the best showing. Diaz is particularly well, or at least abundantly, represented; the two large landscapes are too strictly after his favorite scheme to be more than ordinarily interesting, but there are a half-dozen small figure-pieces by him of which one or two are loose and slovenly in drawing, another singularly pale, and the rest conceived with the poetry and endowed with the gem-like color which characterize his better work; the most charming is that of a nude nymph surrounded with deep-green leafage, which comes near illustration of the paradox, a modern old master. There is no Millet of any importance, but the collection is fortunate in its Corots and Duprés, and there is a characteristic and russet Rousseau to balance another that is rather insignificant, and a Troyon in which the landscape plays quite as important a part as the cattle, an always grateful circumstance in Troyon's pictures. In the way of beasts, pure and simple, there is a sufficient abundance to please admirers of Rosa Bonheur, Schreyer, Sidney Cooper, and, let us add, Jacque. A Spanish interior court by Rico, who saves himself from being an echo of Fortuny by an almost feminine delicacy, is so sunny as to give one the sensation of noonday heat in midsummer. The large canvas by Alvarez is as interesting as an historic fashion-plate could be made, doubtless. Of the clever work of Villegas, and the still cleverer work of Madrazo, there are various examples; one never ceases to wonder at the ease with which the art of their school sustains their cleverness, and to ask why it is that this blinding light to the key of which every element in the picture is kept up, this infinitude of detail, this patchwork of brilliant hues, this kind of æsthetic *insouciance*, seems intellectually serious, and that something whose main characteristic, apparently, is brilliance should undeniably possess the dignity of fine art. There are wide differences between them, however, as one may note by turning from Boldini's unadulterated *chic* to "The

Sultan's Body-Guard," by Pasini, which is a grave and large work of a quiet elegance in color, and touching the imagination with singular strength, seeing that its sentiment gets no assistance from action or incident; simplicity could hardly go further, and its only elements are a troop of horsemen drawn up in line before a Byzantine façade which comprises the entire background. Of an equally large suggestiveness, though of an interest more palpable and human, is "The Brigands," by Antoine Hébert, whose dramatic intensity and contained power seem to have escaped the committee, who have skied it, possibly to make room on the line for Mr. J. G. Brown's aged fiddler; it is a great pity, both because so few of Hébert's things come to America and because it is, in a dozen ways, one of the finest pictures in the collection.

The whole of one wall is devoted to paintings by the late W. M. Hunt. They are but a small portion of the number exhibited during the winter in Boston, but they have evidently been selected with enough care to make the showing representative, if not complete. They include his latest work and his earliest in figure-painting, portraiture, and landscape, from the "Prodigal Son," which was the first-fruits, we believe, of his study with Couture, to an unfinished color sketch of one of the Albany cartoons; among them also is some of his best work, such as the portrait of "Tom in a Felt Hat," which to his admirers marks the limit that painting in America has thus far attained. It is in truth finely painted, and much that surrounds it testifies to the striking range and ability of the painter. Taken together they leave a strong and distinct impression of the mind that produced them—so definite, indeed, that one needs only to know any one well to be able to tell whether Hunt would please him beyond measure or prove a little unsatisfying. He was a superb draughtsman, and he delighted in color, though it may be that his sense for it was more barbaric than delicate. There is something so masculine as to be almost savage in some of these things—in the "Flight of Night," for example, and in the large "Niagara." What is vaguely described as subtlety seems quite lacking in him, and it is probable that he esteemed it lightly. Technically his subtlety is marked; the variety in manner to be noticed in the different canvases is remarkable; Couture, Millet, even Diaz, is traceable in one and another of them, which are withal clearly enough Hunt. His aggressiveness was so great that experimentation in styles, so to speak, of which apparently he never tired, had less peril for him than for another. This indicates his extreme impressionability—a vital quality in an artist of course, but quite different from imaginativeness. Imaginative, certainly, we should not think of calling him. Poetry of a high order, at all events, got no foothold in his mind, and though he was thus saved from sentimentality of any kind, doubtless, it is the one thing lacking to give his work permanent charm. What we like best is his portraits of women, whose grave sweetness shows how sympathetic his temperament was. To be a genius of great virility, of quick impressionableness, and of keen sympathy, and to add to this natural equipment a thorough knowledge of the art of painting and extreme skill in the practice of it, is not, however, the same thing as to possess a creative imagination and a poetic instinct. Comparisons are misleading often as well as odious, and it is only to illustrate this point that we advise the visitor to the museum after he has studied the Hunt collection to go into the other room, and take another look at Mr. La Farge's "St. Paul."

Democracy.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 15, 1880.

The Week.

TWO subjects have engrossed the attention of Congress to the exclusion of almost everything else. The bill to carry out the agreement of the Interior Department with the Utes was passed in the Senate on Monday by 37 to 16. This measure was most vehemently resisted by Western Senators who desire to open all available Indian reservations to white industry or cupidity, though singularly enough the two Colorado Senators were found on opposite sides. It was also opposed on the final vote by Mr. Edmunds, and perhaps others, on the ground of its unconstitutionality as infringing on the treaty-making power of the executive (though in this respect it sins in accordance with the Act of 1871 forbidding the making of any more "treaties" with the Indians); and we think he made it clear that those who supported the bill in the hope of averting a war at this time are likely to be disappointed. The "agreement" requires the assent of three-fourths of the Utes, and one of the difficulties pointed out by Mr. Edmunds is that they are divided into three separate communities, compelling any one of which to budge by force because outvoted by the remainder would seem a great hardship and indeed cruelty. Incidentally, also, he showed how doubtful is the power to exempt from *State* taxation the lands to be granted to the Indians in severalty. With no prejudice against the experiment, and apparently unable to suggest a better way out from the old to the new system, he could not overcome his scruples as to the legality of the bill.

The debate in Committee of the Whole on the Army Bill went along smoothly in the House until Wednesday week, when Mr. Sparks, of Illinois, from the Military Committee, introduced last year's rider forbidding the use of any of the money appropriated to subsist, equip, transport, or compensate any portion of the Army in the capacity of a police for keeping the peace at the polls "at any election held within any State." The debate here suddenly stopped, for the good reason that the Democrats had resolved to say nothing on their part, and were further warned by Mr. Sparks that any one of them who violated the agreement ought to be "shot on the spot." This left the field, such as it was, to the Republicans, who did what they could to put their opponents "on record"; and on the whole it is not doubtful that the Democratic policy was short-sighted. No Republican orator, however, had the candor to admit that the rider had a real justification in the party tendency to nominate Grant at Chicago. He was the last President to use the Army at the polls and in custom-houses and state-houses, and if the Stalwart talk of the need which the country has of him is to be construed literally, the precaution which the Democrats are taking is we will not only say natural but commendable. The Democrats allowed Mr. Ewing to sum up in reply, and he made himself somewhat unpleasant by showing that in 1868 the Republicans put a rider on the Army Appropriation Bill which deprived the President of the command of the Army; that in twelve years they tacked 387 political riders to appropriation bills; and that in the Forty-fourth Congress alone they tacked 44 political riders to such bills. In fact, it must be admitted that in raising this point on the present occasion, and especially in defence of the use of partisan deputy-marshals to supervise elections, the Republicans do not cut a very creditable figure. The bill was passed on Tuesday.

Local elections held during the week in various Northern States have been generally favorable to the Republicans. In Indiana and Ohio the Republican success was especially decisive and important; Cincinnati, for example, giving a Republican majority of 4,500, and Fort Wayne reversing the usual Democratic majority, with some 1,000 votes to spare. The Indiana constitutional amendments, providing for a single fall election and looking, among other things, to ballot-box reform, were carried in spite of vigorous Democratic opposition. Milwaukee has a Republican government for the first time since its incorporation, and Springfield, Ill., for the first time since 1860. In Rhode Island there was a general State election, which resulted in no choice by the people; explicit charges that the Republican candidate had bought his nomination having enlivened the campaign sufficiently to bring out a large prohibition vote. There has been in consequence a good deal of talk about the lesson given the Machine, but as the Legislature can be relied on it seems to make little difference whether the Machine gets a majority or a plurality at the polls.

The Connecticut Convention at New Haven last week was pretty decidedly anti-third term, and chose an uninstructed delegation to the National Convention that is divided between Edmunds, Washburne, and Blaine—exactly how, authorities are not agreed. The news from various other States in which only county conventions have been held as yet is not altogether trustworthy, being evidently colored by partisan optimism in many cases; but in the main it indicates that Missouri and Kentucky will instruct for Grant and Iowa for Blaine, and that the former will get a large majority of the Virginia and South Carolina delegations. The Blaine movement seems to threaten the Sherman boom in Ohio with partial eclipse, and there begins to be more talk of the Senator than of the Secretary in the Sherman papers there. In Illinois the Grant-Logan men are reported, on anti-Grant and Blaine authority, to have become suddenly stricken with alarm, the source of which is somewhat obscurely stated, but probably consists in sundry unexpected obstructions to the working of the different local machines. On the Democratic side Oregon and Iowa have chosen Tilden delegates to Cincinnati. Louisiana has virtually instructed for Hancock. Wallace is expected to have forty majority over the Tilden-Randall men in the Pennsylvania Convention, and in New York every effort for "harmony" has hitherto failed. Meantime the rumors of Mr. Tilden's utter physical incapacity appear to have broken out simultaneously in different parts of the country with renewed vigor. One paper, we notice, is anxious to bet five thousand dollars that he is hopelessly paralyzed, but this way of settling the question is generally regarded as impracticable.

The office of Commissioner of Patents is about to be vacated by Gen. Paine, and it is rumored that his designated successor is, though a lawyer, "without any considerable special training and experience in patent matters." We believe that we may add that his decisions on appealed cases, in the capacity of legal adviser to the Department of the Interior, have been far from giving satisfaction. Gen. Paine's administration has, in all respects except personal integrity, borne out the fears we expressed at the time of his appointment, and strengthens the argument of those who contended then, as they contend now, that the appointment should be in the line of promotion from within the Office, not only on the theory of a sound civil service, but because the requisite experience and trained judicial faculty can only be found there. Any difficulty which may arise from rivalry and "pressure" on the part of the body of examiners can surely be overcome, and at least should be disregarded in face of the importance of establishing the principle and of the immense interests at stake. There is even, as in Gen. Paine's case, a physical limit to the tenure of office on the part of an untried man. We are glad to see that a friendly remonstrance has been addressed to Secretary Schurz by so respectable an authority as Mr. Marcus S. Hopkins, and we hope it will be heeded.

It has been an exciting week in Wall Street, owing to a decline in the prices of the prominent speculative stocks of 1 to 8 per cent.

The money market was highly "manipulated," so as to induce the holders of stocks to sell them. Several millions of currency are said to have been withdrawn from the New York banks through the instrumentality of their country correspondents, and been held subject to the orders of the Wall Street stock speculators who are "bearing" stocks. Notwithstanding these withdrawals, which were intended to force the reserve of the banks down to figures which would compel a sharp contraction of loans, the weekly bank statement showed that the return of currency had been sufficient to prevent the expected reduction in reserve. The famous New York Central Syndicate closed its accounts during the week by selling the remnant of stock on hand, which amounted to about 50,000 shares. Among the buyers of this stock was Jay Gould, who threw his stock on the market for the purpose of adding to the general demoralization. The money which Mr. W. H. Vanderbilt received for this stock has all been invested in United States four per cent. bonds, so that he is by many times the largest individual holder of the public debt. From being the dictator of the railroad system of New York he becomes the typical "bloated bondholder," and makes himself a target for the complaining class of the whole country. His friends deny that he intends to relinquish his control of New York railroads, and say that he and his associates still preserve that control even after his enormous investment in the public funds. There has been during the week a fresh break in the price of iron, and the speculation in breadstuffs, provisions, and other staples has shown a downward tendency, even the price of printing-paper having receded a cent a pound. The market for foreign exchange has declined during the week, and the danger of gold exports has been again averted. Silver bullion declined in price during the week; the closing London quotation was 51⅞*d.* per oz.; the closing bullion value of the "buzzard dollar" here was $0.8797.

A West Point colored cadet was found on Tuesday morning, the 6th inst., in his bed, with his hands and feet tied, the latter fastened to the bed-posts, his ears cut severely enough to bleed freely, a good deal of his hair clipped, but with no other bruise or abrasion on his person. There was blood on the floor, on the wall, and on an Indian club that stood in the room, and there was a good deal of water on the floor and on the bed-clothes. He appeared to be unconscious when discovered, but the reality was doubted by the doctor, who found his pulse good. He got up when released, recovered rapidly, and in a day seemed quite fit for duty. His story is that he was the victim of an outrage by three masked men, one of whom said, "Let us slit his ears like we do the hogs down South," but whose voices he did not recognize. Cadets slept in rooms on each side of him and across the hall, but heard nothing and he was not gagged. The theory of the officers of the Academy clearly is that he committed the outrage on himself, alone or with the help of a confederate, and the enquiry which has been set on foot is being most injudiciously, if not unfairly, conducted on this theory. The theory of his friends, on the other hand, is, that the affair is a piece of atrocious hazing perpetrated by whites on a colored boy whom they disliked, and whom from the beginning they had sent to Coventry, and that imputing it to himself is an aggravation of his injuries. It has caused more or less excitement in Congress, and curiously enough the two members most roused about it are Mr. Voorhees, of Indiana, and Mr. George Hoar, of Massachusetts. What brings these gentlemen together is Mr. Voorhees's hatred of the regular Army and all its belongings, and Mr. Hoar's interest in the colored race. Both have gone so far as to talk of the abolition of the School, and the Military Committee of the House has sent on a sub-committee to investigate.

It must be said that the case against Whittaker has undoubtedly grown weaker under investigation. It has not been shown that he could have tied himself as he was tied. The frequency of hazing at the School raises a presumption in his favor, and so does the fact that his white companions did not associate with him, and that probably many of them disliked him. On the other hand, the doctor's report of his condition when discovered is against him; so is the trifling nature of his injuries. Nothing could produce more effect and blood for the amount of damage done than a slit in the ear. It is also extraordinary that, though not gagged, he should have raised no alarm loud enough to be heard by the cadets sleeping all around him. As to motive, supposing his injuries to be self-inflicted, the theory that the outrage would have saved him from an examination he could not pass seems to have broken down, as he has nothing, it is said, to fear from the examination. The best support of the imposture theory is the possible influence on a lonely boy, who has been suffering much from isolation and snubs, of the enormous interest which he has seen excited by stories of outrages on colored people.

One of the curious things in the expressions of feeling and opinion the affair has called forth is the indignation excited by the refusal of the cadets to associate with Whittaker. They are evidently expected by some people to display a superiority to prejudice to which their parents and friends outside the School make not the slightest pretence. Throughout the length and breadth of the North no white person makes a companion of a colored man, if he can avoid it. The cases where colored people are even treated as social equals occasionally by invitations and the like may be counted on one's fingers, and have almost always the character of a moral demonstration. In fact, the practice of the School faithfully reflects the practice of American society.

On Wednesday week the Unitarians celebrated at Brooklyn, Newport, and elsewhere with éclat the centenary of the birth of Channing. They did well, and yet it may be doubted whether another such celebration will ever take place—whether, to use Dr. Bellows's phrase at Newport, "his fame is still the morning star and is climbing the sky." Channing's theology, much as he did to liberalize that of New England, is already obsolete in the details of his creed, created no school, and has nothing in it which will guarantee it against the undermining force of the theory of morals involved in the new doctrine of Development. On this side his work was strictly for the time into which he was born, and its most tangible result was in the sudden conversion of Calvinistic into Unitarian meeting-houses in Massachusetts in the memorable year 1820. Among Channing's contemporaries his personal presence and character counted for more than his pulpit utterances; and what secured him the affectionate admiration of foreign philanthropists was his human sympathies, his passionate love of freedom of opinion, and his hatred of war—latterly, also, his opposition to slavery. That his intellectual reputation will hold its own we do not believe. He is not a "quotable" writer, and those who wish to get something of his spirit must drink deeply or not at all.

The National Republican League in Philadelphia has issued a tract on the third term which commends the efforts and the methods employed to secure General Grant's nomination "to the most earnest consideration of every well-wisher of his country"; recalls the various scandals of his Administration, in which Casey, Shepherd, Murphy, Leet, Simmons, Belknap, Robeson, Schenck, and Babcock figured; enforces the expediency and obligation of the two-terms rule; exposes the hollowness of the demonstration in favor of his re-election; explains the "boss" system as it is now showing itself all over the country; and mentions as the chief "bosses" of the United States Shepherd, Tweed, Kelly, McManes, Cameron, Conkling, and Logan; shows how the "boss" system worked in General Grant's second term through "the Senatorial Group," and the manner in which it now controls elections, and how it might be made, if it were allowed to strengthen itself, a means of effecting a real change in the nature of our Government while retaining the constitutional forms; and winds up by urging "patriotic Republicans to declare unequivocally that if driven to the alternative they will even prefer a Third Candidate to a Third Term." The Bosses are evidently growing savage under this relentless pursuit of them. The Phila-

delphia boss, McManes by name, finding a gentleman distributing this tract in the Union Club in Philadelphia, slapped his face and threatened a suit for libel. This is a good sign. Usually they smile at attacks on them, as long as there is no bolt at the polls. In fact, one of the essentials of a Boss is insensibility to public opinion.

The Pennsylvania bribers have all surrendered, but did not do so until after the court had adjourned. As some time must now elapse before they are sentenced, they have a further interval in which to "work" for a pardon. Kemble, the chief, only came in on Monday, having passed the time since his conviction at a New Jersey watering-place. On reaching the jail at Harrisburg and pending the finding of fresh bail, he indulged, the report says, in "boisterous laughter." A Philadelphia correspondent points out to us that we were in error in saying they *all* pleaded guilty. One, Petroff, went to trial, was ably defended, but was convicted with but little delay. It is said that the Council will not pardon, and that nothing but a third term can save them.

The elections in England are not all over, but the Liberals cannot have less than fifty majority over both Conservatives and Home-Rulers. The Tories had only forty after "the clean sweep" in 1874. Lord Beaconsfield is now busy rewarding his followers with titles before he goes out. Lord Salisbury, it is said, is to be consoled with a dukedom, and Lord Lytton, who has already resigned the Governor-Generalship, with an earldom, which will help the sale of his poems and novels. The chief difficulty with the Liberals now seems to be to find a place for Mr. Gladstone, whose greatness has reached almost unmanageable dimensions. It seems as if he must take office, but it will probably have to be an office without work, and which will leave him nothing to do but serve the party in the House. A great reception was prepared for him in London, but he, mindful of the somewhat circus-like procession after Beaconsfield came back from Berlin, has declined it. The discomfiture inflicted on the Court and London society by his victory is so great as to be almost ludicrous. Mr. Parnell's candidates appear to have after all triumphed in Wexford, and he himself has been returned for his former seat in Westmeath and for Mayo. His old recklessness of statement has in no way abated, as he has been telegraphing to the Chicago *Daily News* that the Liberals will depend for their majority on the Home-Rulers, who will, therefore, hold the balance of power, and he boasts much of what they will be able to achieve in this way. All this is, however, impudent fiction.

Prince Bismarck's huff and resignation have ended in the Emperor's refusing to accept the resignation, and in the Bundesrath's rescinding the vote refusing to agree to a stamp-duty on post-office order receipts, the small States having been frightened into surrender, apparently by a threat to change the constitution. Nothing could better illustrate the extraordinary preponderance of the personal element in the German Government than the Chancellor's resigning because the machinery of the constitution did not please him. The small States will probably not offend again in that direction, as they have ever since the war been afraid of their lives. The Pope has sufficiently appeased the ministers by his late Rescript to cause them to make communication to the Nuncio promising to modify the Falk Laws on receiving more formal evidence of His Holiness's pliability.

The unfortunate Chinese Ambassador at St. Petersburg lately negotiated a treaty by which China was to get back the Kuldja district in Turkestan, which formerly belonged to her, on payment of 5,000,000 roubles, whereupon his Government recalled him, and, it was at first reported, cut off his head; but it appears that he is simply under investigation and great displeasure. Reports of a resort to hostilities on the part of the Chinese have been current for some weeks, but do not appear to have any solid foundation. They have a very respectable force in that region, and probably a much larger one than the Russians could bring to bear, though not so well armed or disciplined. The Beaconsfield Tories in England have, however, been undoubtedly in a state of more or less gleeful anticipation about the matter, and think that if China could be got to enter the lists fairly against Russia, with her improved military organization, it might seriously stay the advance in Asia of the great enemy of mankind. But Professor Martens, the well-known publicist, and who is supposed to know the mind of the Russian Government on most foreign questions, writes to the *Golos* denying that this view has received any official British support. He says the feeling against Russia at Pekin is part of a general anti-foreigner feeling from which England would suffer as well as Russia, and he declares that the Russian Ambassador at Pekin is receiving British support in his efforts to avert hostilities. Kuldja is a sort of *enclave* running into the Chinese territory, flanked on the south by Yarkand, which they recently retook from Yakub Beg, and on the north by a region they have long held. It forms a sort of triangle, with a mountain frontier, and the main Chinese objection to the treaty is that it would leave Russia in possession of the passes.

Prince Gortchakoff, for the last twenty years one of the most conspicuous figures in European politics, is dying of old age. His greatest prominence has been in the period since the outbreak of the Crimean war, when he was, on the death of the Emperor Nicholas, charged with the onerous duty of winning back for Russia her lost prestige and influence. This he did not accomplish, for it was not possible. Russia can never again weigh in Europe as she did between 1825 and 1853. But he did wonders. He enabled her to accept the results of the Crimean war with dignity and to get rid of the most disagreeable of them, the restriction on the Russian armament in the Black Sea, with great ease and rapidity, by skilfully availing himself of the confusion among the Western Powers which followed the rise of Prussia. M. Julian Klaczko has traced an entertaining picture of the game of finesse between Gortchakoff and Bismarck which went on without intermission between 1860 and 1870. In this it must be confessed the Russian Chancellor got the worst of it. Bismarck used him remorselessly during the two great wars which built up the German Empire, and made Russia no amends after the Turkish war of 1877. When they met at the Congress of Berlin Bismarck was master of the situation, and Gortchakoff was lagging superfluous on the stage, and since then he may be said practically to have retired from affairs, although holding the Chancellorship. He belonged essentially to the old school of diplomacy, which used deception freely as a favorite weapon, and was therefore for some time at a disadvantage in dealing with Bismarck, whose truthful announcements of his designs were for a good while considered in the diplomatic world illustrations of the clumsiness of his mendacity. Gortchakoff belongs to one of the oldest families in Russia, which in this generation has been especially distinguished, his two brothers having held high military commands—one the defender of Sebastopol.

General Roberts's proposal to the Afghan chiefs that they should agree upon an Amir and elect him, and that on his making a proper treaty the British troops should withdraw, seems likely to meet with acceptance. Some preliminary meetings have been held, at which the chiefs showed a peaceful disposition. What they represent, however, or whether Abderrahman Khan, the most formidable of the pretenders, is a consenting party, does not clearly appear. The Tory plan was to retain possession of Kandahar and a large patch of northeastern Afghanistan. Whether the Liberals will adhere to this programme remains uncertain. If the ground they have taken during the long campaign against the Tories be adhered to (and, to judge from a recent declaration of Lord Hartington's, it will be), no part of Afghanistan will be occupied, because they have maintained resolutely that the more of it they can put between themselves and any possible invader from the northwest the better. The little scheme for putting Persia in possession of Herat, which was Lord Beaconsfield's latest fancy, will, of course, be dropped.

THE STALWART, THE JINGO, AND THE FRIEND OF "MORAL ORDER."

IT is very well known to everybody who has paid much attention to politics during the past year that within that period a division has shown itself in the ranks of that portion of the Republican party known as "Stalwarts." The Stalwart proper—the original Stalwart, that is to say—was a Republican in whose politics distrust of the South occupied a prominent place, and who dreaded the effects on the public credit, on the Federal bond, and on the condition of the negro population at the South of a return to power of the leading Southern politicians, and who, therefore, regretted Mr. Hayes's withdrawal from interference in the affairs of the Southern States, not because he (the Stalwart) was able to suggest any alternative, but because he thought it indicated a false security and over-confidence on the part of the Administration. Since the extra session of Congress, however, there has grown up a division in the Stalwart ranks over the question of remedy. The original Stalwart looked for protection against the dangers he dreaded to the ordinary processes of American government—that is, to victories at the polls, achieved mainly in the Northern and Western States, so as to put the Southerners and their Northern sympathizers in the minority in both houses of Congress and retain control of the Executive. Within a year a portion of the school or sect, or whatever one pleases to call it, have openly declared that these processes will probably not prove sufficient; that it will not be enough to put a Republican majority in Congress and a Republican President in the White House. They say that safety can only be found in the election of a particular man for the Presidency, and that he is the necessary man because he is a successful military man, noted for his courage and firmness, and who can be relied on to do whatever is desirable (*i.e.*, what he thinks desirable) to secure the executive for himself as a measure of public safety. They do not attach to his name anything in the nature of a list of principles or programme of measures. They rely wholly on his character and military reputation—or, in other words, offer *him* as their platform. They will not even define the methods by which he will see that Congress counts the electoral vote satisfactorily, or will "discriminate between vice and virtue," or "keep the rebels down," or "make treason odious." Nor will they indicate the source from which he will derive the power to do these things. All this, they say, must be left to him. He will take the needful authority and use it for good ends.

Now, nobody who watches the general stream of political tendency in our time can fail to be struck with the extraordinary resemblance of this development of American Stalwartism to two very remarkable phenomena of recent date in European politics—we mean what is known in France as "the Sixteenth of May," and the late Tory administration in England. The former consisted of an appeal to the country on the part of Marshal MacMahon, then President of the Republic, against the majority in the Legislative Assembly, whom he accused of something which he or his adherents called "latent Radicalism," and which he refused to define further than by saying that if allowed to have their way they would "disorganize the institutions" of the country, and put religion, the family, and property in peril. In other words, he declared that the state was exposed to a great danger at the hands of an indeterminate body of persons called "the Radicals," who had already exhibited their powers of mischief at the time of the Commune, and who would, if not anticipated, repeat their experiment before long on a greater scale. The majority in the Assembly, although perhaps not sharing their designs, were, he maintained, playing into their hands, and precautions must be promptly taken.

He accordingly dissolved the Assembly, and went to the country, but he refused to go to the country on the simple question whether his accusations against the majority of the Chamber were true, and whether this majority was worthy of confidence. He appointed a new ministry composed of "henchmen," and what they said was that the only true protection against the dangers he foresaw was the election not of a new Chamber holding sound opinions on questions of the day, but of a Chamber willing in all things to submit itself to the judgment of the Marshal. Official candidates were presented to the constituencies in every district, and the official machine was put vigorously at work to secure their election, both by corruption and intimidation. They were not called "Conservatives" either, but "candidats du gouvernement du Maréchal MacMahon," and friends of the "ordre moral." No platform or programme was presented to the electors. They were simply asked to express their confidence in the "gouvernement du Maréchal." They were told that he was the man for the crisis; that he understood the designs of the Radicals and would know how to frustrate them They were not told what his ideas about government were, or what schemes of legislation he had in view. Nor was it alleged that he was a man of political ideas, or had any political experience at all. The ground on which the country was asked to place itself under his protection was that he was a man of known courage and loyalty, who could not be trifled with, and that he was the "glorieux blessé de Sedan," and had illustrated his firmness and tenacity in the Malakoff by saying, "J'y suis, j'y reste." There was no pretence, of course, that the form of the government was in any way to be changed. The Constitution was to go on working as usual, but the country was to rely for its safety and peace not any longer on the wisdom and patriotism of its freely-elected representatives and on the soundness of the popular judgment, but on the courage and vigor and high temper of a soldier in the Presidential chair. We ought to add that the Marshal made a tour through the provinces immediately before the canvass in the character of a Strong Man, and of the hero of Sedan and the Malakoff. Receptions were everywhere carefully prepared for him, in which the Catholic clergy played a prominent part and prayed for and blessed him as the saviour of the country from the Radicals. His speakers and writers, too, made no secret of their belief that all the Liberals, from M. Thiers down, who opposed him were in secret sympathy with the anarchical designs of the Commune—very much as it is here sometimes suggested that anybody who objects to a Strong-Man candidate is favorable to the right of secession, the payment of the rebel debt, and the murder of negroes.

In England Lord Beaconsfield came into power, in 1874, as the result of a reaction against Mr. Gladstone's excessive legislative activity, and not through popular approval of the Conservative programme, for none was offered. He did not assume the rôle of a Strong Man until 1876, when the Turkish difficulty was raised by the Andrássy Note; but then he did assume it without hesitation, and was, owing to the extraordinary subservience of the Cabinet and of the Conservative majority in the House of Commons, able to keep it up to the general election. Parliament was not consulted about any of the large schemes of his foreign policy until the country had been committed to them, and Conservative writers and speakers of note produced in support of his system the theory that the Government had degenerated and the Empire been placed in peril by the practice of parliamentary omnipotence; that reform was needed by giving the sovereign a more active and prominent share in the administration, or, in other words, by relying to a much greater degree on the personal qualities, apart from his opinions, of the Prime Minister. This theory was boldly acted out down to the dissolution of Parliament, and Parliament was not dissolved until almost the last moment of its legal existence.

What is of most importance for the purpose of our parallel is, however, the nature of the appeal the Tory Minister made to the country before election. It was thoroughly in the line of his practice during his administration, and was, in fact, whatever its defects, a very neat exposition of the Strong-Man theory of government. It had the usual reference to the perilous situation of the country at this particular juncture owing to the nefarious designs of certain enemies of the Government. Without these enemies the Stalwart, the Jingo, or the Friend of Moral Order has not a leg to stand on, and he accordingly always paints them in the blackest colors. The Jingo's enemies are the Russians, the Home-Rulers,

and the Radicals—the first bent on the conquest of India; the second on the separation of Ireland; and the other on the destruction of the crown, the aristocracy, the church, and the army. Resistance to them by appeals to public opinion and trust in the workings of popular good-sense through the legislature, would not be sufficient. The true remedy was Beaconsfield. What he was going to do if he got a new lease of power he did not say, nor did any one say for him, except that he would save the country. People were asked to rely on his courage, his fertility of resource, and his sensitiveness about the national honor, and not to enquire curiously into his plans.

That this attempt to substitute Strong-Man government for parliamentary government, and to substitute for the slowly-gathered force of popular sentiment, working through constitutional forms, the will, energy, and sagacity of a single man, using constitutional forms like clothing for purposes of decency simply, but not concealing his opinion that they are somewhat of an encumbrance when a country has to be "saved"—that this attempt should be made in France, England, and the United States almost simultaneously, and that its conditions should be so nearly alike in all three countries, is a very suggestive circumstance. In all three there is a terrible public enemy—Radicals, Russians, or Brigadiers—whose designs, though not capable of accurate description, are monstrous in their wickedness, and are supported by so much force that the ordinary machinery of constitutional government cannot be relied on to meet them. In all three there happens to be a conspicuous Strong Man who has no fame whatever as a statesman, and has rendered the country no services of moment either in legislation or administration, but for whom, nevertheless, unlimited confidence is demanded. In all three no account is given, or even attempted, of the exact use he will make of his power or of the manner in which he will exercise it. The sole reliance of his supporters is in his capacity for frightening evil-disposed persons, though no good reason is given why they should be afraid of him. In all three, too, the appeal made for him is based on the assumption, which there is no attempt to disguise, that popular government has failed because it does not send the kind of men to the legislature which the Strong Man's friends approve of, or because somebody whom they dislike has been making speeches which seem to them violent or alarming.

In all three, finally, there is a marked indifference to the ordinary work of legislation, and to the ordinary peaceful internal interests of the country. The government takes the place of a sentinel, in fact, rather than that of an administrator, and is wholly absorbed in looking out for a foreign enemy—for the domestic enemy is, owing to the character of his designs, to all intents and purposes a foreigner—and is more desirous of developing martial ardor and a spirit of alert hostility, than in promoting peaceful industry and the hopeful repose of mind which is the first condition of successful industry. The Strong-Man movement is probably, in all three countries, due to somewhat the same composition of causes, viz., the coincidence of increasing timidity on the part of capital and conservatism with temporary rapidity of social and political change, or with the presence of some abnormally difficult political problem. In England, the presence of a scheming adventurer in the Premiership happened to coincide with the sudden renewal of the Eastern question, made up in equal parts of the inevitable decay of Turkey and of the inevitable growth of Russia. In France, the Sixteenth of May was suggested by the presence of a soldier in the Presidential chair at the moment when the final establishment of the Republic seemed close at hand. Here the conditions have been furnished by the recrudescence of the Southern problem under Democratic bad management, combined with the help given to the Machine's political resuscitation of General Grant by the great success of his European trip. But we have no doubt that the American people will dispose of this attack on popular government in as summary a fashion as the French disposed of the "Moral Order," and the English of the "Monarch and the Multitude," and that we shall hear no more of it in our time.

SCIENCE AND RELIGION IN THE UNIVERSITIES.

THE exceeding dulness of the season, from the news-vender's point of view, has seldom been better illustrated than by the effort of the *Times* and *Herald* to give an account of a "conflict between science and religion" at Yale College, growing out of an alleged controversy between President Porter and Professor Sumner about the use of Herbert Spencer's 'Sociology' as a text-book. The reporter or correspondent of the *Times* who first went in search of the conflict found that none of the professors knew anything about it, or, at least, all admitted that he seemed to know much more than they did. On visiting Professor Sumner he was met by the information that the question of using Herbert Spencer's book had been discussed some three months previously between himself and the President in a slight way, and had then been dropped and not revived. This singular absence of facts about the conflict naturally excited his suspicions that if it had not broken out it was imminent, and by way of preparing the public mind for it he wrote another letter giving some account of Spencer's book, and indicating particularly the passages which would be likely to give offence to theologians. Usually when one paper makes a discovery of this kind its contemporaries treat it with scornful silence, but in the present case the *Herald* seems to have considered it of sufficient importance to see what it was the *Times* was after, and despatched a reporter to President Porter, whom the *Times* seems in a strange way to have neglected. After the usual description of the President's house and furniture, the emissary had to record that President Porter had some recollection of the conversation referred to with Professor Sumner, but that nothing came of it, and that he too knew nothing of the approaching conflict between science and religion in the university. The *Times*, nevertheless, has never given up its expectation of the convulsion, and has followed it in imagination to the Corporation, which, as containing a large majority of ministers, will, it confidently expects, give Professor Sumner the worst of it.

This little journalistic voyage of discovery, however, probably had behind it a desire in some quarter or other to find out how Religion stood to Science in Yale College. The *Independent* has been recently making similar explorations, not in Yale only but in other colleges, with the view of extracting from the Faculties an account of their attitude towards the doctrine of Evolution. The attempt was not, we believe, very successful, and resulted in the editor receiving in some quarters very rough handling, on the ground that he had incorrectly reproduced the views of eminent professors. From the head of one college the enquiries drew down positive vituperation of Evolution and its belongings. From none did there come any clear statement by which the college could fairly be bound. We presume the fact is that it is no longer easy for professors any more than for other men, however reflective, to say exactly where they draw the line between their faith and their reason, or between the things they believe because they can prove them, and the things they believe because they cannot help it and like to believe them. A very striking illustration of this vagueness of the dividing line was afforded by Dr. Asa Gray's recent masterly exposition of the doctrine of Evolution before the Yale Theological School. In following the exposition one moves in a world of pure law, but at the close the author admits the possibility of miracles, and, in fact, he recommends the retention of a corner of the mind for simple faith in things neither visible nor provable.

Probably no better account of the attitude of theologians, and in particular of those of New Haven, towards science, can be found than that in the volume of lectures on 'Faith and Rationalism' delivered by Professor Fisher, of the Yale Theological School, before the Princeton Theological School last year. He describes faith as springing out of feeling, as having "no connection with any particular grade of intellectual power," and as in large part the product of the will. It has its source in the conscience, in a sense of dependence, and in each man's personal experience of his needs. In fact, the lectures are an elaborate attempt to remove religious

belief from the domain of logic, and to create for it a field into which the machinery of intellectual proof will not be, and need not be, introduced. Speaking of Evolution the author says:

"It is obvious that the doctrine of Evolution relates to the extent of the operation of second causes, or efficient causes, in the production of the world as we see it—the Cosmos. The doctrine does not touch the question of the ultimate origin of the world; it does not necessarily touch the question whether the world as we behold it is the fruit of a designing mind; nor does it affirm or deny the continuous co-operative agency of God in the processes of nature. Physical or natural science, as such, has nothing to do with religion. Its field of enquiry is second causes. In exploring for links of causal connection between the objects of nature it is engaged in its proper work. Wherever it judges it impossible to find such links it must say so. But science is right in never giving up the search so long as there is any probability of success, and nothing is more unreasonable than to raise an outcry against a man like Mr. Darwin for broaching the hypothesis of a common descent of animals, and for adducing the evidence which leads him to favor it. If there be anything in that hypothesis to affect the doctrine of theism it must be in collateral assertions which are sometimes made in connection with it. It does not inhere in the theory itself."

From these and other passages in the same work it is tolerably plain that liberal theologians, both in New Haven and elsewhere, have discovered, or think they have discovered, a *modus vivendi* between Science and Religion. The plan may be called roughly that of a division of territory between two claimants, each of whom has been contending for the whole. But that this is a concession on the theological side is plainly to be seen from the great subsidence of controversy between the scientific men and the theologians which has taken place within the last ten years. The active polemics which raged during the earlier period of Darwin's, Huxley's, Tyndall's, and Lyell's prominence has ceased, and the main cause of its cessation has undoubtedly been the abandonment by theologians of attempts to contend with the scientific men in their own fields, the attempt—that is to say—to overthrow scientific hypotheses or inferences by means of Scriptural authority or Church tradition, or by means of arguments drawn from the mischief which such hypotheses or inferences would probably work in practice. Outside of the Catholic Church very few clergymen venture on anything of the kind now. After this had been given up there was for a while a disposition to try the plan of taking the facts as furnished by scientific men themselves, and working them over with the logic taught in schools of philosophy and theology, so as to show that the men of science could not extract from their own premises what they thought they could. But this too has been abandoned by all theologians of mark. It was very soon discovered that no man can reason successfully among facts of whose connection with each other and probative force he knows little or nothing.

Whether Professor Fisher's basis of peace can be made permanent must still be considered very doubtful. There runs through his argument, as through that of many of his associates, the assumption that there is a body of persons competent to answer for science, as there is a body of persons competent to answer for theology and settle questions of disputed boundary and the like; and from this error—for error it can easily be shown to be—there has arisen more than one proposal to scientific men to make peace with religion, and concede this and agree not to touch that, just as a church synod or council might draw up a creed or define a heresy. But science is not and cannot be in the keeping of any man or any body of men. Nobody is authorized to say the last word for it or in any way speak in its name. It does not consist of a body of beliefs; it consists of a body of laws, some known and some unknown. The scientific man is not a master or philosopher or prophet. He is an explorer, and he cannot predict what he will discover, or pledge himself that what he may discover will or will not have any particular effect on the mind of the civilized world. Will does not play any part in shaping scientific belief, as it does in shaping religious belief, and the attitude of readiness to believe or of desire to believe, and the feeling of the need of belief, which Professor Fisher makes one of the sources of faith, not only play no part in directing a scientific man's labor, but are among the things which he has most sedulously to avoid. He is, therefore, absolutely incapable of negotiating with anybody about anything.

That Professor Fisher's position with regard to Evolution, or, in fact, with regard to natural science generally, is one which Theists may and will continue to occupy for an indefinite period, nay, probably must occupy for ever, there can be little doubt. But whether that portion of the domain of theology which is appropriated to the evidences of the *historical* truth of Christianity is one which can be protected against the intrusion of scientific methods is very questionable indeed. The attacks of Rationalism on all that portion of a man's religious faith which he draws from his conscience, from his experience of his own needs, and from the exercise of his will ministering to those needs, may be easily repelled. But that portion which he draws from the truth of certain historical facts, and the authenticity and correct interpretation of certain writings, must of necessity be for ever open to the operation of the laws of intellectual proof, and will, therefore, probably continue to be the object of assault both to Rationalists and Rationalistic modes of thought. It is probably, too, rather from the mental attitude it creates among even plain people, rather than from the direct criticism of scientific men or sceptics, that historical religion suffers most, and on this side we must expect to see the conflict go on. Signs of it in the Church itself are very numerous, and not the least important is the immense liberty of interpretation which both ministers and laymen are allowing themselves in our day. Pending the discovery of a final resting-place, however, disputants of all schools must take some comfort in the fact that the mundane ends of religion do not seem to have ever, on the whole, been more fully attained than in our own day. Human society has never displayed so many marks of the kingdom of God, and love and hope have never done so much to sweeten human life.

AN ENGLISH VIEW OF AMERICAN CONSERVATISM.

II.

LONDON, April 1, 1880.

WITH your permission I will now examine the reply to the second and third questions which in my former letter I left unanswered.

What, in the second place, would appear to an English observer to be the causes of what I have termed the conservative temper of America?

The reply hardly admits of doubt. Society in America is conservative because throughout the Northern States (to which alone I venture to refer) there is a noticeable absence of the conditions which in other countries evoke the desire for innovation. These conditions are material want or discomfort among the mass of the people, and the existence of a large body of persons given to speculative pursuits and irritated by the social or political circumstances by which they are surrounded. In a country where there is, as compared with Europe, a wide diffusion of material comfort; where, though many men are partially educated, few persons devote their whole minds to theoretical interests; where the arrangements of the state in the main correspond with the habits of the people, and where (perhaps it may be added) the absence of all opposition to the popular will slightly deadens even the passion for freedom, you may be certain—at any rate if the members of such a community belong to the English race—to find that predominant disposition to leave things as they are which, under all the apparent restlessness of American life, seems to a foreign critic to constitute the fundamental political tone of the American people.

What (to deal with my third and last question) are the inferences which the existence of American conservatism suggests to an English observer?

The first and to European statesmen by far the most important is that there is no connection except one of historical association between democratic government and revolutionary habits. Observation of America suggests that the great French Revolution has produced at least as much confusion in the world of political speculation as in the world of political action. In England, and still more on the Continent, men are still unconsciously confused by the memories of the Reign of Terror. Republicanism shook, or appeared to shake, the very foundations of so-

ciety; and because the attempt to establish Democratic institutions produced revolution, calm observers find it difficult even now to believe that a republic when established has not necessarily a close connection with what is called the revolutionary spirit, or, in other words, with the constant craving for change. Englishmen, indeed, are beginning to perceive that the lessons of the French Revolution have, though naturally enough, been grossly misinterpreted. A fair analysis of the principles which have governed France since 1789 shows that the majority of the French people have, from the moment that their urgent wants were satisfied, been the victims rather of selfish conservatism than of the excessive love for innovation; whilst thirty years' experience of the Swiss democracy should convince us of the futility of the dogma that freedom is inconsistent with order.

The Conservatives, however, of the Continent still dread the very name of a republic. Frenchmen, especially such as the Duc de Broglie, are haunted by the spectre of 1791. They may play with the popular dread of revolutionary violence, but no one can doubt that they are also the dupes of their own panic. No exorcism is so potent to lay the spirit of unreasoning fear as a study of the United States as they actually exist. No one who uses his eyes and looks facts in the face can doubt that in America, at least, popular government has no more necessary connection with the revolutionary spirit than in England monarchical government has with despotism. Indeed, the tendency of any one who reflects on the condition of your country will, it may be suspected, be to revert to a train of thought familiar to the thinkers of the eighteenth century, before their intellectual calm was disturbed by the shouts of the Paris mob and by the sight of the guillotine.

"Nothing," writes Hume, "is more surprising to those who consider human nature with a philosophical eye than to see the easiness with which the many are governed by the few, and to observe the implicit submission with which men resign their own sentiments and passions to those of their rulers." "When popular discontents," writes Burke in a celebrated passage, "have been very prevalent, it may well be affirmed and supported that there has been generally something found amiss in the constitution or in the conduct of the government. The people have no interest in disorder; when they do wrong it is their error and not their crime—'Pour la populace, ce n'est jamais par envie d'attaquer qu'elle se soulève, mais par impatience de souffrir.'" These sentiments appear, indeed, somewhat out of date, and to belong to an age unlike our own. They are in truth, however, specially applicable to modern times, when experience no less than theory really proves that it is with people as with children: what they are allowed to do they often do not care to do at all; and a democracy with uncontrolled power to change everything is constantly found indisposed to alter anything.

The second inference which American conservatism, combined with a survey of the history of the United States, suggests to an impartial observer is closely allied to the conclusion that republicanism has no special connection with a love of change, but will hardly meet with ready acquiescence from your readers. This inference is that bonâ-fide popular government, the existence of as wide individual freedom as is compatible with the maintenance of law, complete legal and nearly complete social toleration both of free discussion and of differences of opinion, are not in themselves conditions which ensure either general activity of intellectual speculation or a general interest in the promotion of original thought. All these conditions are fulfilled in the Union as it now exists. Can, however, any honest critic assert that American society is the home of extraordinary intellectual energy? No doubt more people are with you intelligently interested in what may be roughly termed intellectual matters than in any other country throughout the world. To put the matter simply, a greater proportion of your citizens are, I take it, intelligent readers than can be found in an European nation; but as far as a foreigner can judge from the obvious facts of the case, your educated classes follow in the main the lines pursued by the same classes in England, and are somewhat less agitated than Englishmen by the moral, social, or religious problems of the day. Scarcely any one will contend that you will find either in America or, indeed, in England the same speculative enthusiasm as was to be seen in France towards the close of the *ancien régime*, or, to take another example, anything like the burst of speculative and imaginative energy which prevailed in the little principalities of Germany at the beginning of the present century. Let us take another basis of comparison, and contrast the United States of to-day with American society of a century back. Washington, Franklin, and Hamilton, and the body of men who, born as British subjects, created the Union, have probably like other heroes gained something from distance, and have gained even more from the fact that their activity was displayed on a stage which attracted the eyes of the world; still, the fact remains that these men, bred in a colonial province and under influences far less democratic than the institutions of modern America, are to this day the heroes of the Republic. Do not suppose that I in the least wish to hint at any exceptional decline in the intellectual power of America. Fluctuations in the capacity for developing genius are noticeable in all societies. There is nothing in England to compare with the group of celebrities who, to use a convenient Gallicism, "illustrated" the age of Scott, of Wordsworth, of Brougham, of Sydney Smith, and of Bentham. Modern France does not display the brilliancy of intellect which shone forth in the time of Voltaire, Diderot, and Rousseau. The Germany of Moltke and Bismarck does not compare very favorably with the Germany of Goethe, of Schiller, of Niebuhr, and of Stein. My aim is not to show that American society exhibits any special deficiency in mental power, but simply to point to the conclusion that republican freedom is not a security for intellectual activity.

The idea that liberty must of itself stimulate speculative energy, or, in other words, necessarily produce a spirit of active enquiry and of theoretical innovation, is natural enough. There is a real connection between individual liberty and freedom of thought, for the rule of liberty takes away the deadening influence of persecution. To this it may be added that as long as the free expression of opinion is the privilege of but very few countries, the states which enjoy this privilege will attract to them bold thinkers who cannot otherwise find room for their energies. Hence in the last century Holland, England, and Geneva shone with intellectual glories not properly their own. It was, therefore, all but inevitable that men who knew by experience that persecution might be strong enough to destroy the very springs of speculative power, and who saw that free states were the homes of intellectual innovators, should conclude that there was a closer connection than in fact exists between political liberty and speculative activity. The extended experience of mankind has now taught us that persecution itself is, though when carried beyond a certain limit fatal to free thought, by no means its only enemy. Human indolence is, after all, the deadliest, because the most permanent, foe to intellectual achievements. We may, perhaps, even maintain that ineffective persecution—that is, persecution which irritates without destroying those upon whom it falls—is favorable to the promotion of speculative energy. Forbidden fruit has a peculiar charm just because it is forbidden. When this charm is removed it is often found that few persons care to climb high in search of the out-of-the-way fruits of the tree of knowledge. To say that moderate persecution occasionally produces some slight benefit by the reaction which it causes in its victims against the doctrines enforced by their persecutors, is not to tender an apology for intolerance. There are other things quite as important to mankind as the existence of vehement intellectual activity. To say that Voltaire or Diderot would not have displayed the whole of his powers in any society more tolerant than that in which he lived, is quite consistent with the belief that the intellectual and moral vices of the Regency were a dear price to pay for the rapid and rather hasty growth of the spirit of enlightenment. But, however this may be, the fact that unlimited freedom, while leaving room for speculation, does not in itself stimulate men's intellectual activity, is worth notice. As one contemplates (neither for praise or blame but simply with a view to fair criticism) the marked conservatism of America, one is forced, or at least led, to the conclusion that the democracy of the future, as it will not justify the fears of reactionists, will also somewhat disappoint the sanguine expectations of democratic enthusiasts. Freedom will, like wisdom, be justified of her children. She will, we may suspect, produce throughout the civilized world orderly, law-respecting, conservative societies, which will ensure progress, but will also take good care that mankind does not advance at too rapid a pace or dash recklessly into unknown paths.

A. V. Dicey.

WAGNER'S "TRISTAN AND ISOLDE."

Munich, March, 1880.

ALTHOUGH it has always been the ambition of Wagner to be considered the most German of all artists, fate would have it that the most thoroughly German of all his works was written in exile after almost ten years of enforced absence from his fatherland. Switzerland and Italy, Zürich, Luzerne, and Venice gave rise to the impressions amid which, during the years 1857–59, the poetry and music of "Tristan and Isolde" originated. Before beginning on it Wagner had almost finished the second of the three "evenings" which, with "Rheingold," make up

his Trilogy. "Tristan" therefore comes after "Siegfried," but before "Götterdämmerung" and the "Meistersinger." The cause of the interruption of work on the Trilogy was that Wagner, as he locked in his desk one after another of his Nibelung scores, more and more felt the impossibility of having such a work performed on an operatic stage such as at that time devastated the musical taste of the country; and lest he should become totally estranged from the public, he concluded to write one or two separate works which would have a better chance of being immediately put into scene. It was at this period of his life that Wagner received from the Emperor of Brazil an offer to come to his capital and write an opera for the Italian troupe established there. Had this offer been accepted "Tristan" would have been the first great musical work created in America. But Wagner was too practical a man not to see the utter incongruity of the words Rio de Janeiro, Italian opera troupe, and "Tristan and Isolde." He saw that there were only one or two countries in which such a drama could expect intelligent appreciation. And yet Wagner, though no one has ever accused him of a want of self-conceit, was not conceited enough to believe that his own musical intelligence was so far ahead of that of the musical world of that date that all his efforts to produce "Tristan" at Carlsruhe, Vienna, and Paris would miserably fail. The fact that even the simple "Lohengrin," now the most popular opera on the stage, was at that time regarded with horror by most musicians as a mere boiling mass of cacophonous discords without even a film of melody on the surface, probably taught him patience. At last the discovery of the gifted Schnorr von Carolsfeld and his wife enabled Wagner, under the patronage of the King of Bavaria, and with the assistance of Hans von Bülow as conductor, to give in Munich, in 1861, those four model performances of "Tristan" which are to be regarded as a sort of prelude to the Bayreuth Festival fifteen years later. Those who wish to know the interesting circumstances attending these first performances of "Tristan" may be referred to Glasenapp's 'R. Wagner's Leben und Wirken,' in which the excitement and attendant scandals are described, and an account is given of the parody, "Tristanderl und Süssholde," which then appeared. Since the death of Schnorr von Carolsfeld, Herr and Frau Vogel have taken the leading rôles at the several public repetitions of the drama in Munich, and whenever "le roi s'amuse" by having a performance all to himself. The public has meanwhile been educated and its taste purified by the frequent performances of the "Nibelungen," so that when, after an interval of several years, "Tristan" was again given on the seventh and fourteenth of this month, there was not a discordant voice in the prolonged and deafening applause which followed each act.

Those who are in the habit of attributing Wagner's successes to the brilliant scenic effects in his operas should note that in the present case such a thing is altogether out of the question. In "Tristan" the music is pre-eminent and the scenic charms reduced to a minimum, "Tristan" being in this respect the exact opposite of "Rheingold." It is also well to note that in Wagner's version of 'Tristan and Isolde,' the coarse and sensual elements which pervade the various original forms of the old legend have entirely disappeared, and we have left the purest type of passionate love and love's despair, the catastrophe being due, as in all good tragedy, to an inevitable power of nature and destiny—in this case the magic love-potion, which is here, as a bit of mediæval local color, quite in place. For those who have not enough imagination to sympathize with such a motive, because modern medical science does not recognize the existence of magic love-potions, "Tristan" was not written. Such folks will find a more congenial sphere of enjoyment in mathematics or osteology than in poetry or music. Some time previous to the events embodied in the drama *Morold*, *Isolde's* fiancé, had come from Ireland to Cornwall to collect his customary tribute. Here he was slain by *Tristan*, nephew of *King Marke*. His head was sent back to his bride *Isolde*. But *Tristan* himself had received a dangerous wound, and, as a last resort, he resolved to seek the assistance of *Isolde*, who had learned from her mother the magic art of healing. He came under the assumed name *Tantris*, but *Isolde* soon recognized him as *Tristan*, for she discovered in his sword a notch into which a piece of iron she had extracted from *Morold's* head fitted exactly. She raised the sword to avenge her lover's death, but, suddenly meeting his eyes, became overpowered by a strong emotion and dropped the sword, while he, as she afterwards ironically reproached him, "took in her image" to see if she would make a good wife for *King Marke*. When his wound was healed he returned to Cornwall, and there induced the king to despatch him again to Ireland to sue for *Isolde* as his future queen. When the curtain rises on the first act we behold *Isolde* in the prow of a large ship, on which *Tristan* is conveying her to his uncle. *Isolde* in passionate tones recounts *Tristan's* "treachery" to *Braugäne*, her faithful companion, whom she bids prepare the death-potion and then summon *Tristan* to drink it with her as an expiation. *Tristan* at first refuses to leave the rudder, as custom forbade the suitor to see the bride on the journey. At last he yields, the orchestra announcing his appearance by a series of very impressive abrupt chords. She gives him what she believes is the death-potion, but suddenly snatches the cup from his lips and drinks her portion of it. *Braugäne*, however, resolved to save the life of her mistress, had secretly substituted the love-potion for the poison. Its effect is immediate, and the situation is one of those in the painting of which Wagner excels. The weird and thrilling motive on which the whole drama is built up is heard in the orchestra, first below, then on the highest *tremolo* notes of the violins. As it grows more intense and passionate its strains are embodied and reflected in the mimic action and attitude of the two lovers, until, succumbing to the potent charm, they meet in a passionate embrace. Slovenly acted, the scene is ridiculous. To keep pace in mimic action with forty bars of slow music, representing the gradual development of the highest passion of love, is a task to which very few actors are equal. As executed by Herr and Frau Vogel the scene was sublime. An æsthetic thrill paralyzed the audience like a strong electric current, changing it into so many thousand motionless statues watching the proceedings on the stage. A man near me fainted and had to be carried out. Suddenly the chorus of the seamen announces that the ship has arrived off the coast of Cornwall. The curtain that has shut off the sight of the poop of the ship is pushed aside, and we behold the men swinging their hats and greeting the king, who approaches on a small boat to meet his bride, while his castle is seen towering above the cliffs on the coast.

The curtain falls, and when it rises again *Isolde* and *Braugäne* are seen in a garden adjoining their apartment. It is a warm summer night. A torch is burning near the open door, the extinction of which is to announce to *Tristan* that all is safe for a clandestine interview. Gradually dying away in the distance we hear two sets of forest horns, responding to each other in different keys. These calls mingle with the now subdued, now agitated tones of the orchestra in an exquisitely dreamy manner. It is a little idyllic scene only equalled by the forest-scene in "Siegfried." The love-intoxicated *Isolde* takes these sounds for the murmuring of the leaves shaken by the wind. The more sober *Braugäne* knows that what they hear are the horns of the king's attendants, and suspects that the hunting expedition is a mere sham to put them off their guard. For one of the courtiers, *Melot*, is jealous of *Tristan*, and has resolved to betray him to the king, in whose company he will suddenly surprise the lovers. But *Isolde* is deaf to these suspicions and to *Braugäne's* entreaties. She dashes the torch to the ground, where it is extinguished; and shortly thereafter, as if borne along on the tumultuous tone-waves of the music, *Tristan* approaches. Entirely apart from the music, I think no artist has ever so truthfully represented the meeting of two lovers in words that are the very onomatopœia of passion, the language of emotion itself. Then follows the famous long duet in which the praises of night are sung as against the spiteful day, whose symbol, the torch, had so long separated the lovers. In a mutual embrace, forgetful of all the world, they gradually sink down on a flower-bench. The bench alone is on the stage, the flowers are *heard*. The orchestra becomes a perfect oriental garden of fresh and fragrant melodies, some of them, like the fragrance of a tuberose or hyacinth, almost overwhelming in their sweetness. The scene is one long *nocturne*, in which the dreamy, sweet, and exquisitely tender alternates with outbursts of excitement and fierce passion. "O sink hernieder, Nacht der Lieder" is one of the class of chaste yet intense melodies that have so endeared "Lohengrin" to the people; and it is only one of a long series that follow one another in "Tristan." This enchanting love-scene is suddenly rudely interrupted. *Braugäne's* suspicions prove to have been well founded. The king, followed by *Melot* and his attendants, suddenly appears and confronts *Tristan*, who in his confusion endeavors to hide *Isolde* with his cloak. The king addresses a long string of reproaches to his nephew and benefactor, in which the beauty of the music fully atones for the somewhat undramatic situation. *Tristan* replies dreamily that he can never account to him for his conduct, and then turns to *Isolde* and asks her if she will follow him to his own home. Hearing this, *Melot* shouts "Treason!" and rushing forward, stabs Tristan.

The wound was not deadly, for in the third act we again behold *Tristan* on a couch, unconscious, in the yard in front of his castle in Bretagne, whither *Kurwenal* had conveyed him after the affray with *Melot*. Fearing for the life of *Tristan*, *Kurwenal* has secretly sent for *Isolde*. A shep-

herd has been stationed on the rocks to watch for the approach of her ship. His quaintly mournful melody is heard alone for several minutes after the beautiful, sad orchestral introduction, and indicates that the ship is not yet in sight. Suddenly the melody becomes excited and joyous, and *Kurwenal* rushes down to meet *Isolde*. While he is away *Tristan*, delirious with excitement, tears off the bandage of his wound just as *Isolde* is heard calling out his name. She arrives in time to hear his last word, "Isolde," and to catch his lifeless body in her arms. As she bends over him, bitterly reproaching him for leaving her at this moment, the shepherd rushes in again to announce the arrival of another ship with the king and his attendants. The door is quickly barricaded. *Kurwenal*, after slaying *Melot*, himself receives a deadly wound and falls down by the side of *Tristan*. The catastrophe, though inevitable, was needless; for the king, to whom *Braugäne* had meanwhile revealed the secret of the love-potion, had come, not to reclaim *Isolde*, but to give her to *Tristan*. *Isolde* rouses herself once more to sing those despairingly beautiful verses "Mild und leise, Wie er lächelt," etc., the grand musical strains of which are known to all as the *finale* so often heard at concerts. As Schuré finely expresses it: "Le dernier chant d'Iseult est le chant du cygne de l'amour, la transfiguration de l'amant par l'amante, le mariage de deux âmes sœurs avec l'âme du monde."

It will be seen from this brief sketch, in which I have had to pass over many of the fine poetic touches, that of action in the ordinary sense of the word there is little in "Tristan," which in the plastic simplicity of its scenes resembles the ancient Greek dramas. That Wagner has nevertheless distinguished "Tristan" from all his other works by the name of "*Handlung*," may be partly due to the fact that he objects to the word "music-drama" on philological and historical grounds. Partly, however, the claims of the work to the name "drama" may be made clear in this way. The proper aim of a drama is to represent the growth and conflicts of emotions. This end is usually best attained by rapid and exciting action. All the more praise, however, is due the artist who can reproduce the same play of feelings by simpler means. In "Tristan" the action and mimic display, the poetry and the music, are as inseparable as the form, color, and perfume of a rose. Three powerful arts, therefore, affect the hearer's mind simultaneously, each supplementing the deficiencies of the other—for we know that each art has its limits of expression. The result is that every shade of feeling expressed in the drama becomes the hearer's own emotion. He forgets his individuality, and by merging his percipient consciousness in the object perceived identifies himself with the work of art, and thus enters into that dream-like state which Schopenhauer correctly makes the condition of true æsthetic enjoyment. We know that Wagner himself, while at work on "Tristan," was in a state of "fine frenzy," or artistic inspiration, in which all conscious reflection ceases, all theoretical notions are forgotten, and the brain from its accumulated stores dictates to the hand automatically what it shall write. It is for this reason that, with the exception of the last act of the "Meistersinger," none of Wagner's dramas is so inspired and inspiring, so full of spontaneous and original ideas throughout, as "Tristan und Isolde." It is, in my opinion, not only his own greatest work, but it ranks with Beethoven's "Last Symphony" and Bach's "Passion Music" as one of the three greatest compositions in existence.

On hearing "Tristan" for the first time perhaps nothing will so astonish those who get their notions about Wagner from Semitic newspapers as the persistent silence in it of the brass instruments, especially the trombones. On the other hand, even those who, like myself, had previously heard all Wagner's works from half-a-dozen to a dozen times, will find in "Tristan" new clang-tints of dazzling brilliancy, that will be almost as pleasant a surprise to them as the sight of an entirely new color in the solar spectrum would be. And these colors are not only new, they seem to be demanded by the situations. It is in his exquisite sense of the appropriateness of certain combinations of instruments for the expression of definite emotions that Wagner has excelled all his predecessors. While his imitators, such as Raff and Goldmarck, make the most indiscriminate and unwarrantable use of these new orchestral resources, Wagner never allows the desire for an effect to conflict with his fine dramatic instinct. The most striking proof of this is afforded by a comparison of "Tristan" and the "Meistersinger," composed immediately after it. "Tristan," as already intimated, has the character of one long nocturne, which chiefly craves the warm and tender tones of the strings, while in the "Meistersinger," with its choruses and festive assemblies and processions, the grand and majestic tones of the trombones are in place, and accordingly are used with great effect throughout the drama. And no less admirable than the orchestration of "Tristan" is its musical form. Rhythmically, it is not possible to conceive a work of greater variety and ingenious complexity. The same may be said of the harmonic progressions and modulations. Just as in life happiness is increased by the alternating play of desire and its gratification, so in modern music the accumulation of discords and their gradual and unexpected resolution enable the artist to express depths of emotion not dreamt of by musicians of past eras. I know no other composition in which all the parts are so closely related and organically connected as in "Tristan." It seems as if the removal of a single bar would be as fatal as the removal of a stone from an architectural structure. This unity of form is due to a great extent to the skilful use of the leading motives. The *Leitmotiv* in dramatic music has the same importance as the theory of Development in science: it gives a *continuity* of structure. To employ "thematic treatment" in a music drama—*i.e.*, to work up each musical idea in detail and then pass on to another, never to recur to the first—is as inartistic and absurd as in a pure or literary drama it would be to say all that is to be said about each *dramatis persona* in turn, and then dismiss him for good. This is the scientific, not the artistic method; and those who object to the *Leitmotiv*, therefore, show that they do not understand the very alphabet of the dramatic art. Finally, a word about the melody in "Tristan." To say that we have one continuous melody from the beginning to the end of each act is not a hyperbole but an understatement of the truth. The fact is, we usually hear several melodies at the same time. What Wagner says of Beethoven's music applies equally to his own: "In it there is nothing that is adventitious (*Zuthat*), no framework for the melody, but everything becomes melody, every part of the accompaniment, every rhythmical note, yes, even the pause." And unless *each* of these melodic parts—which make Wagner's style truly polyphonic in every sense of the word—be played with intelligence and *con amore*, the hearer cannot say that he has heard one of his music-dramas, but only a parody of it. It is for this reason that a slovenly performance of "Tristan and Isolde" would be an intolerable bore, while after such a rendering of it as those in Munich few lovers of good music will fail to appreciate the enthusiasm of a friend of mine, who has written on the top of his piano-score: "Hear 'Tristan' and die."

THE PERGAMUS MARBLES.

BERLIN, March 24.

ALTHOUGH in your No. 765, of February 26, you have published two short paragraphs on the recently excavated Pergamus Marbles, the acquisition of this treasure by the Prussian Government and its exhibition in Berlin form so important a contribution to our knowledge of Greek art that I feel justified in entering more fully into the history of the great discovery.*

At the head of the gentlemen to whom this precious acquisition is due stands Mr. Humann, a civil engineer at Smyrna, a native of the town of Steele on the Ruhr, near Essen (of Krupp notoriety), who for years has built roads in Asia Minor for the Turkish Government. Mr. Humann studied in Berlin, and is an enthusiastic and competent connoisseur of Greek art. "My son," said old Humann, an innkeeper, "is one of those impractical fellows who do not care for making money, and go strolling abroad looking after antique, useless rubbish instead of trying to get a salaried office at home." While, about ten years ago, he was officially surveying the neighborhood of the place where old Pergamus stood, Mr. Humann discovered near the Acropolis of the former royal residence an old wall about twenty English feet thick. This wall he perceived at the first glance did not belong to the old Greek period, but was evidently erected as a makeshift against the inroads of barbarians, whether for the protection of the then still standing magnificent buildings of the Attalides or for self-defence by the old Greek and Roman inhabitants. Mr. Humann examined the wall more closely and found that it contained a great number of high reliefs, which had been used as a filling for the inside walls. In 1871 he presented some of these reliefs to our Museum. One of them is a fanciful animal, with well-preserved white scales under its throat, and a horse's neck; the other, a young giant with a beautiful face bearing resemblance to Alexander the Great, both first-class works of art.

At that time Dr. E. Curtius, our Greek historian, visited Asia Minor for some other scientific purposes, and was interested by Mr. Humann in the excavation of the Pergamus ruins. The attention of the Prussian Crown Prince, of the Minister of Public Instruction, of the Director of

* I beg to call your attention to a new work on Pergamus, to be published in a few weeks by the celebrated house of Grote of this city, giving fifteen engravings, representing the scenery and the places where the marbles were found, and an explanatory text by an archæologist who has been on the spot.

the Museum, and of other prominent archæologists was called to the important discovery. Diplomatic negotiations were consequently entered into with the Turkish Government, and led to a satisfactory result. Mr. Humann, like a true, disinterested patriot, offered his personal services in undertaking and prosecuting the work, which was thereupon entrusted to his care.

The fragments of the reliefs above alluded to proved that originally they had not belonged to the inside of a temple, but to the outside wall of a colossal altar. An obscure scribbler, by the name of Apelius, who, in the second century after Christ, compiled a little pamphlet on the "Mirabilia mundi," had particularly pointed out among the wonders of art a great marble altar at Pergamus, forty feet high, with grand statues and a battle of the gods with the giants ("cum maximis sculpturis continet autem gigantomachiam"). Moreover, Pausanias, the Murray and Baedeker of antiquity, incidentally mentions the altar of Pergamus, which, he says, somewhat resembles that of Olympia. Acting upon the descriptions here given, and upon the discovery of Mr. Humann, the directors of our Museum, with Messrs. Conze and Schoene at their head, resolved first to lay open the thick wall. In the summer of 1878 Mr. Humann finally received the order to commence his work. He did so on Monday, September 9, 1878, by beginning to pull down that part of the wall where he had found his first reliefs. On the evening of the second day Mr. Humann succeeded in extricating two reliefs, each about six feet long, which had been inserted face inward into the inner wall. Soon other works of art were found scattered about, and a solid fundamental marble base was discovered. On the evening of September 12 Mr. Humann telegraphed to Berlin: "Found eleven big reliefs, the greater part of which are full figures, thirty fragments, and the altar itself." A short time after the whole altar was laid open. It was a magnificent quadrangular structure, each side measuring one hundred feet, and stood in the open air, quite near the most prominent height of the Acropolis of Pergamus, and about 750 feet above the level of the sea.

The whole work of excavation did not quite occupy one year. In May, 1879, the group of the battle of Athene was discovered, and on July 21 the colossal group representing Zeus throwing his thunderbolt at a giant was restored to daylight by the descendant of one of those barbarians who had shared in the destruction of this masterpiece of antique art. Both these groups were found on the east side of the altar, where the heavy marbles had been torn from their place and had been used for building the poor huts of uncivilized tribes. The whole ground there is strewn with fragments of statues, relics of giants, and mutilated parts of gods. Only two stone steps of the old marble altar were left in place. Everything else was torn down, misplaced, cut to pieces, weather-beaten, and decayed. "In going over the ruins," says Mr. Conze, "we on the one hand feel proud that it has been our privilege to obtain this great treasure, and on the other hand are painfully impressed by the horrible devastation which has befallen this glorious grandeur."

Our men-of-war had been ordered to transport the marbles to Germany. The greater part of them have already been sent over, and about one hundred and twenty great boxes are still expected to arrive. The actual price paid for the whole is not much over $6,000. The Prussian Government offered the Pasha 30,000 marks for his share, but the latter charged only so many francs, which made a difference of twenty per cent. in our favor. Never in the history of art has so trifling a sum been paid for so great a boon. It is intended to erect a public hall exclusively devoted to the exhibition of the Pergamus treasure. According to Alexander Conze, the director of the statuary in our Museum, the altar was erected by King Eumenes II. (197-159 B.C.), who expressed his thankfulness for his victories over the Gauls and other wild tribes by embellishing his capital with works of art. It was strictly in accordance with Greek custom that the feats of the king were symbolized by the battle of the gods with the giants, thus expressing the supremacy of idealism over materialism, and at the same time reminding the dynasty and the people by what heroic means Eumenes and his predecessor had broken the raids of the barbarians and secured the blessings of Hellenic culture to the small kingdom.

It will, of course, be several years before our artists and archæologists will be able to reconstruct the plan and the execution of the whole. Mr. Bohn, a very competent architect, has been charged with the work. It is confidently expected that he will be able to reproduce the total aspect of the grand edifice in all the particulars of its elevation, while it is less probable that he will succeed in remodelling its ground-plan. It is, so to speak, a mighty palimpsest wherein the original characteristics must be deciphered from the bewildering formations of several thousand years. When re-erected the altar will be forty feet high and four hundred feet in rectangular circumference. The steps and substructure are supposed to have been ten feet high, so that the principal frieze is seen by the beholder some ten feet above the ground. From there an inner marble staircase leads up to the offering altar, which is surrounded by a hall of columns, and around the offering altar itself runs the second smaller frieze, representing the history of the Attalides, and symbolizing the old Greek mythology.

For the present the marbles are in the east wing of the Museum, where since January they have twice a week been thrown open to the public. The collective sculptures represent, as you have already stated in your No. 765, the giants storming Olympus. Each of these groups portrays a moment in the struggle, and it is very fortunate that the two principal groups, those of Zeus and Athene, have been completely found and give an equal idea of the intention of the artist and of his masterly execution. Zeus was found on the eastern wall of the altar, and consequently represents the centre of interest. The upper part of the god is left bare. He fights against three giants, one of whom has been struck by his thunderbolt, while an eagle brings to Zeus a second bolt. Another giant's arm sinks down powerless, terror-stricken by the sight of the ægis. The bodies of these winged giants end in dragons' legs, the extremities of which form a serpent's mouth. With their legs they entwine their enemies and with their serpent mouths they bite them.

Besides the minor gods assisting the superior gods there are beasts let loose against the giants, who have to defend themselves against these dogs or lions, which bite them in their necks or legs. On the other hand we see the dainty little foot of Artemis thrust into a giant's face. The embroideries of her sandal are as elegantly worked out as if yesterday they had left the Paris shoemaker's shop.

The Athene group is as full of life and action as the first-named. Her right hand catches a four-winged giant by the hair and drags him along, while her serpent encoils him. Another giant, whose face resembles that of Laocoon, sinks at the goddess's feet in the fangs of another of her serpents, and a third giant is threatening her; but Nike, the goddess of victory, is already crowning her with the laurel-wreath. To the left of Athene rises Ge, the mother of the giants, with loosened tresses, mourning over the destruction of her children, and resembling the celebrated statue of Niobe in the expression of her upturned face.

Besides these two principal groups there are several others of minor importance, and in single, disconnected blocks. In the last room there is to be seen Helios, the god of the sun, on his quadriga, Aurora preceding him and announcing his coming; a goddess riding on a lion, who draws an arrow from her quiver, while a woman rides ahead of her. There is in another corner another handsome woman, turning her back to the beholder; each limb of her body can be discerned through the folds of her wonderfully-chiselled gown. In another group, only part of which has as yet been recomposed, a majestic-looking goddess defends herself by throwing at her enemies a big vase covered with hissing serpents. At her feet lies the head of a Medusa, with terror and despair depicted in her face. It resembles the Medusa of the Villa Ludovisi in Rome, and proves that the latter, which was falsely attributed to the *cinque cento*, must be of Pergamene origin. One of the finest specimens is the head of a beautiful woman with an ineffable smile on her finely-chiselled lips. The admirable realistic manner in which the artist handles his subject among others is best exemplified by the statue of a fat ogre with a bull's neck, into which a sword is pushed to its handle. Even the ugliness of this monster with its barbaric features has something sublime. The torso of a Poseidon resembles that of the Vatican; one of the finest torsi is an Apollo, whose beautifully-wrought body and limbs class it among the first productions of antique art. His arms and commanding attitude remind one of the celebrated Apollo Belvedere. The bodies in general are not smoothly worked out, but the marbles show every muscle and sinew, and every mark of the hammer. Some of the statues, which are almost all of more than life-size, have been freed from dust and dirt, and now appear to the best advantage, as for instance the full figure of a woman lying half on her side as if asleep. Our architects say that the marble used for the whole frieze of the altar is of a rougher quality than that found in other Greek and Roman sculptures. They suppose that it must have been from a quarry in the immediate neighborhood, the existence of which has hitherto been unknown to us.

Some features of the Pergamus treasures have as yet not been found in antique statuary. Thus, hair is not treated as a mass, but is carefully worked out on the head, on the breast, and under the armpits, and the same is the case with the eyebrows. The eyes were evidently

adorned with colored and precious stones. The artists, whose names are only partly given, combine the most fanciful invention with a perfect mastery of technicality and a sound realism; what they produce is not only executed in marble, but has been thought and conceived in marble, for which purpose they evidently were not in need of a model and did not use one. The great Renaissance masters appear somewhat inferior to the originators of these colossal groups; only Michelangelo, and of a later period our Schlueter, can bear any comparison with them. The other day a celebrated foreign connoisseur when looking at these marbles said "that every amateur and student of Greek art must henceforward not only see Greece and Italy, but must make a pilgrimage to Berlin to the Pergamus altar." Come and see! ? ?

Correspondence.

UNION OF THE INDEPENDENTS AGAINST GRANT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Differing somewhat from the views of one of your correspondents, published in your paper of April 1, I would offer a suggestion to the Independents. The important and vital evil against which they now contend is the proposed nomination of General Grant, believing it to represent the most serious dangers to the Republic—a third term, machine politics, corruption, and a distinct menace of force; for the utterances of his partisans are mere empty vaporings unless they mean that he will meet fraud—*i.e.*, his failure to receive the Presidency by legal methods—by force. In these they recognize greater dangers to the perpetuity of our institutions than would be likely to ensue from the success of any other man or party.

Assuming that this correctly expresses their views so far, it would seem that they try to do too much when they declare against other candidates also. The Independents are as yet but a comparatively small body, and, operating within party lines, cannot expect to dictate the nomination. If they were compact, organized, and with recognized leaders certainly holding the balance of power between two great parties, they might perhaps insist on the nomination of one of two men, but could only hope for success because their solid support or opposition would be thrown according to the arrangement agreed on. When the contrary of this is true, and no man can speak for them or pledge in any given contingency their unanimous action, they cannot expect to do more than prevent the nomination of some one man against whom they are all agreed, and then only because, as to that, they have the unanimity which alone can give to their views the slightest weight with the practical politician, and because they draw to their support the adherents of all the other candidates.

If it be said that Mr. Blaine is only less dangerous than General Grant as a candidate, still it remains that he is *less* dangerous, and therefore Grant, and not he, is the one against whom the Independents should combine. Besides, the success of Mr. Blaine is so unlikely that it can be left out of the calculation. Probably no man can be nominated by the Chicago Convention, and certainly no Republican can be elected, without the support of Messrs. Conkling and Cameron. In their eyes it would seem that the chief end of government is the distribution of the offices, and in view of the political history of the Republican party it is difficult to see how, without intolerable humiliation to one or all of them, either of these gentlemen could have any control of the patronage under a Blaine administration. Under Grant they each would be practically President, so far as their own States are concerned, and herein probably lies the secret of their support of him; under almost any other man, with his own political friends and followers to provide for, they would only have 'influence" more or less weighty; but still they would have a great deal. But under Blaine they could have none, certainly none of the absolute kind they would require to maintain their prestige among their followers. Hence Mr. Blaine, even if nominated, could hardly expect to escape defeat through their machinations; for it is to be remembered that, although the practical politician utterly contemns the man who votes as he pleases and refuses to yield blind allegiance to any party, yet he will, whenever able to, "knife"—*i.e.*, secretly oppose and defeat—any candidate of his own party whose success would be a blow to his own political power.

Indeed, it may be said that the only way in which the Independents can practically give effect to their opposition to General Grant would be by emphatically declaring at the St. Louis or some other such meeting that they as a body not only will not support him, but will support his opponent.

No mere expression of dissatisfaction will be likely to answer the purpose, for Conkling and his coadjutors care little for protests so long as the voter votes the ticket: as you once said, "they care not how much they squeal if they don't bolt"; but such a declaration as that proposed, made by men who have heretofore contributed to Republican successes, might prevent the nomination of Grant by rendering his election so doubtful that the rank and file would become intractable and refuse to be led into so doubtful a contest. Besides it would render difficult of accomplishment the bargain alleged to have been made between Conkling and Kelly to deliver New York to the Republicans; certainly Mr. Kelly would find it hard work to control his followers when a victory for their own party would be so plainly within their grasp by availing themselves of the defection among the Republicans.

Public opinion, like the tide, changes gradually, and if the Independents ever unite in some practical action, and make themselves sufficiently felt in 1880 to prevent one nomination, they may reasonably hope by 1884 to be able actively to influence another. Their numbers are growing, their utterances as to the necessity of civil-service reform and what that reform consists in are becoming daily more impressed on the public mind, but it remains to be seen whether they can become sufficiently united to affect the impending political campaign. P.

Philadelphia, April 3, 1880.

INDIAN RESERVATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In considering the causes of that antagonism undoubtedly existing between the Western people and the Indians sufficient stress has never been laid upon the hardships imposed upon the settlers by the reservation system. The withdrawal of the land from settlement might be borne, even though the quantity be altogether out of proportion to the number of Indians; that is the least part of the grievance. Throughout the West are scattered numerous tracts of land as much forbidden soil to the Caucasian as if they were so many little Chinese Empires. If you try to cross, the agent may summon his Indian police or a squad of soldiers and put you off ignominiously. If you attempt to drive a herd of cattle across on your way to market, to save a distance of a hundred miles, the agent may turn you back and impose a heavy fine on you.

A few facts about the Crow reservation will show the care and tenderness with which the Government has fostered the settlement of the Western Territories. This reservation was established by the Laramie treaty in 1868. It embraces about ten thousand square miles between the Yellowstone River and the northern boundary of Wyoming. At a very liberal estimate, there may be five hundred men among the Crows who could take up a homestead under the land laws to which white men are subject. They are, therefore, each allotted twenty square miles, or eighty times the quantity permitted to a citizen. This reservation embraces the mining region on the Upper Yellowstone, where settlements had been made in 1864, and at the time of the treaty several hundred citizens were living there. From that day the threat of an ejectment has been hanging over these men, making permanent improvements and expensive mining development out of the question. In all these years I do not think a single Indian has visited this part of the reservation.

Prior to this treaty the road into eastern Montana ran direct from Cheyenne to Bozeman. The establishment of this reservation threw a barrier two hundred miles long across this road, and closed it. We could not go around this barrier. On the east it was closed by hostile Sioux, on the west by impassable mountains. Since then we have, therefore, been compelled to go *east* by first going one hundred miles *west*, thence four hundred miles south, crossing the Rocky Mountains, and, after travelling five hundred miles, finding ourselves no nearer our goal than at our starting point. The Northern Pacific Railroad, now building up the Yellowstone Valley, wishes to cross the river at several points, to avoid steep, rugged bluffs abutting on the north bank of the stream; but the Laramie treaty says, No admittance, and, unless a new treaty can be made, the company will have to build its line along the north bank all the way, at a heavy additional expense.

Eastern philanthropists may think that these things are all right, and that we ought to be punished for helping to build up the West; but that view will hardly be taken by the average human mind if the facts are once brought before it. The Indian has rights to be respected; but so has the white man. It is not in human nature to submit to wrongs except under

compulsion. As long as the reservation system is continued in its present form there can be no peace between the Westerner and the Indian. Agitation in one form or another will continue until the reservations are broken up, the Indians given a reasonable amount of land in severalty (inalienable for a term of years, when desirable), and the laws of the country extended over all, red and white alike. P. KOCH.

BOZEMAN, M. T., March 27, 1880.

THE WASHINGTON PEDIGREE.

[We have received from the Editor of *Harper's Magazine*, with permission to print, the following letter. As will be seen, it possesses a general interest. Its publication, we understand, has been deferred in the hope of obtaining something final from Col. Chester.—ED. NATION.]

SIR: My attention has been called to an article which appeared in your March number [1879], describing a visit to the "English Home of the Washingtons"—viz., Brington, in Northamptonshire—most agreeably and accurately written by your contributor, and referring throughout continually to a book called 'The Washingtons,' published by me in England in 1860.

In that book I had gathered together some particulars of the Northamptonshire family of that name who had been pointed out in 1791 by Sir Isaac Heard, the then Garter King-at-Arms, as the ancestors of your great President—a conclusion accepted by the President himself, and received without a doubt by his biographers in America as well as by genealogists and topographers in this country. And, never dreaming that there could be any doubt on this point, I felt great satisfaction in adding to what was known of the emigrant and his immediate relations from what could be gleaned in the country parish of which I was then rector, and in dwelling on their connection with the noble family of the Spencers.

My book met with a kind reception from the venerable Jared Sparks, and was favorably noticed in the *North American Review*, and by Mr. Palfrey in his 'History of New England.' I was asked, too, to repeat the substance of it at a great breakfast given by the American residents in London on the anniversary of Washington's birthday in 1862. The terrible contest, however, which soon after broke out in America made men indifferent to such small matters, and it is only of late that Americans have again begun to show much interest in "the English home of the Washingtons."

Meanwhile great doubts were thrown upon the pedigree which Sir I. Heard was supposed to have authenticated. These doubts were first formulated by your distinguished countryman Col. J. L. Chester, a gentleman unrivalled and unapproachable in his own departments of genealogy, and who in his *magnum opus*, the 'Register of Westminster Abbey' (undertaken at the request of Dean Stanley and the Chapter), has recently conferred upon the English nation a gift of imperishable value for future historians and biographers.

Col. Chester, whom I am proud to call my friend, by the aid of parish registers, marriage licenses, probates of wills, records of lawsuits, and other miscellaneous documents, of which he has so extraordinary a knowledge, proceeded to challenge Sir I. Heard's conclusions respecting the emigrant brothers John and Lawrence Washington, and in a paper which he contributed in 1866 to the English *Herald and Genealogist* succeeded in showing incontestably that the two persons who had been designated as the emigrants really died and were buried on English ground. Unacceptable as these conclusions were to me, I could not possibly resist them. They were all the more mortifying because drawn by the assailant, in some measure, from the additional particulars which I myself had brought to light respecting the Northants family. "Meo mihi gladio me jugulavit."

That much, then, is certain; and I am surprised that it is not universally known in America among those who take an interest in the matter. In the same month as that in which your own article appeared, a letter of Col. Chester's was published in the New York *World* briefly recapitulating the facts he had established in 1866, and holding out (I am glad to add) fresh hopes of being able to substitute some positive conclusions for those which he has demolished; for he is not the man to rest content with negative and destructive evidence, and, while elucidating other difficult points in genealogy, he has never ceased to keep this leading object steadily before him. It is his determination, however, not to put forth the mass of materials he has collected bearing on this subject till he is sure of his ground; and this determination on his part must seal also the lips of those of his friends to whom he has in confidence shown some of the documents in his possession.

I hope I am not saying too much, under the circumstances, in adding that some of these documents seemed to me to supply strong presumptive proof that the emigrants would be found, after all, to have sprung from the Northamptonshire stock, though of a generation below that which was erroneously pointed out. In this case Brington and Sulgrave would not lose their interest to Americans. How far Col. Chester would endorse my opinion I cannot, of course, say; but, as he tells us himself in his letter to the *World*, his chief dependence is now placed on a deed which has recently come into his possession, relating to and signed by a certain John Washington, whom he believes to have been the emigrant and the great-grandfather of the President.

I have the honor to be, sir, yours faithfully,

J. N. SIMPKINSON.

NORTH CREAKE RECTORY, NORFOLK, May 23, 1879.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS have begun with 'Knickerbocker's New York' a "Geoffrey Crayon Edition" of Irving's works, to be completed in twenty-six volumes. The first is beautifully printed, and in addition to the designs, of various periods, by Allston, Cruikshank, Heath, Darley, Hoppin, etc., some brand-new ones by Church, executed in the present style of engraving, are introduced. The edition will be as cheap as it is elegant. The same publishers have issued in pamphlet form Dr. H. W. Bellows's discourse on "Channing—His Opinions, Genius, and Character," delivered at the centenary (April 7) in Newport.——The American Unitarian Association, Boston, have prodigally brought out in a dollar volume the well-known Life of Dr. Channing by his nephew, abridged to the extent of nearly one-third of the original, which appeared in three volmes. An artotype portrait is prefixed. The printed page is condensed but easily read. ——Mr. John Russell Young's 'Around the World with General Grant' (New York: American News Co.) has just been concluded by the issuing of Parts 19 and 20. The work has been noticeable in its progress for its typographical excellence and for the abundance and substantial quality of its wood-cut illustrations. The last number reports an interesting conversation on the Vicksburg campaign.——B. Westermann & Co. send us Parts 12 and 13 of the new edition of Stieler's Modern Atlas, with sheet-maps of Italy, half the Mediterranean basin, Denmark, Russia, etc., with the usual accompaniment of side-maps. They have also received Parts 11–16 of Oncken's 'Allgemeine Geschichte' published by Grote, of Berlin, one of the most beautifully printed and judiciously (even if somewhat capriciously) illustrated works of the kind, to say nothing of its authoritative value. These parts bring the history of ancient Rome down to the death of Sulla, and the reigns of Louis XIV. and of Peter the Great nearly to their close, and begin the history of India. The French portions are particularly rich in engravings and fac-similes. To mention only the portraits, we have Mazarin, Corneille, Racine, Boileau, Lafontaine, Le Sage, Molière, Fénelon, Bossuet, James II., and Queen Anne of England, Marlborough, Prince Eugene, Vauban, Locke, Leibnitz, Spinoza, Mme. de Maintenon, etc. The Indian illustrations of temples are very fine.——The preliminary pages and appendix of the 'American Catalogue' (A. C. Armstrong & Son) now enable the first volume to be bound. Constant reference to this invaluable work increases our sense of its utility. It is a worthy monument of American intelligence and industry.——Charles Scribner's Sons promise during the spring a complete collection of the poems of Mr. Richard Henry Stoddard. From Scribner & Co. we have the nineteenth bound volume of their *Monthly*, which has been signalized by the conclusion of Mr. James's "Confidence," the beginning of Mr. Cable's "Grandissimes," of Mr. Schuyler's "Peter the Great," and of the instructive extracts from the journal of the late Henry J. Raymond.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press 'Jackson's Valley Campaign' (1861-62), by Lieutenant-Colonel William Allan, with maps of the region and battle-fields by Captain Jed. Hotchkiss; and 'The United States Government: its Organization and Practical Workings,' by George N. Lamphere.——Part 6 of the second volume of Mrs. Lamb's 'History of the City of New York' enters upon the period after the establishment of the peace of 1783. It has among its illustrations several rarities, the most curious being Benj. West's unfinished study in oil of the peacemakers, and a portrait of David Hartley, the British Minister Plenipotentiary.——No. III. of the Occasional

Papers of the Boston Society of Natural History is a stout octavo pamphlet of 286 pp., with a colored map, entitled 'Contributions to the Geology of Eastern Massachusetts.' The work is marked by thoroughness and originality, and is based upon researches for which exceptional opportunities were afforded.——Mr. John P. Soule, 338 Washington Street, Boston, Mass., sends us evidences of the increase of his now very extensive collection of photographic reproductions of works of art which we described in No. 759 of the *Nation*. An enumeration of them will show their variety: Great Pyramid and Sphinx; Court of Lions, Alhambra; Michelangelo's "Cumæan Sibyl" and "Ezekiel"; Guido Reni's "Aurora"; Tintoretto's "Minerva Driving Back Mars"; Velasquez's "Æsop"; Raphael's "Sistine Madonna," and boys from the cartoon of "Paul and Barnabas"; Veronese's "Moderation"; Murillo's "St. Anthony of Padua"; Holbein's "Erasmus"; the new Hermes from Olympia, etc.—all from nature or the canvas or marble. The size of the largest does not exceed 5x4 inches.——In anticipation of the tourist season the Messrs. Rivington have brought out new editions of 'Recollections of Ober-Ammergau in 1871,' by H. N. Oxenham, and of the Rev. Malcolm MacColl's 'Ober-Ammergau Passion-Play' (New York: Pott, Young & Co.) The latter work contains in the appendix a continuous and orderly description of the scenes and tableaux of the play. The new preface gives the calendar of this year's representations, from May to September inclusive, with the names of the chief *dramatis personæ*. It states that the new, mainly uncovered theatre will seat 4,500 persons, and that the railroad is within three hours' drive of Ober-Ammergau, which is, moreover, now connected by telegraph with the rest of the world.——For the benefit of Americans going abroad this summer, we will mention, apropos of our Munich letter on another page, that "Tristan and Isolde" is announced for performance in June at Leipzig and also at Hamburg, where a complete cycle of Wagner's works is to be given. Probably it will also be repeated at Munich during the course of the theatre festival in July. ——A new impression from the plates of Dr. C. J. Hempel's edition of 'Schiller's Complete Works,' translated into English, has been made by the publisher, I. Kohler, 911 Arch Street, Philadelphia. The work is in two large octavo volumes of some 1,300 pages altogether, double column, with illustrations, and embraces the best version of Schiller's varied writings procurable twenty years ago. The price is moderate.——Among recent French announcements are two of interest to Americans. The first is 'La Jeunesse de Fanny Kemble, d'après ses Mémoires,' by Mme. Aug. Craven, author of the 'Réçit d'une Sœur.' The second is 'Réçits d'un Humoriste,' adapted from the English of Mr. John Habberton, by Williams L. Hughues, whose previous adaptation from the same American author, 'Les Bébés d'Hélène,' has been illustrated by Bertall, and is advertised as an "ouvrage adopté par le Ministère de l'Instruction Publique"—which goes to show to what straits the purveyors of juvenile literature are put in France.

—The Cincinnati Public Library continues to extend its operations, and the number of its catalogues increases. In December a second branch was opened at Columbia with 4,000 volumes; the catalogue of the books, a brief list, has 20 pp. Both this and the Cumminsville branch, though their circulation is enlarging, are in their day of small things, and we believe either of them reckons its registered borrowers within a thousand. The connection of both with the main library by the telephone enlarges their resources by the contents of the general library, as has been the case for some time in Boston. Another catalogue of 64 pp. enumerates the works treating of anatomy, physiology, hygiene (public and private), botany, chemistry, microscopy, and physics, and forms part of a catalogue of works relating to medicine and allied sciences. With physics is included naturally, though somewhat remotely allied to medicine, mechanics. This is the most elaborate piece of classification yet published by the library, and appears to have the merits of fulness and much painstaking. Another catalogue of 67 pp. is a "Subject-index to the location of the books and pamphlets in the library," principally for the benefit of the attendants, and perhaps it should be said of a library so far uncatalogued, as regards the accessibility of the catalogue to the public, that the public must depend upon the attendants for the knowledge of the library's contents. It is an alphabetical statement of subjects into which the books are divided on the shelves, with the numbers of the books, but with no mention of the authors included. The consolidated monthly bulletins for the year 1879 make a bulky volume of 292 pp., 34 of which give an alphabetical index of authors of anonymous works, and one an index of subjects. These bulletins, like their predecessors, have the merit of large type, full titles, and a careful collation of pages, and form undoubtedly the most indispensable catalogue that Cincinnati publishes. We doubt whether the experiment of publishing special classified lists of all the books in a library growing at the rate of eight or ten thousand volumes a year, and at present containing only about 130,000 volumes and pamphlets, is likely to be altogether satisfactory. Department catalogues of a rapidly-growing library are superseded too soon, and a large part of the library is catalogued too slowly. If the monthly bulletins are full and consolidated like those of Cincinnati for 1878 and 1879, with a fair classification of their contents, and the library once in five years or so publishes a brief list of all its books with a large conspectus of subjects, we should think it would be better catalogued, and its resources would be enlarged for the purchase of books.

—The 'Théâtre de Campagne' and the series of 'Saynètes et Monologues' continue to grow; the latest issues are the sixth volume of the first and the fifth and sixth of the second. M. Legouvé, who originally introduced the 'Théâtre de Campagne' to the public, prefaces this volume with a letter in which he compliments the publisher on his energy and success, and points out that ten or a dozen of the little pieces which first saw the light in this series have since stood the more serious test of the actual theatre. It is not likely, however, that any of the plays in the present volume will be borrowed by the regular stage; they are all altogether too slight. In the other collection as well a decided falling off in merit is to be noticed. In no one of the three volumes is there anything by M. Labiche, M. Gondinet, or M. Meilhac. In the 'Théâtre de Campagne' nothing rises above mediocrity except "Un Crâne sous une tempête," a most original little dialogue—if a piece can be so called in which one of the two characters can say nothing, so fierce is the Caudle lecture which overwhelms him. Its author, M. Dreyfus, seems to have a refreshing originality of his own; his "Après la Noce," in the fifth volume of the other series, although good, is less individual. The best thing in 'Saynètes et Monologues' is "Un Caissier," by MM. Gill and Richard. This is a dialogue for two men only, of the robustly funny and frankly farcical type—not unlike the perennial "Box and Cox." In all three volumes there are far too many monologues, and these are no longer really dramatic; most of them are merely recitations, whereas the true monologue is a play in which there is only one part. To write a good one is no easy task, and from an examination of those in these volumes it seems as though the field were well-nigh exhausted. Morally, these latest issues do not differ greatly from the earlier; they are harmless now, even if a little more insipid. The writer in a recent number of *Lippincott's* who asked for plays for women only will find at least two plays in these volumes meeting this requirement; but neither is of great interest.

—"The Way We Live" was brought out at Daly's last Saturday evening with considerable success. It is "based on the German" and "arranged" by Augustin Daly, and in its American form is a satire upon New York society. What sort of satire it is may best be understood by a brief analysis of the plot. *Major Sidney Lincoln* is a middle-aged bachelor whose habit of constantly wearing his uniform is a slight indication of his sincerity and excellence of character. In his house lives his sister, a vulgar and malicious widow, who recompenses his kindness by making his life a burden in a variety of ways. Another member of the household is *Miss Langley*, a young, innocent, and unworldly maiden, whose mother was once beloved by the honest major. The disparity between the ages of the *Major* and *Miss Langley*—some thirty-three years—is not sufficient to prevent the elder of the pair from becoming passionately attached to the younger, nor the younger from secretly returning his affection. Their love-story has so little to do with the rest of the plot that it may be just as well to say here that they are in the end happily united. In contrast with the manly *Major* and the modest *Harriet* we have the follies and foibles of a number of people belonging to our best society, and particularly *Mr.* and *Mrs. Clyde Monograme*, the husband being a substantial leather merchant and the wife an ambitious young woman of fashionable tastes, who spends her time in useless charities and neglects her child, husband, and home. She is pursued by *Mr. Frederick Van Schaick*, a young Lothario, whose part, whatever it may be in German, is very ridiculous in English; but she is never really in danger. In the second act we have the interior of the *Monograme* household, with the boy *Georgie* (very well played by Miss Waters) and his motherless condition, for a pathetic *milieu*. Of course the desertion of a child by its mother for fashionable charity is a distressing idea, and this scene, with a slightly different management, might be made very affecting. The difficulty is that Mr. Daly understands farce better than pathos, and has made the boy's rehearsal of his spelling-lesson so laughable that the full

effect of the situation is lost. The second act, however, is the best of the play. The third act, in which there is a meeting of the charitable ladies presided over by *Mrs. Monograme*, is decidedly amusing. In the end, *Mrs. Monograme's* domestic instincts are revived by jealousy of a governess, and by this slight means is effected a happy reunion of the household. *Mrs. Monograme* herself, acted by Miss Rehan, is the best character in the play, and the part is well played throughout. The acting of the slight though difficult part of *Fanny Martin* by Miss Georgine Flagg was also good. The dialogue is bright, and the satire, after Mr. Daly's wont, made plain to the dullest comprehension. Perhaps the best "local hit"—at any rate, the hit which the audience seemed most thoroughly to appreciate—was the heartfelt regret expressed by *Mrs. Van Schaick* that her husband had not lived "till the market recovered." The fourth act dragged on Saturday night, but this was partly owing to the fact that it was a "first night." Since the custom of making a "first night" a distinct theatrical event at all the leading theatres in New York has become fixed, would it not be worth while for managers to make a point of having the parts thoroughly known? Curiously enough, on "first nights" here the audience is always the best and the play the worst. The custom, of course, comes from Paris, where the drama is a living institution, and where a new play by Sardou or Dumas is an important æsthetic occurrence. But the production of a play "based" on another play by a local manager derives almost its only value from the excellence of its execution, and this ought to be insisted on by audiences here more than it is.

—The usual extra and benefit concerts which occur towards the end of the musical season were begun this year by a benefit concert tendered by a number of leading musicians to Mr. Franz Rummel, who three months ago met with a serious accident in Providence, R. I., and has thus been prevented of late from being heard in public. Mr. Rummel, who first came to this country last winter, gained in a short time a large circle of friends and admirers by his remarkable qualities. No other pianist since Rubinstein's departure and Joseffy's arrival has created so favorable an impression among amateurs. The programme of the concert was attractive and the list of the assisting artists contained the names of popular favorites. The most interesting numbers were a concerto for four pianos by Bach, with double string quartet accompaniment. The pianoforte part was effectively rendered by Miss Copleston and Messrs. Von Inten, Dulcken, and Rummel. A pianoforte quintet by Rubinstein was the most powerful number on the programme. Vocal and instrumental solos of a popular character were given by Mrs. Swift, Miss Henne, and Messrs. Fritsch, Del Puente, Adolphe Fischer, and other well-known artists.——Mr. Arnold, the first violin-player of the New York Philharmonic Club, gave a concert of a miscellaneous character, on Saturday night, in Chickering Hall. The chief feature of the evening was a sextet for string instruments by Anton Dvorak in A major, Op. 48, which was played for the first time in this country. It is a bright and interesting composition. The first movement, an *allegro moderato*, is full of clear, pleasing melodies and charming modulations. As we remarked when reviewing two orchestral *suites* by the same composer which have been performed during the present season by Mr. Thomas and Dr. Damrosch, Dvorak's subjects are neither powerful nor very original, but they are graceful and sure to please at a first hearing. The second movement, *Elegy*, followed by a charming little *adagio*, is perhaps the most impressive of the whole work. It is followed by a spirited *scherzo* (*furiant presto*) of great technical difficulties, which were excellently rendered by Mr. Arnold and his associates. The finale is a pretty, quaint air, with variations.——Mr. Lavine's annual concerts in Steinway Hall are generally above the average of that class of performances. The fifth of his concerts, which took place on Monday last, was even better than those of preceding years. Besides some excellent soloists, Mr. Lavine had engaged Mr. Thomas, who, with a small but very select orchestra, gave a capital performance of Cherubini's overture, "Les Abencérages," and some other interesting orchestral numbers, among which Liszt's magnificent instrumentation of the immortal *Adagio Cantabile* from Beethoven's Pianoforte Trio in B flat, Op. 97, was decidedly the most effective.

—The Italian opera brought out nothing new last week. Col. Mapleson announced at his benefit, amidst the heartiest applause, that he had concluded arrangements with Mme. Gerster and Mme. Christine Nilsson for their appearance in New York in the coming fall, and that new contracts had been signed with Messrs. Campanini, Del Puente, and Galassi, and, last but not least, with Signor Arditi.——The last concert of the New York Philharmonic Club introduced a programme of decided merit which was excellently rendered. In reviewing the work of the year the club may be congratulated upon a marked improvement both in their selections and in their style of playing. Their ensemble is in every respect more vigorous and more finely shaded than last year. Their selections were vastly superior to those of former seasons.

—Karl Emil Franzos, after Sacher-Masoch the most conspicuous of the small group of German writers known as "Turgeneff's Disciples," has just published an interesting study on the history of German surnames, especially those of Jews. The difference between the names of German Christians and German Jews is due to the circumstance that those borne by the latter were, to a large extent, decreed to the ancestors of the present bearers by the Government. It is well known that a century ago the Jews of Eastern Europe, as other eastern nations are still, were without family names, "Isaac the son of Jacob" serving every social and, among themselves, business purpose. When, then, a government required a list of its subjects with a view to military duty and a poll-tax, the cases of mistaken identity must, under this system, have been inconveniently numerous. In 1782–83, therefore, shortly after the incorporation of the provinces of Galicia and Bukowina, the Austrian War Department received orders to provide the inhabitants of these districts with family names, beginning with the Jews. The countries were divided into districts, for each of which a commission was appointed with instructions to journey from place to place, and to force upon each male married Jew the choice of a name. In case any one refused to choose, the commission was to select a name for him. The announcement of the decree caused a panic among many of the emperor's Jewish subjects, but there was no possibility of nonconformity. So great was their abhorrence to joining a "heathen" name to their own "holy" and traditional one that to this day many an orthodox Jew never uses his legal surname when it can be avoided. This aversion would, in many instances, be justified even if there were no religious reason for it; for the instructions given the commissions forbade at once the repetition of the same name in a given district, and the choice of common German names such as Schulze or Müller. As the source of most of his illustrations Herr Franzos has selected the journal of a commission for its sitting in the town of X. The first Jew called refuses to choose a name, and thereupon receives that of Weinstein, because in the places in which the commission had already sat the names of all stones and metals, domestic animals, flowers, mountains, and valleys had been chosen. The next Jew called received the name Blaustein, the third Grünstein, the fourth Steingrün, the fifth Steinblau, etc. These names are neither ugly nor disagreeably suggestive, but sometimes the commissioners were facetious and gave names like Küssmich and Misthaufen, which, the writer states, are still represented by well-to-do families. The great-grandfather of Franzos himself lived till 1770 in Nancy, where he was called Levert (*i.e.*, Levi). In that year he went to Podolia, where he founded a wax candle factory, being known among his Polish countrymen as "der Franzos." Accordingly, when required to choose a name, he answered that it was unnecessary to do so, for his family had for centuries borne that of Levert. "That's not true," was the official answer; "Jews have no family names." "But I came from France," was the reply; "the people here call me the Frenchman." "Then I call you Franzos too," answered the commissioner, and protestation was of no avail.

—In the recent death at St. Petersburg of Dr. Anton Schiefner, at the age of sixty-three, philological science has lost one of its ablest and most indefatigable workers. He was born in the city of Reval, studied law in St. Petersburg, went to Berlin in 1842, where his taste for linguistic, especially oriental, studies was formed, returned to St. Petersburg, where he taught for some time in one of its public schools, and was finally elected a member and librarian of the St. Petersburg Academy. To his literary industry he left numerous monuments, but as his name is not extensively known in this country we avail ourselves of Prof. Max Müller's obituary notice in the *Magazin für die Literatur des Auslandes*. At a time when the languages of the Caucasian provinces were of great interest to the Russian Government, Schiefner published (1856–1864) grammatical treatises on no less than six idioms. When the great northern traveller Castrén died, leaving unpublished his 'Nördliche Reisen und Forschungen,' Schiefner found time to publish this work. His remarkable industry and wonderful linguistic knowledge are further demonstrated by a glance at the six grammars of as many different tongues of the Russian Empire published by him between 1854 and 1858. Nor should it be forgotten that Schiefner published in 1852 the only German translation we have of the celebrated Finnish epic, 'Kalewala,' a work containing 22,793 verses, divided into

fifty *runot* or cantos ; and in 1859, also in German, ' Die Heldenlieder der Nimusinischen Tartaren.' But, meritorious as all these works are, they are by no means the chief basis of his reputation. His most lasting fame was achieved in his study of the Thibetan language and literature. The Hungarian Csoma de Körös first, in the year 1832, made the Thibetan language and literature accessible to European scholars, but Schiefner continued Csoma's work and brought out treasure after treasure from the rich Thibetan mines. He edited Vasilieff's ' Buddhismus ' in 1860, and in the columns of the *Mélanges Asiatiques* he published a large number of translations of Thibetan religious literature, especially from the 'Kanjoor,' a work containing in the original one hundred volumes. These translations from the canonical books of Buddhism give us quaint and primitive forms of fables and stories which have been carried into various countries by Buddhist priests and missionaries.

THE ARMY AND THE INDIANS.*

MR. MANYPENNY'S book is perhaps the most important contribution to the discussion of the vexed "Indian question" which has yet appeared. His own qualifications for writing it are of a high order. He was Commissioner of Indian Affairs during the whole of Mr. Pierce's Administration, and has ever since continued his familiarity with the history of the Indian tribes. A Democrat in polities and for many years editor of a leading political paper in Ohio, he had retired from active participation in public affairs till he was invited by President Hayes to take the chairmanship of the committee appointed under an act of Congress to treat with the Sioux in 1876. He is, therefore, free from any suspicion of political bias in favor of the civil administrations of the past twenty years, and may be considered as nearly impartial as any civilian can be.

It is necessary to bear in mind these personal relations of the author to parties and to the subject under investigation, because his book is really an arraignment of the Army in its dealings with the Indian tribes, although that purpose does not appear in the title-page. What may be considered the main proposition of the work is more general than this, for it asserts, what every candid investigator has been forced to admit, that the disturbances with the Indians, from the first white settlement on the continent till the present day, have been traceable to the aggressions of the civilized settlers. The long list of treaties made only to be broken, of dedications of territory to perpetual Indian use only to have it trespassed upon by squatters, of the unending repetitions of requests to the red men to "move on," each move being under the most solemn assurances that now a lasting home was secured for them—all this is brought out with great vigor, and a most humiliating picture is drawn of a Government powerful only in wronging weak tribes and never strong enough or willing to interpose firmly between the Indians and the encroachments of settlers and miners. Though all this is not new, it is presented with new force; and by making a continuous history of Indian affairs for two and a half centuries Mr. Manypenny has given cumulative effect to the shameful series of frauds and wrongs which constitutes the history of our dealings with the aborigines, the half-century of Quaker rule in Pennsylvania being the only period on which a just mind can linger with any satisfaction or comfort.

The novel feature of the book is, as we have said, its impeachment of the Army. The constantly-recurring debate over the question of transferring the Indians to army management is no doubt the cause of this treatise; and whether Mr. Manypenny's positions shall prove to be solidly supported or not, so able and fearless a discussion of the subject must be of great use in helping us to reach right conclusions. Silent contempt will be no answer to such an argument. The author and his work are of a calibre to enforce respect, and unless a more thorough and able handling than his own can be made to show that his criticism of the Army in its Indian work is unjust, his summing up of the facts must be expected to go far towards fixing public opinion. Mr. Manypenny fully recognizes the fact that officers of the Army have often been among the most useful and sincere friends of the Indian; but he separates the case of these from the general army spirit and policy as he finds it exhibited in the events of long periods taken together. He estimates the proportion of just men among army officers in dealing with the Indians to be about the same as those among frontier settlers, and asserts that the history shows that the military men have fully shared the feelings and the prejudices of the frontier. He asserts that they have been hasty and unjust in determining when Indians were hostile and in making war upon them. He alleges that in their war-making they have been cruel and even barbarous, wantonly slaughtering women and children, and permitting the soldiers to imitate the practices of the savages themselves.

If these were vague accusations or merely declamatory charges, we should not refer to them as needing serious notice; but they are supported by an array of apparently authenticated facts, and by the analysis of the origin of war after war, of such a sort as to make a very formidable indictment, to which a cool and well-considered reply should be made, if reply is possible. To show that Mr. Manypenny does not stop at subordinates in his strictures, it is only necessary to notice some of the points made in his criticism. He charges, for instance, that the site of Leavenworth was seized in open violation of treaty stipulations, under the eye and with the direct assistance and protection of the military commander stationed there. He charges that General Hancock, in 1867, made war upon the Kiowas and Comanches when they were living peaceably according to their treaty stipulations, the General taking the assertions of a few unprincipled scoundrels as proof that the Indians had begun hostilities. In support of this he quotes the report of the Peace Commission of 1868, of which General Sherman was the head. He charges that General Carleton had previously (in 1862) adopted barbarous methods of dealing with the Apaches, ordering no flags of truce to be recognized, no surrenders received, but "all Indian men to be killed whenever and wherever you can find them." The policy of extermination is declared to be plainly avowed in Carleton's despatches to his superiors. He charges that General Sheridan refused an interview which the Indians requested at Fort Dodge in 1868, or to hear their story in regard to the failure to fulfil the treaties with them, though they were in extreme destitution; yet he accepted the irresponsible statements of interested parties as a basis for reporting officially that "these Indians require to be soundly whipped, the ringleaders in the present trouble hung, their ponies killed, and such destruction of their property made as will render them very poor." He alleges that the proof is now complete that the Cheyenne village of Black Kettle was in no respect hostile when it was attacked, and its inhabitants of both sexes and all ages nearly exterminated under Sheridan's orders. He reviews Colonel Baker's attack upon the Piegans with the same damaging conclusions which the Indian Commission under Mr. Brunot reached. He asserts that the invasion of the Black Hills country was in open violation of treaty, and was instigated by the military officers on the frontier; that the troubles which followed, including the destruction of a Cheyenne village under the chief "Hump," were caused by wanton aggression on our side, as was the war with Sitting Bull, made terribly memorable by the fate of Custer and his command. He analyzes also the evidence in the case of the destruction of Dull Knife's band of Cheyennes, who were starved at Fort Robinson, lured into an attempt to escape, and killed to the last man. He insists that the official correspondence shows that from the highest officers of the Army downward the responsibility for a wrong and cruel policy must be shared, and that, either avowedly or impliedly, their general aim has been the speedy extermination of the Indians

All this being supported by so skilful an array of documentary evidence, it is impossible to read it without feeling that it can only be satisfactorily answered by some one as familiar with the internal history of the Army and its affairs as he is with the details of the Indian administration. But Mr. Manypenny seems to us to fail to draw with sufficient clearness the line between the treatment of a savage enemy in open war and in the ordinary administration of affairs near a military post. Many an officer who might sincerely desire to save and to improve the Indian might also hold with sincerity the opinion that when once hostilities are begun no quarter could properly be given. That such theories tend to abuse and to cruelty is undoubtedly true, and this book is a challenge to the discussion of the subject which should be accepted without reserve, and with a purpose of clearly understanding and defining the duty of civilized soldiers in dealing with such tribes as still remain within our borders.

The general topic of the relations of the nation to the aborigines is one of the hopeless things which constantly attract and as constantly baffle attempts at solution. All struggles between different races are guided by prejudice and passion more than by reason. The foreigner is always wrong, and nearly as much so in the eyes of an Englishman or an American as in those of the Chinese. We quickly hear and know of an Indian raid on the frontiersman's cabin. We do not hear of the aggressions upon reservations, the robbery and murder of Indians, and of all the other crimes which investigation has shown to be the constant antecedents of Indian wars. To this day we thrill with the story of the Mo-

* 'Our Indian Wards. By George W. Manypenny, Commissioner of Indian Affairs from March, 1853, until March, 1857, and Chairman of the Sioux Commission of 1876.' Cincinnati : Robert Clarke & Co. 8vo, pp. 436.

hawk attack upon Schenectady, but we read with composure of Captain Mason's slaughter of the Pequods. De Tocqueville seems to have touched the root of the matter when he said that as between such races the alternative is amalgamation or separation, and separation generally means extermination of a weaker race. Yet it is none the less an imperative duty to expose all the wickedness of our national methods of dealing with poor and dependent tribes. The book before us does not attempt to point out a remedy. Its scope is limited to a bold exposure of what the author believes to be the proved facts.

RUSSIA AND ENGLAND.*

THIS book is attracting considerable attention in London on account of its authorship. O. K. is a Russian lady resident in London, and a member of the family of the Kiréeffs. Her brother, Nicholas Kiréeff, was the first of the Russian volunteers killed during the Servian war, and this book reveals that O. K. is a person inspired with the same enthusiasm as that which impelled her brother to a hero's grave. She has been deeply touched by the miseries endured by the Slavs in bondage to the Turk, but has also perceived that the only obstacle to their speedy emancipation is the hatred and suspicion of Russia which prevail in England. To this hatred and suspicion the bloody Russo-Turkish war was entirely due; from the same ignoble causes the area of emancipated land secured by the Treaty of San Stefano was much curtailed by the Treaty of Berlin; and unless they can be removed, every advance towards the liberation of those people still groaning under Turkish tyranny must be made through a sea of blood. To bring about a better understanding, then, between Russia and England is the object which O. K. has set before herself, and she possesses at least one qualification indispensable for so difficult a task—she has acquired a truly remarkable mastery over the English language. Mr. Froude remarks, in the preface with which he introduces her book to the English reader, that "as to execution and workmanship no foreigner who has attempted to write in the English language has ever, to my knowledge, shown more effective command of it. O. K. plays with our most complicated idioms, and turns and twists and points her sarcasms with a skill which many an accomplished English authoress might despair of imitating." For example, what could be more neatly put than the following retort to Mr. Forbes's denunciation of the "favoritism" which prevails in the Russian army?

"Englishmen, of course, who never have any little difficulties between the Horse Guards and the War Office, and who select their commander-in-chief not because he is a Royal Highness, but solely because he is the greatest military genius in the land, cannot understand the existence of such a thing as favoritism in the army."

But, in addition to pungency of retort, O. K. brings to her task a very complete knowledge of the subject, and an eloquence born of enthusiasm and deep convictions. Whether or not she will succeed in the philanthropic task she has undertaken is hard to say. We think not; and for this reason: English Russophobia (for it is confined to England; neither Ireland nor Scotland is subject to it) is as truly a superstition as was the belief in witches. Such superstitions do not yield either to reason or to fact directly urged against them. They seem to melt away, no one can say how. The English, as a nation, are peculiarly liable to these unworthy panics. Among Mr. Cobden's political pamphlets there is one entitled "The Three Panics," which describes an absolutely groundless paroxysm of terror into which England was thrown on three successive occasions by the notion that the French Government was about to invade the country. It was in vain that sane people, like Mr. Cobden and a few others, produced whole masses of facts to show that the French Government entertained no such intention; and that even if they did, they had no means for carrying such an intention into effect. All that they obtained in requital for their endeavors was the dislike and distrust of their countrymen, and the accusation of being "unpatriotic," "French agents," and the like. The great majority of the nation called aloud upon the Government of the day to protect them from these imaginary terrors. Millions of money were expended on perfectly useless fortifications; and but for the fixed determination of the Emperor Louis Napoleon *not* to quarrel with Great Britain, it is not improbable that the two nations might have drifted into war. The terror with which Englishmen once regarded France they have now transferred to Russia. Terror naturally engenders hatred; and the strength and popularity of Lord Beaconsfield's government have been largely due to the fact that they have stimulated these popular feelings to the uttermost.

This antipathy to her country O. K. hopes to remove, at least in part, by the publication of this book. She shows what was plain to all men, the British Jingo excepted, that it was the Russian people who dragged a reluctant Government into the Russo-Turkish war. She relates the repeated and desperate endeavors of the Russian Government to maintain the peace down to that wondrous device of a perfectly meaningless Protocol, which, however, Lord Derby could not summon up the courage to sign until he had taken elaborate precautions to prevent any meaning being slipped into it surreptitiously after his signature had been appended. There are, according to O. K., two Russias in Russia—the Russia of St. Petersburg and the Russia of Moscow. The former is a sophisticated Russia, the denizens of which answer to the loungers in London clubs and West-End pavements. They cared little or nothing what happened to their kindred groaning under Turkish cruelty and rapacity, and they hung like a clog impeding the action of the Government. But the Russia of St Petersburg was finally overborne and carried away by the might of righteous wrath and enthusiasm which proceeded from the Russia of Moscow.

"Rightly," says O. K., "to understand the genuine spontaneity of the national Slavonic movement which forced our Government into a war at a time when they were notoriously unprepared for such an enterprise, it was necessary to have resided in Russia when the news of the rising of the Christians in the Balkans stirred the national heart to its depths. Whatever doubts might prevail outside Russia, no one, be he ever so prejudiced, who witnessed the explosion of national and religious enthusiasm which shook Russia from her centre to her circumference, could deny the reality and spontaneity of the all-prevailing sentiment, the fervor of which our officials in vain endeavored to abate. Even the English ambassador was impressed by the unprecedented spectacle of a torrent of enthusiasm sweeping away an entire people."

O. K. then proceeds to extract copiously from Lord Augustus Loftus's despatches to Lord Derby, describing the universal excitement, which could not fail to compel the Government to adopt a policy in harmony with its own desires. It will be a lasting disgrace affixed to Lord Beaconsfield and his colleagues that, possessing as they did proofs which they could not question of the Emperor Alexander's earnest desire for peace, they never ceased from studiously misrepresenting his motives, both in their own public speeches and in the columns of the ministerial journals. The most signal example of these practices occurred immediately after the divulging of the conditions of the peace arranged at San Stefano. Just as the Russian armies were crossing the Pruth, the Government of the Emperor made known to Lord Derby the conditions of peace which they intended to exact at the close of the war. On the fall of Plevna the nature of these conditions was again laid before the British Government, and on both occasions the British Government expressed its gratification at the moderation of the Russian demands. The Treaty of San Stefano adhered exactly to these conditions. None the less, Lord Beaconsfield and his colleagues, withholding the fact that these conditions had been known to them for seven months, and had actually gained their approval, did not hesitate to raise a great cry of amazement at their exorbitant and unexpected character. They pretended to be hugely frightened by them. They declared that the liberties of Europe were placed in peril—that international law, the sacredness of treaties, and heaven knows what else, had all received so grievous a shock that but for the providential existence of Lord Beaconsfield's Ministry they would have perished irredeemably. They called out the Reserves, amid the plaudits of the British Jingos; they solemnly played out the ridiculous farce of bringing seven thousand Sepoys to Malta in order to strike terror into the hearts of the men who had crossed the Balkans in the depth of winter and captured four entire armies—and ended by wriggling out of an untenable position by means of two secret agreements.

On all these phases of the Eastern question O. K. is extremely pungent, and not a little amusing.

"What amuses us," she says, "is the delusion that Russians are to be frightened into compliance with Lord Beaconsfield's dictates by the sudden apparition of your Indian soldiers. Chinese rather like sham demonstrations of this sort, and employ pasteboard dragons and shields painted with horrible demons to frighten European soldiers. Why should Lord Beaconsfield imitate the Chinese? . . . Surely no serious Englishman can believe that Russia will yield to England that which she believes to be unjust because Lord Beaconsfield has added to the forces of the Empress forty thousand Reserves and six thousand Sepoys! We knew before these 'spirited demonstrations' that England was rich, and we also knew the precise limits of your military resources. Why do you forget our history? Napoleon took Moscow, but he did not conquer Russia; nor did England with all her allies succeed in doing more than

* 'Russia and England from 1876 to 1880. A Protest and an Appeal. By O. K.' London: Longmans, Green & Co.

capture Sebastopol. Vulgar insults and ridiculous threats do a great deal of harm, but not in the sense some people imagine."

In truth, neither Lord Beaconsfield nor his colleagues ever had the remotest intention of going to war with Russia. They never considered their foreign policy in the light of its practical results either upon the Christian races in Turkey or upon the Russians. Their policy was merely a theatrical exhibition wherewith they hoped—and, as the result has shown, not without good cause—to gull the simple mind of the British Jingo into a profound belief in their valor and determination.

Elihu Burritt. A memorial volume, containing a sketch of his life and labors, with selections from his writings and lectures, and extracts from his private journals in Europe and America. Edited by Charles Northend. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880.)—Mr. Burritt was a characteristic product of his age in two striking particulars: he was a self-made man and a philanthropist. He will, doubtless, be longest remembered under the name of the Learned Blacksmith, by which he first became known From the time when, after a hard day's study, he translated the first fifteen lines of Homer with only the aid of a dictionary, and, going out for a walk, stopped to look up at Yale College "with a kind of defiant feeling," he devoted himself to the acquisition of languages with an industry, perseverance, and singleness of aim which resulted in his being able to read in an extraordinary number of them, and made him in the popular mind perhaps the most prominent example of a self-made student. In this way his life has been an encouragement, and, in a certain sense, has served as an ideal, to many young men; yet he did not have a remarkable linguistic faculty (he says that even his taste for languages was acquired), and his knowledge, excepting in so far as he himself derived satisfaction from it, was of no use to him in his practical labors.

He was by nature a philanthropist, and spent the last thirty years of his mature life in advancing those movements which have for their end the general welfare of the race. He was especially interested in the Peace agitation, which aimed at establishing an organized system for the settlement of international disputes by arbitration. He was instrumental in allaying the war feeling at the time of the Oregon controversy, in founding the League of Universal Brotherhood, and in convening the first Peace Congress at Brussels, in 1848. Indeed, the accounts in this volume involve the whole history of the successive Peace Congresses, at most of which he attended. They reveal, too, sometimes with considerable *naïveté*, the attitude of such men as Sir Robert Peel, Henry Clay, and Lamartine toward the movement, which, however, could enlist John Bright and Cobden in its support. It is difficult to estimate the practical effect of this agitation (the Geneva arbitration is here claimed as a result of it); but, to whatever extent public opinion may have been influenced by it, Mr. Burritt, who lived to see the Crimean War, the Civil War, and the wars of Germany, must have recognized its little consequence in practical politics. Probably Mr. Burritt's interest in this cause, in connection with his Jeffersonian ideas, explains his approval of the plan to purchase the Southern slaves by money derived from a sale of the public lands, and the somewhat doubtful sympathy he seems to have felt with the North in the Rebellion. The only object for which he worked with success was the establishment of ocean penny-postage. He began the agitation for it in 1847, and lived to see it introduced This was a real service to mankind, like that of Sir Rowland Hill, and for it he deserves a grateful acknowledgment.

The latter portion of this volume is taken up with selections from Mr. Burritt's literary works, which numbered over thirty volumes. They are all of transitory interest, unless the entertaining sketches of life in England, as he saw it in a foot-tour through various parts of the country, be excepted. He had no literary skill. If one considers the circumstances of his life and education, it is creditable to him that he did so well; but, measured on the absolute scale of excellence, he displayed no literary gift except a sense of rhetorical effects, and no originality of thought. He had little poetical discrimination, and his statement that Shakspere "made the heroes of the siege of Troy more Greek in mien, mind, form, and stature than Homer could paint them," does not speak well for his classical attainments. It is fortunate that his claim to remembrance does not lie in his literary performance. It is rather as a man, interested in humane works and devoting his whole life to them, that he merits and will receive recognition. In this view he was as attractive in his public career as he was amiable in private life. In both of these relations this volume, which is a brief, simple, and sympathetic biography, does him ample justice.

The Law of Hotel Life; or, The Wrongs and Rights of Host and Guest. By R. Vashon Rogers, jr. (San Francisco: Sumner, Whitney & Co.; Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1879.)—Mr. Rogers is a Canadian lawyer who may fairly be said to have invented a new species of literature. He is the writer of books, of which 'The Law of Hotel Life' is a good specimen, intended to furnish useful legal information in an attractive form. Instead of presenting the law applicable to innkeeper and guest in the usual form of abstract propositions fortified by citations of authorities, he gives it a dramatic origin and interest by introducing to us half a dozen characters, whose adventures and conversation suggest the legal discussion which is necessary for his purpose. Chapter i, for instance, which is entitled "A Common Inn and Innkeeper," begins in this entirely unprofessional way: "The last kiss was given—the last embrace over—and, amid a storm of hurrahs and laughter and a hailstorm of old slippers and uncooked rice, we dashed away from my two-hours' bride's father's country mansion in the new family carriage, on our wedding-tour." This opening reminds us of nothing in strictly legal literature with the exception of some of the more imaginative work of a recent reporter of the decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States, who once began a report in this manner: "Among the festal anniversaries of the city of Providence, R.I., is that known as 'Commencement Day.' Upon this occasion Brown University gives its degrees, and citizens and strangers throng the town." The method, though objectionable in a reporter, is not at all so in the case of a treatise of the sort which Mr. Rogers has aimed at producing. The first day's drive of the happy pair (the husband is, of course, a lawyer) ends at an inn, and here begins the legal discussion. The landlord gives them a room, muttering that if they do not like it they may leave and go elsewhere, which the husband points out is, as a legal position, perfectly sound, inasmuch as a landlord is not bound, under the decision in the eighth volume of Meeson & Welsby, etc., etc., to do more than provide reasonable and proper accommodation, and need not give his guests the precise rooms they may select. In the same gentle and seductive manner are we led through the pages of Mr. Rogers's little book to consider the law relating to accidents in hotels, dogs in hotels, wagers, games, safes, baggage, fire, burglary, notices to quit, and a thousand other matters which are more or less connected with his general subject.

A law-book managed in this way may, like any other law-book, be well or ill done, and Mr. Rogers's work is, on the whole, very thorough, besides being, on account of its novel form, frequently very amusing. The law of hotels, except so far as it has been altered by statute, is precisely the same that it was in the days of Coke, although the character of the modern hotel is very different from that of the old-fashioned inn. The modern hotel is both a place of shelter and entertainment for the travelling public, and is also a sort of public club-house, under the roof of which anybody, traveller or not, can be furnished with all the necessities and luxuries of existence on paying for them. These establishments are frequently owned by corporations, and, when not so, by some large capitalist who, unlike the old-fashioned landlord, exercises no direct supervision over the management, but delegates it entirely to agents and servants. Under these circumstances the courts in modern times have wisely shown a great reluctance to relax the old common-law rule imposed on hotel-keepers, which, notwithstanding occasional inconveniences, have proved their value by the experience of many generations. We are sorry not to find in Mr. Rogers's book any discussion of the great Jew question which has agitated American hotel-keepers for the past few summers. We are inclined to think that this would have to be settled as a matter of law by very simple considerations. A hotel-keeper, as Mr. Rogers points out, is obliged to receive all proper persons who apply for admission. So, too, is a carrier of passengers. It is generally held, however, that a carrier of passengers may classify those whom he transports, by sex, race, etc. This would be manifestly out of the question in a hotel, as no separation is possible. A Jew, therefore, as a Jew, could hardly be excluded from Manhattan Beach or Saratoga without giving him a good cause of action. Whether, under the practice prevailing in New York, he would also be entitled to remedy, by way of mandamus and injunction, we do not undertake to say.

A Class-Book History of England. Illustrated with numerous woodcuts and historical maps. Compiled for pupils preparing for the Oxford and Cambridge local examinations, the London Universities' matriculation, and for the higher classes of elementary schools. By the Rev. David Morris, M.A. Lond. Fifteenth thousand. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879. 12mo, pp. 532.)—This is a very useful compilation.

The editor has followed the best authorities, and has chosen his material with good judgment and put it together with skill. The most valuable feature of it, as compared with other similar works, is the care and clearness with which the history of the most important legislation in England is sketched—for example (p. 196), the Statute of Fines and the abolition of *Maintenance*, in the reign of Henry VII. A good deal of space is given also to those details of manners and customs which may be made very instructive when properly combined and treated in the light of social history, but which, as usually given, are dull and unedifying reading. They are, on the whole, very well treated here, and the illustrations of costume, arms, etc., are valuable. The tone of the book is that of a believer in the constitution and Church of England as now established. The author appears to have rather more sympathy with Charles I. than we have. He assumes (p. 245) the complicity of Mary in the Babington plot, which we suppose to be far from proved. His tone with regard to the American Revolution is unexceptionable, although we cannot understand what he means by the statement, in speaking of the principle of taxation without representation, that "as they were not represented properly in their own assemblies, over whose acts the Crown had a veto, they denied the right of England to tax them" (p. 440). In speaking of the feudal incidents (p. 52) it ought to be stated that the right of *Primer-seisin* was confined to the king.

The wood cuts, although instructive, are coarse. The maps are better; clear and accurate. The map of the English possessions in France in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries (p. 148) is particularly good, and makes the changes in dominion during this period clearer than any other with which we are acquainted. But why do we meet with such hybrid English as "Comté of Champagne," and that, too, by the side of "D'y of Burgundy"? There are abundant genealogical tables and lists of leading events, leading writers, battles, etc.; but we miss lists of contemporary sovereigns, also archbishops of Canterbury, prime ministers, lord chancellors, and chief-justices. There is no index.

Eyesight: Good and Bad. A Treatise on the Exercise and Preservation of Vision. By Robert Brudenell Carter, F.R.C.S., etc. With numerous illustrations. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1880. Pp. viii.–265.)—This book is intended by the author to convey to the public "precepts and injunctions which ought to be universally known and understood." The intelligent reader who desires to master the subject from its popular side—that is, entirely without reference to the use of medicines or surgical instruments—will find a perfectly satisfactory account of the structure and optical properties of the eyes; the forms and use of lenses; the defects or diseases dependent on the optical properties and requiring the use of lenses, as squinting, near-sight, far-sight, and astigmatism; with a good deal more about weak sight, color-blindness, and the care of the eyes.

Those who are averse to diagrams will perhaps skip the early chapters. The latter part of the book, however, contains a good many remarks and anecdotes which impart a very "readable" character, with a great deal of information which we are sure will be highly valued not only by all who have had to be careful of their own eyes, but by superintendents of education, and, we may add, by general practitioners of medicine. The book is *new* in the best sense, and presents in a popular yet accurate form the most recent advances in science. We may mention, among many points that have taken our notice, the recommendation to give near-sighted children glasses to be worn *constantly*, sometimes one pair for all purposes, and sometimes one for far and one for near objects; a case of near-sight producing in a hard student symptoms attributed to brain-disease, which threatened to ruin his career, but were cured by glasses; advice in regard to cultivating a habit of observation; the preservation of sight by use; unrecognized near-sight and far-sight in children; the choice of spectacles; the worthlessness of green glass as a protective; the choice of lamps, burners, oils, and screens; and contrivances for saving visual effort in writing—book-holders, type-writers, frames for writing in the dark, etc.

Lightning Conductors: Their History, Nature, and Mode of Application. By Richard Anderson, F.C.S., F.G.S. (London: E. & F. M. Spon. 1879.)—In America such a book as this would be liable to the suspicion of being a rather cleverly written advertisement. The *historical* part of the work leads up to a chapter devoted to the so-called "system of protecting buildings" of an English manufacturer of lightning conductors and their fixtures. The only valuable features of this "system," and the only important scientific principles enunciated by the author, have been recognized and acted upon in this country for nearly fifty years.

The *Athenæum*, in noticing Mr. Anderson's "history," refers to Franklin's experiment with the kite, which demonstrated the identity of lightning with electricity, and finds cause for "satisfaction in behalf of the Old World" that "this triumph of experimental sagacity" was anticipated by "an experiment *made at the suggestion of Buffon* by M. Dalibard." The facts are that Franklin suggested the experiment tried by M. Dalibard in a letter dated July 29, 1750, to Peter Collinson of London, which Mr. Collinson communicated to the English public. This letter, which contained an account of many interesting experiments, having been (Mr. Anderson says at the instance of the Count de Buffon) translated into French and printed in Paris, attracted the attention of the King, who greatly applauded Messrs. Franklin and Collinson, and, according to the letter of the Abbé Mazéas to Dr. Stephen Hales, dated St. Germain, May 20, 1752, and printed in the 'Philosophical Transactions,' "these applauses of his Majesty having excited in Messieurs De Buffon, D'Alibard, and De Lor a desire of verifying the conjectures of Mr. Franklin upon the analogy of thunder and electricity, they prepared themselves for making the experiment." The Dalibard experiment was not made until May 10, 1752, nearly two years after Franklin proposed it, and was then performed by the method which Franklin prescribed.

Verg l. By H. Nettleship. In "Classical Writers," edited by John Richard Green. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880.)—Mr. Nettleship is well known for his studies in Vergil, having assisted Mr. Coningtон in preparing the third volume of his edition, and having since published some valuable papers containing the results of his subsequent researches. The present hand-book gives a good account of the poet and his writings, with a few pages upon the general characteristics of his style, and the estimate formed of his poetry in his lifetime and soon after. Some attention is paid to the chronology of the Bucolic poems. Their composition is assigned to 43–37 B.C., reaching over a period of nearly seven years. But it is a question whether the few and uncertain historical allusions in these poems furnish sufficient ground for rejecting, as so many do, the statements found in Donatus and Servius, that Vergil began the Eclogues at the age of twenty-eight and completed them in the space of three years. The chronological order is not essentially different from that given by Voss in his edition of the Eclogues. In the chapter on the 'Æneid' Mr. Nettleship aims to show that Vergil attempted a more difficult task than any Roman poet before him had ever ventured upon, when he undertook to write a national epic based upon the Æneas legend, and that, so far from being a mere imitator, he displayed great original power in handling his materials, and "produced work that marks the climax of a particular kind of poetry." While his estimate of the 'Æneid' is undoubtedly too high, it is more nearly just than that of the German and many English critics, by whom it has been so much underrated.

Mr. Nettleship is in full sympathy with his author, and has the faculty of imparting to the reader something of his own interest in his subject. He writes in a clear and simple style, and treats with great fairness opinions that do not coincide with his own. The book offers in an attractive form just the aid needed for an intelligent reading of the poet.

**** Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Bellows (Rev. H. W.), William Ellery Channing, swd.	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	$0 50
Blanqui (J. A.), History of Political Economy in Europe	" " "	2 50
Brandes (G.), Lord Beaconsfield	(Chas. Scribner's Sons)	1 50
Brooks (Rev. C. T.), William Ellery Channing	(Roberts Bros.)	1 50
Burnett (F. H.), Recollections and Opinions of an Old Pioneer	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Carlos (E. S.), The Sidereal Messenger of Galileo Galilei	(Pott, Young & Co.)	
Channing (W. H.), Life of Wm. Ellery Channing, D.D.	(Am. Unit. Assoc.)	1 00
Cheerful Words from George MacDonald	(D. Lothrop & Co.)	1 00
Cherbuliez (V.), Stroke of Diplomacy, swd.	(D. Appleton & Co.)	20
Coan (Rev. T.), Adventures in Patagonia	(Dodd, Mead & Co.)	1 25
Cory (W.), Guide to Modern English History, Part I.	(Henry Holt & Co.)	2 00
Crosby (W. O.), Contributions to the Geology of Eastern Massachusetts, swd.	(Boston)	3 00
D'Audiffret (E.), Notes d'un Globe-Trotter, swd.	(F. W. Christern)	
Democracy: an American Novel	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 00
Dossi (C.), Goccie d'Inchiostro, swd.	(Roma)	
Duff (R. F.), The Lusiad of Camoens	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Harrison (Rev. J. B.), Certain Dangerous Tendencies in American Life	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	1 25
Hempel (Dr. C. J.), Schiller's Complete Works, 2 vols., illustrated, new ed.	(I. Kohler)	5 00
Irving (W.), Knickerbocker's New York	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	2 50
Jackson (Rev. S.), Alaska, illustrated	(Dodd, Mead & Co.)	1 50
Janvier (C. A.), Practical Keramics for Students	(Holt & Co.)	2 60
Jones (H.), Card Essays, etc.	" "	1 00
Littell's Living Age, Jan.-Mar. 1880	(Littell & Co.)	

Lonsdale (Margaret), Sister Dora.....(Roberts Bros.) $1 25
MacColl (Rev. M.), The Ober-Ammergau Passion Play, new ed.....(Pott, Young & Co.)
Ommanney (Rev. G. D. W.), Early History of the Athanasian Creed, " " "
Oncken (W.), Allgemeine Geschichte, Parts 11-16: France, Ancient Rome, Russia, Ancient India, swd.....(B. Westermann & Co.)
Oxenham (H. N.), Recollections of Ober-Ammergau in 1871.....(Pott, Young & Co.)
Peabody (Miss E. P.), Reminiscences of Wm. Ellery Channing.....(Roberts Bros.) 2 00
Rylance (Rev. J. H.), Lectures on Social Questions.....(Thos. Whittaker) 75
Scribner's Monthly, Vol. XIX.....(Scribner & Co.) 3 00
Spalding (Rev. J. L.), Religious Mission of the Irish People.....(Cath. Pub. Soc.) 1 50
Studies of Irving.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 00
Thanksgiving, and Other Poems.....(Geo. Routledge & Sons) 1 25
Wood (Rev. J. G.), Insects Abroad.....(Geo. Routledge & Sons)
Woolson (Miss C. F.), Rodman the Keeper: Southern Sketches.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Young (J. R.), Around the World with General Grant, Parts 1-20.....(Am. News Co.) 10 00
Zola (E.), Nana.....(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 1 00

Fine Arts.

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF DESIGN—FIFTY-FIFTH ANNUAL EXHIBITION.—I.

THE pictures at the Academy divide of themselves into two groups: the work of Academicians and others in sympathy with these, and that of the "new men" whose names have appeared in the Academy for the past four years only. The line which divides the two is so distinct as to prevent this apparently rough classification from being unreasonably loose or fanciful, and, though there are exceptions on either side, they are neither so important nor so noticeable as usual. It is this evident contrast which is the most satisfactory thing about the exhibition as a whole; the circumstance that the "new men" are doing work so different from that which is intimately associated with the Academy as to be intrinsically hostile to it in both spirit and method, attests progress and inspires hope, spite of various obvious qualifications. Otherwise the exhibition, taken as a whole, indicates the reverse of progress; or, if not positive retrogression, at any rate a severe and almost stern disposition on the part of the principal exhibitors to preserve the identity so long maintained, and, since the advent of the "new men," so sensitively guarded. This is the general impression that one gets, and it is quite as strong as that left by the evidences of progress, so that the elation excited by the exhibition of 1877, and more or less justified since, receives a kind of check, slight it may be, but altogether palpable. Perhaps after all, one reflects, the theory and practice of art in vogue at the Academy from its foundation have an ingrained sturdiness that makes it idle to look to any transformation of them. If this be true it is well to know it, and from this point of view it is not impossible to feel grateful to a hanging committee which has clearly done its best to force the fact upon public attention. Some gratitude, similarly, is due to certain Academicians, not at all representative of the Academy, such as Mr. Inness and Mr. La Farge, who have failed to send anything to the exhibition, or Mr. Martin, who sends only a study from nature, very agreeable as such, but without much pictorial effort or ambition. Mr. Winslow Homer's negro character portraiture and four canvases by Mr. Page count as noteworthy exceptions. The former is very clever, very real, and very sympathetic; Mr. Homer's own turn for picturesqueness finds an excellent ally in the almost aggressive picturesqueness of negro traits and aspect, and if it is singular that this should have been so long neglected, it is fortunate that it should have found its first serious interpreter in him; he seems, indeed, to have been so completely absorbed by it in his "A Visit from the Old Mistress" as to have left off when he had painted the negro figures, and to have abandoned the "old mistress" to her own devices, so that she seems to be trying to account for her presence a little awkwardly. Mr. Page's contributions are an agreeable surprise; it is some years since he has exhibited anything, and the absence of his work is always regrettable. These are used to "redeem" the northwest room, which is usually characterless, and they perform this service at an unfortunate sacrifice; "The Flight into Egypt" being hung so high that it is only possible to get the suggestion of a grave charm, and the others being in a constant shadow that is particularly unfavorable to their exaggerated low tone. The portrait of General Grant was painted immediately after the close of the war, and much of the color has already proved so treacherous that it looks unpleasantly dark; the uniform, for example, has lost its blue and is a disagreeable dull brown. But if the face and figure were ever more effective it must have been at one time a master-piece; it is a large and dignified work, such as few portraits even lay claim to being, and it is hardly fanciful to see in its lineaments and attitude the explanation of the career at the climax of which it was painted; so good a portrait of Grant at the present time would be interesting to compare with it.

What we may call the academic part of the exhibition has, however, few such exceptions as these. It is very adequately represented by the line of the south wall. To the visitor entering the main room from the corridor this presents the following succession: "The Tabouret," by E. Wood Perry; "Into the Sea," by A. F. Bellows; "A Forest Scene in New Jersey," by J. F. Cropsey; "Wilson G. Hunt," by D. Huntington; "The New England Shore," by W. Whittredge; "At the Spring," by H. A. Loop; "The Cranberry Harvest, Island of Nantucket," by Eastman Johnson; "At the Brookside," by James M. Hart; "The 'Longshoremen's Noon," by J. G. Brown; "Portrait of a Lady," by B. C. Porter; "The Coast of New England," by R. Swain Gifford; "A Mexican Portrait," by G. W. Maynard; and "Hanging Clothes," by J. N. Marble. Of these painters all but the last two and Mr. Porter, who is an associate, are Academicians. The series sweeps the gamut of the art of the Academy, rising to its highest pitch, perhaps, in Mr. Eastman Johnson's Nantucket picture, and sinking to its lowest, it may be, in Mr. Bellows's unaccountable performance. The point is, however, a fine one in either instance; Mr. Brown's 'longshoremen are formidable rivals of Mr. Johnson's cranberry pickers, and one is hardly disposed, on reflection, to single out any of Mr. Bellows's work as possessing demerit that is distinctive. Mr. Perry's young lady and her surroundings have an excellence that is depressing; one thinks of the infinite labor, the skill, the patience displayed in the picture, its careful drawing, its careful graduation of light, its careful composition, the thought and invention expended in getting the details together, and then of the result of it all; it is not exhilarating, and only the uneasy critic will endeavor to discover why its elaboration is not elegant and its skill not even cleverness, and why it has so obviously sought beauty on the one hand and reality on the other, and is so far from being either beautiful or real. Mr. Brown's canvas has an air of resolute realism which is, however, transitory, and is dissipated after a brief inspection. His "realism" has indeed made notable progress within a few years, and has not only lost a good deal of the sentimentality which used to be the prevailing characteristic of his work, but makes an evident effort at "painting the thing"; his studies in the last exhibition succeeded in this very hopefully, but, unhappily, in passing from a study to a "picture" his grasp on "the thing" is somehow loosened. So far, at all events, he has only reached the point where the average person thinks his figures very real, because they look very much as their originals appear to the average person, or as the latter fancies they would look if he should run across them; it is like the reality of Dickens's characters. This is a point, to be sure, at which it is commercially wise to pause, but which is considerably on the hither side of fine art.

Nevertheless there is some refreshment to be obtained from a canvas which at least seeks "realism" with enough force to avoid the poetic ideal towards which it is evident from his "At the Spring" Mr. Loop continues to labor. The mistake of confusing the attributes of this intrepidly recurrent young woman with even the poetry of prettiness is, perhaps, the most hopeless of all mistakes a painter can make, we should say; it being a defect of native susceptibility. Whether it is this or a merely visual defect that is responsible for the way in which the "gentle perspiration" of nature finds interpretation in Mr. James Hart's scumbling, and the glories of landscape in Mr. William Hart's glazing, across the way, is an enquiry for the curious. Mr. Cropsey's landscape signalizes a new departure, but is not otherwise happy. A new departure is the last thing Mr. Swain Gifford contemplates at present, it is evident, and we are beginning to wish for one in Mr. Gifford's case, and, we may add, since he is more or less of a "new man," to hope for one. Mr. Whittredge and Mr. Huntington betray no signs of discontent with what they have been doing for so long now, and a similar serenity in Mr. Johnson, to whom it is rather agreeable to return, is, perhaps, the worst thing to be said of his picture. It has the main "centre," and to say that it is the star picture of that portion of the exhibition of which we have been speaking is a kind of reciprocal characterization that is not inaccurate. The town of Nantucket lies in the distance by the sea-shore at the left, the cranberry-bog dotted with figures occupies the middle distance, behind it the ground rises good-naturedly to form a background, and overhead hangs a sky a trifle more leaden than it was meant to be, possibly. The "human element" comprises almost all the details, except the baskets, a chair in which Mr. Johnson's celebrated old man is sitting, and a sign-board bearing a legible warning to trespassers. Both sexes and a variety of ages are represented; the matter in hand is apparently pretty closely attended to, and there is no posing for effect on the part of anybody; there does not seem to be much going on; cranberry-picking is evidently not exciting, and you feel that though there is "no harm in it," it is not particularly picturesque. The picture is well painted—well enough painted, that is to say; Mr. Perry could undoubtedly point out some careless and clumsy touches here and there, and would certainly find a

painful lack of gradation in it; but upon the whole it is not very impressive, and it is perhaps possible to sum up its attractions in the negative epithet inoffensive. Mr. Johnson's position in American genre-painting is relatively a high one; his success in avoiding the defects of many of his rivals has always been marked: he is neither sentimental, nor sensational, nor stupid. Indeed, there are all sorts of things which he is not; what precisely he is it is rather difficult to discover, and accordingly it has been a popular custom for many years to enter judgment in his favor by default, as it were. A glance at Mr. Bierstadt's "Shore of the Turquoise Sea," in the same room, reminds one that popular errors far graver than this are possible, and recalls a vogue once very great, but now become little more than a memory.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 22, 1880.

The Week.

THE significant political events of the week have been the Massachusetts Republican Convention at Worcester and the New York Democratic Convention at Syracuse. There were, in fact, two conventions at the latter place, but Mr. John Kelly's was so manifestly perfunctory that it hardly deserves mention. Few, we think, will estimate the trading capacity of this snubbed and disregarded faction as equal, for the Presidential campaign, to what it displayed in the anti-Robinson canvass last fall; fewer still will expect the Cincinnati Convention to treat its pretensions to be the Simon-Pure Democracy of New York with respect or even with patience. The proceedings of the regular body of delegates were, though not free from gallery interruptions, as calculated and certain as if Mr. Tilden were not notoriously on the verge of total paralysis: The contested seats were disposed of in the usual manner, and a missionary from the Kelly convention bearing overtures of reconciliation and harmony was politely handed over to the Committee on Resolutions, from which he never returned. That Committee reported resolves with a long preamble affirming adhesion to the principles set forth at St. Louis "and approved by decisive popular majorities in 1876," insisting on the fraud of Mr. Hayes's election, declaring "the momentous issue" to be this "right of the people to exercise and enjoy an elective self-government without impediment by force or fraud," expressing emphatically the party's "continued confidence in the character, ability, and fitness of that distinguished citizen of New York" best named by designating him as "elected to the highest office in the people's gift," and, without instructing the delegates to Cincinnati, respectfully suggesting to the brethren there that they take such action as shall best present the momentous issue aforesaid.

The length and the style of this document, but for Mr. Tilden's senility and decrepitude, would seem to indicate that he had a hand in drawing it up; and the same might be said of the "resolves," which were only a programme—to wit, that the delegation should vote as a unit in accordance with the will of the majority, and should promptly suppress any attempt to dismember or divide it by contesting the seats of any portion of it. The Kelly preamble was as long-winded as its rival, but then it had some additional points to make, such as that the division in the ranks of the New York Democracy was a deplorable thing, and had resulted "almost solely from the determined and persistent efforts of one man to secure the Democratic nomination to the Presidency"; that Tilden had planned and effected the defeat of the regular Democracy in New York City in 1878, and forced an obnoxious gubernatorial nomination and invited defeat of it in 1879; that he has degraded the Democratic organization into "machines run for the interest of one man and his personal following"; that he is unfit for the Presidency, and while his election would be a national calamity his nomination would ensure a Republican triumph; finally, that his "record is not clear," being full of scandals, and his name "irretrievably connected with attempts to bribe electors" and with the cipher despatches. No mention was allowed of his having been elected President in 1876. The resolutions which followed this indictment of Mr. Tilden were of a general character except in reiterating the danger of nominating him.

There was nothing in the doings at Syracuse on either side that could not have been anticipated. Mr. Kelly constantly forgets the limits of his field as a Boss compared with that of his arch-enemy as a Machinist; to say nothing of Mr. Tilden's sentimental claims on his party, which still have a certain validity even if, as is undoubtedly the case, they have been greatly weakened by the revelations as to his personal integrity since the cry of fraud was first raised on his behalf. Both parties concede the decisive importance of New York in the coming struggle, and the Democrats must look in the face the fact that if New York is to be carried by machinery and not by character, Mr. Tilden's hand is on the lever, whether his own nomination be in view or that of some one to be designated by him.

The resolutions of the Massachusetts Republican Convention declare a steadfast adherence to the principles of the party, belief in an honest currency, in the inviolable sovereignty of the National Union, and the Government's duty of protecting the ballot in all national elections; hold that free and honest elections are essential to the stability of popular government; praise the President for his attempts at civil-service reform, but demand legislative enactments for "adequate and permanent security against the misuse of the public service as a machinery of party organization"; plead for sectional harmony, and denounce alike those who seek to reverse the settlements of the war, and those who seek "to revive past controversies for political effect"; warn conventions that the duty of supporting party candidates implies the corresponding duty of presenting such as are "acceptable to all Republicans"; charge the Massachusetts delegates to promote the nomination of a candidate having the requisite qualifications for the Presidency, the confidence of his party, and the respect of "other patriotic citizens," and call their attention (without binding their action) to a Republican statesman who answers this description—Senator George F. Edmunds. The only other candidate named was Secretary Sherman, who was incidentally applauded for his able management of the finances.

Senator Dawes presided, and delivered a prolix discourse signifying nothing, and speeches were made by Gen. Banks and Mr. Boutwell in favor of Grant. But these two worthy gentlemen for once seemed ill at ease, and Mr. Boutwell's peculiar rhetoric probably never sounded quite so flat in his own ears. He was briefly and pointedly answered by Mr. James Freeman Clarke, and so far recovered his equanimity as to move the unanimous adoption of the resolutions. These were a disappointment to the Young Republican element in the Convention, but certainly neither the Blaine nor the Grant men have any cause to be elated by them. Mr. Sherman's adherents were strong enough to be worth placating, and, combined with Mr. Edmunds's, gave a two-thirds vote to the Edmunds delegates chosen. It is clear that Massachusetts will be anti-Grant and anti-Blaine in the Chicago Convention, and that the State cannot be relied on to vote for either at the November election.

The following remarkable passages appeared in Mr. Boutwell's speech:

"We have four millions of black fellow-citizens in the South who are as truly deprived of their political and civil rights as were the early Christians that in the city of Rome herded in the sewers and catacombs till the barbarians of the North came down and gave them freedom and liberty of conscience at the point of the bayonet." . . . "One was Lincoln, who by his proclamation of emancipation gave them liberty; the other was Grant [applause], who by the power of his individual will took command of our armies, redeemed us from despair at Donelsonville in 1862, and crowned our efforts with triumph at Appomattox in April, 1865. [Applause.]"

It thus appears that we have nearly all been mistaken in supposing that General Grant in the late war bore a commission from the President of the United States, and suppressed the rebellion in obedience to the Constitution. He did it *mero motu*, and we shall not be surprised to hear the boomsters say before long that he "deigned" to do it. It is also a surprise to some, at least, to learn

that the early Christians sought refuge in the Roman sewers, and that it was the barbarians who let them out, and that the bayonet was in use at that early period. Mr. Boutwell appears to be as strong in history as he is in astronomy.

There has been a long debate over the Geneva Award in the Senate, in which Messrs. Thurman, Conkling, Carpenter, Blaine, and Edmunds have all taken part. It is impossible that any new arguments should be produced on the subject, and the numerous plans now before the Senate for disposing of the balance in the hands of the Government have so confused matters that it is difficult to form any idea as to what the result will be. On Monday Mr. Carpenter exposed Mr. Blaine's ignorance of the law, and Mr. Blaine laid bare Mr. Carpenter's inconsistent "record" on the subject of the insurance claims. In the course of the debate Mr. Blaine compared the business of marine insurance to that of gambling as formerly practised at Homburg, and there was a good deal of rather ludicrous discussion about the genuineness of a letter alleged to have been written by Caleb Cushing. Mr. Cushing, as everybody who is familiar with the history of his connection with the Alabama claims knows, took different sides of the question as to the ownership of the money at different times, and one of his last appearances in connection with the case was his production by General Butler before one of the numerous committees that have examined the subject, to give testimony as an impartial witness familiar with the course of events at Geneva in favor of the war-premium claimants. He performed this, as he performed all professional duties, with consummate skill and adroitness; but his name has hardly been of much value since as an authority upon the proper distribution of the award.

The House Foreign-Affairs Committee has reported a joint resolution calling for the abrogation of the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty of 1850. This treaty provided for a sort of joint protectorate by the United States and Great Britain over any canal that might be cut through the isthmus by way of the river San Juan, both governments agreeing never to erect any fortification on any such canal, and never to assume any dominion over any part of Central America. The committee regards the establishment by Great Britain of the colony of "Bay Islands" off the Honduras coast in 1852, and the firing upon the American steamer *Prometheus* by the English brig-of-war *Express* in 1850, virtual violations of the treaty, and insists that the "Monroe Doctrine" now requires its abrogation. The Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, since the time when it effected its immediate object of allaying ill-feeling between the two countries, has never done much good to any one, and its abrogation will do no harm. Since the expulsion of the French from Mexico few European powers have felt any inclination to meddle with the United States and its "manifest destiny" so far as this continent is concerned. Perhaps the best proof of this is that even the theory recently put forward that any canal dug through the isthmus would form part of the "coast line" of the United States, has excited no hostility in Europe. We doubt if the immediate annexation of the whole centre of the continent would affect the relations of the United States to any European government. But even the "Monroe doctrine" is subordinate to general considerations of decency and fairness, and there is something at least unfair in our attitude with regard to the isthmus. The "Monroe Doctrine" as at present interpreted seems to consist in warning everybody off who threatens to make a highway for the commerce of the world, and at the same time doing nothing about it ourselves. Of this the commercial nations of the world may fairly complain.

There are scores of Republicans in New York City, natural leaders of the people, who are at the present moment wringing their hands over the third-term movement and all which that implies, and wondering why somebody does not do something to stop it. Meanwhile a few young men unknown to fame, believing that they have a country worth laboring for, and tired of waiting for their natural leaders, have opened headquarters, organized a successful series of public meetings, and called a State Conference to meet at Albany on the 22d inst. to perfect a State organization and to appoint delegates to the St. Louis Mass Convention of the 6th of May, called by ex-Senator Henderson, Mr. Henry Hitchcock, and their associates. This St. Louis Convention was at first treated with cold water by a portion of the press which ought naturally to have sympathized with it, but it has grown in favor with the Anti-Third-Term Republicans both East and West, and now bids fair to be an important demonstration of that species of hostility to Grant and the third term which is founded upon principle, and is correspondingly resolute. It will probably go no farther at present than to record its solemn protest and warning, and appoint a committee to take action of some sort after the Chicago Convention.

The third-term movement makes a feeble showing in Illinois, if we may trust the representations of the Chicago *Tribune*, twelve counties with 85 delegates having elected only 27 Grant men, and Sangamon County having sent a divided delegation. The sudden journey of General Logan homeward is understood to have had some connection with this impediment to the boom. The Machine has now been put under a full head of steam, runners have been sent out in every direction, and every possible effort is making to reverse the current of party opinion as thus far revealed. Among other weighty arguments employed it is urged that General Logan's feelings would be hurt if the State should go for anybody except Grant. The Republicans of Missouri and Kentucky, as was expected, chose Grant delegations to Chicago last week, and instructed them to vote as a unit. There was an unruly but unavailing opposition in each State, which the Grant men treated with less courtesy, apparently, than their own decided majority could have afforded. In Kentucky the anti-third-term men complain of having been cheated at the primaries and bluffed at the convention, and in Missouri the colored men got badly snubbed. In the Iowa Convention, on the contrary, the utmost harmony prevailed, and the opposition gracefully acquiesced in the instruction of the delegation to vote as a unit and for Blaine.

The Grant meeting at Chicago on Thursday evening was respectable in point of numbers and in the character of the attendance—rather more so than in the character of the speakers. These were General Logan, Mr. Emery A. Storrs (who was Babcock's attorney in the whiskey trial and procured the publication of the famous order intimidating witnesses), and Mr. Leonard Sweet (a terrible anti-Grant man and coadjutor of Mr. E. W. Stoughton, General Banks, and other political purists of 1872). General Logan's speech was largely made up of apologies and excuses—excuses for the third term and apologies for "mistakes" made in the first and second terms—a rather ominous beginning of a Presidential campaign. Mr. Storrs made a vigorous attack upon the "Independent Scratchers," alleging among other offences of theirs that they commenced their unholy work by "scratching" President Lincoln in the campaign of 1864—an obvious untruth. The Wade-Davis-Frémont Radicals of 1864 all supported Mr. Lincoln, although protesting that the war ought to be given a more distinctly anti-slavery character than he had then adopted. There being no "Independent Scratchers" in Illinois as yet, it may be inferred that Mr. Storrs had the Young Scratchers of New York in mind, and his invective against them serves to show that they have impressed one boomster at a long distance from their base of operations. All the speakers put themselves in flat antagonism to General Grant's speech at Cairo respecting the present condition of the South and the great emergency which calls for the Strong Man—a most unexpected and singular conflict of authority, which we have discussed elsewhere.

The Philadelphia Boss, McManes, whose exploit at the Union League Club we noticed last week, has apologized to the House Committee for his breach of the rules. They had previously, however, begun to enquire into the affair, and had drawn from Mr. Lockwood, whom McManes assaulted, a very instructive account of the occurrence. It appears that the Boss approached Mr. Lockwood, "accompanied by fifteen or twenty politicians and city officials," among whom he "immediately fell back" as soon as he had called Mr. Lockwood a liar and struck at him; that, having been restrained by the doorkeeper from continuing the assault, he threatened to cowhide his adversary the next day, afterwards came up to him "with an augmented party" and threatened to "punish" him if he circulated another one of the obnoxious tracts, and ended by lying in wait for him in the street till towards midnight with some dozen of his friends, but suffered Mr. Lockwood to pass without molestation. All this shows that Mr. Henry C. Lea, who promptly avowed the authorship of the document which Mr. Lockwood was distributing, was fully as courteous as the case called for when he said that in linking McManes's name with Tweed's, he was not thinking of the convict phase of the latter's career. Mr. Lea expressed surprise that offence should be taken "at being included in a class wherein are likewise specifically mentioned Senators Cameron, Conkling, and Logan," and offered to correct his error if assured by McManes that his political power was neither actually nor intentionally "similar to that which Mr. Kelly exercises in the city and Mr. Conkling in the State of New York."

Some progress has been made with the Whittaker case during the week, and there have been several melodramatic incidents, which have served to keep up public interest in the enquiry. One of these was a statement made in court by Whittaker himself. A newspaper report of a conversation with him had made him say that he had no expectation of justice from the court. This report he pronounced a malicious and wanton falsehood. This is said to have produced a good effect, as it is just what an honorable white cadet might have been expected to do under the circumstances. The *Times*, which is the employer of the reporter contradicted by Whittaker, seems to be determined to sift the mystery thoroughly, and on Thursday of last week published a "clue" which pointed to three cadets who had been overheard talking at a low resort in the neighborhood of the school about a plan for hazing Whittaker. This reporter, however, has also been doomed to find the pursuit of truth a thankless task. On the publication of his "clue" he was immediately subpœnaed and sworn as a witness. Having taken the oath he declined to testify with regard to the facts on which the "clue" had been based, except as to a particular portion of it, and as to that he declined to testify until he could communicate with his "counsel." The officers at West Point are evidently not familiar with a New York view of the office of "counsel," and decided off-hand that no attention need hereafter be paid to anything the reporter said; on which the reporter entered a "protest." Mr. Gayler, the expert in handwriting, testifies that among the manuscripts of cadets which have been submitted to him he has found one in which the handwriting resembles that in the letter of warning addressed to Whittaker.

The Albany *Law Journal* is mistaken in the point the supposed Massachusetts trial was meant to illustrate in our recent article on Future Civil-Rights Cases. The decision in Strauder's case, that State statutes abridging civil rights are unconstitutional, rests on strong grounds, though it cannot be limited to statutes excluding colored persons from juries. The same principle applies to all other cases of statutory discriminations, and so it was held in the Queue case, in which it was determined that an ordinance prescribing shaving as a penal discipline was unconstitutional, since it deprived the Chinese as a race of the right to wear queues. The same reasoning will condemn statutes which by indirection, as well as by direction, exclude any class, sect, or nation from civil equality. This, however, is not the point which the Massachusetts trial was supposed to hinge on. That point is that a State judge who, following a statute of his own State, sustains a panel summoned in conformity with such statute, can be indicted and imprisoned for his erroneous ruling. The only way, it used to be thought, of reviewing an erroneous decision in such cases was by writ of error, by a writ for the removal of the case to a Federal court, or, it might be, by a writ of habeas corpus. Cole's case is the first in which it was ever held that a judge is liable to indictment for a ruling not alleged to be corrupt; and if Judge Cole is so indictable, there is no State judge who may not be proceeded against in the same way should he hold a State statute imposing discriminations of any kind (even discriminations against queues) to be operative.

The passage of the Anti-Discrimination Railroad Bill by the Assembly last week is the first and most important result of the legislative enquiry at Albany into the transportation problem. The chief provisions of the bill are those forbidding greater rates being charged for short than for long distances, and prohibiting discrimination in rates for the same services for different persons. Of these the first is entirely impracticable, as we have often pointed out in these columns. Rates of transportation are not governed by distance, but by the amount of business done and by competition, and the idea that rates will ever be based on distance alone is simply preposterous. Discrimination, however, which consists in giving one shipper unfair advantages over other shippers similarly situated is a gross abuse, and probably a very common one. It is certainly illegal, but the law in its present condition does not give the shipper any effective remedy. For this purpose the establishment of a railroad commission is necessary. The Massachusetts commission have, we believe, almost eradicated this sort of favoritism.

All the Wall Street markets were affected by the money stringency, which was maintained until the last day of the week. If the money market had not been taken in hand by the stock speculators it would probably have been active but not stringent to anything like the degree it was. As the result of the stringency there was a further decline in the prices of stocks, and those which are dealt in in London as well as in New York fell so that there was a profit in buying them here and selling them there. As this was done to a large extent, bills on London drawn against these stock shipments made the foreign exchange market weak, and carried the rates still further away from gold export. It is fortunate for the foreign exchanges that securities can be exported, and that the "bull" speculation here in exportable commodities has broken down so that they can be shipped, for the imports continue very heavy. Those at New York alone last week amounted to $12,273,768 against $6,749,043 in the corresponding week of last year, and to $5,859,118 in the corresponding week of 1878. The merchandise speculation has had fully as much to do with making the money market active as has the wild speculation at the Stock Exchange; and it is well for all legitimate interests that speculation in all departments has been checked of late and forced into liquidation. The price of silver in London has advanced to 52*d.* to 52⅛*d.* per ounce, and the bullion value of the "buzzard dollar" to $0.8836.

The chief foreign news of the week comes from Germany, where the Army Bill has been passed by the Reichstag, and the operation of the Socialist Law been extended to September 30, 1884, with an amendment protecting members of the national and state legislatures against a refusal of the right of residence on the part of local authorities. In England the Liberal majority in the new Parliament is now reported to be sixty over all opposition. Lord Beaconsfield has not yet tendered his resignation, but will probably have done so by the time this reaches our readers. The Liberal leaders are in consultation with Mr. Gladstone, and rumors of proposed arrangements for the Cabinet abound.

GENERAL GRANT'S SPEECH AT CAIRO.

WHATEVER else may be said of General Grant's first and second campaigns for the Presidency, it must be admitted that personal dignity was an impressive feature in both. He went about his proper business and was noted everywhere as "the silent man." There is a great fund of latent strength in mere silence. In a candidate for the Presidency silence is an effective answer to calumny, and even against accusations which are not calumnies it is better than speech-making or letter-writing. In the mind of the ordinary voter silence implies power in reserve, and the amount being left wholly to the imagination often counts for more than its real value. Both General Grant and Mr. Tilden have profited largely by their talent for holding their tongues.

Since the former's return from Mexico he has found reasons for departing from this salutary custom, and has presented himself in the character not exactly of a public speaker but of a frequent commentator on public affairs; and his utterances are of a nature to confound the Stalwart school of politicians who have chosen him as their candidate for the Chicago nomination. He has taken a somewhat zigzag course through the South, in such a way, as he says, as "to have passed through a little bit of every one of the States lately in rebellion." It has happened that in several of these States conventions were about to be held to appoint delegates to the National Republican Convention. If any other candidate had been journeying thus, making short speeches here and there, it would have been said that he was plainly soliciting votes for the nomination; and probably unfavorable contrasts would have been drawn between him and other candidates who have stayed at home and preserved the appearance, at least, of leaving those matters to be decided by the people. At all events, General Grant has thrown down the shield of silence which has hitherto protected him, and invited attention to his views of national politics, having made a speech at Cairo, Illinois, on the 16th inst., embodying the results of his observations in *all* the States lately in rebellion.

When we compare his utterances with those of his principal supporters in the North we find differences so glaring that they cannot be passed over either before the Chicago nomination or after it —indeed less after it than now, if General Grant should himself be the nominee. In this speech he asserts his belief, founded upon personal observation, that the South is loyal to the Union, devoted to the old flag, and composed of good citizens—in short, that the South is not the rebellious, murdering, bull-dozing community described by Mr. Boutwell in his third-term article in the last *North American Review*, and by the Stalwart orators and newspapers generally, but something entirely different. If any human rights whatever are endangered or trampled upon in the South he has failed to mention them, and, failing to mention them in a speech descriptive of the political condition of those States, neither he nor his supporters are at liberty now to tell the people, as they have lately been telling them, that his election is necessary to put down a new rebellion and restore order in the Southern States. As we shall, perhaps, have occasion to recur to this speech, we quote the essential part of it as furnished by the Associated Press:

"It has been my good fortune to have just passed through a little bit of every one of the Southern States lately in rebellion, and it is gratifying to me, and I know it will be to you, that in every one of them scenes, decorations, and speeches were much the same as we see and hear to-day. The stars and stripes were floating everywhere. A great portion of the speakers in every instance were men who in the conflict wore the grey; and the speeches which they made show their present devotion to the flag for which we fought, and which is all we asked of them—that they should respect and honor the flag and become good citizens, and hereafter, if it should be assailed by a foreign foe, that they should unite with us as one people. From the assurances they give I believe they are sincere, and I hope they expressed the sentiments of the great majority; for, united as one people, united as generous rivals in building up our several States for the whole Union, and in a feeling of loyalty for that flag, we are a great people, the greatest nation in the whole world."

Reverting to Mr. Boutwell's reasons why the public should cease debating "an ancient tradition whose origin is uncertain and whose value is doubtful," in order to fix their attention exclusively on the wickedness of the White Leaguers, the Ku-klux, and the Regulators of Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and South Carolina—these States being specially enumerated by him—we find the real question of the hour to be this: "*Shall this Government be destroyed or subverted permanently by the usurpations of the minority?*" (the italics are Mr. Boutwell's). Elsewhere he wishes to know whether we are to "yield a quiet submission to a Senate and House of Representatives whose majorities were secured by the grossest usurpations, made possible only by the perpetration of the bloodiest of crimes." According to this eminent authority there is nobody so well fitted as General Grant to throttle these bloody-minded villains; in fact, it is their domination, not merely in the South but at the national capital, which makes it expedient to override the ancient tradition against third terms in order to put the Strong Man in a position where he can deal them an annihilating blow. But when we turn to the Strong Man himself, who has been on a tour of inspection among these disloyal conspirators, he tells us virtually that it is all bosh—as we partly suspected it was when Mr. Boutwell printed it.

General Grant has thus, it seems to us, deprived his friends of the sole argument with which they have ventured to encounter the powerful and growing hostility to a third term, and the weighty objections to himself predicated upon the scandals of his former Administration and his own moral obtuseness respecting them. This argument was none other than the alleged danger to the country from the rebel Brigadiers, the men "who in the recent conflict wore the grey," and who are expressly mentioned in the Cairo speech as showing their devotion to the old flag and believed to be sincere. Whether that argument would have availed to carry the party through another campaign with General Grant as the nominee is highly doubtful, but it has now ceased to be of any value. Blaine, Edmunds, Sherman, or anybody else may run on that platform, but not General Grant. He has made it difficult for anybody, but for himself impossible. No amount of explanation or afterthought can erase the plain meaning of the Cairo speech. A campaign against the Rebel Brigadiers cannot be made with a candidate who is "shaking hands across the bloody chasm." The national sense of humor would prevent it. On the same day that General Grant at Cairo was eulogizing the good behavior of the men who wore the grey, General Logan, at the other end of the State, at Central Hall, in the city of Chicago, was declaiming about the "great emergency" which would, in his estimation, excuse and justify a third term. If the two had spoken in each other's hearing there must have been great embarrassment or sudden coolness between them. But in such a disagreement General Grant is the superior authority. If he now becomes the nominee the issues of the campaign will be the Third Term *plus* Babcock, Shepherd, Belknap, Jayne and Sanborn, Leet and Stocking, and a long procession of half-forgotten worthies whose biographies are even now in print for the entertainment of the reading public. The Rebel Brigadiers have been eliminated from the fight, and the arguments of Mr. Boutwell and General Logan are of no more value to the Republican party (with the author of the Cairo speech for their candidate) than the cartridges burnt at Waterloo. If the state of things at the South is really what General Grant has described, there is no need of a military candidate, no need of a third-term candidate, no need of a Strong Man, and especially no need of a new régime of "mind-poisoning" at the White House.

The effect of the Cairo speech upon the South was probably more distinctly in the mind of the speaker than its effect upon the Republican party. Mr. Conkling has been quoted as saying that General Grant would carry several Southern States in the election; but whether these States were to be gained by an accession of Democratic votes, or by arousing such enthusiasm among the colored people that they would vanquish the White Leaguers and break up the "conspiracy" which Mr. Boutwell is at such pains to expose, has not been defined by anybody. By one or other of these

processes must the result be achieved, but not by both combined, since they are antagonistic to each other and cannot be brought into action without falling into deadly conflict. We have shown in previous articles what this conflict consists of; how it is an inevitable concomitant of the transition from slavery to freedom—from the rank barbarism of the ante-war period to a state of civilization, which must grow, as other civilizations have grown, by the spread of knowledge among the victims of slavery, and by the sense of responsibility and courage which knowledge alone can give. The want of knowledge, responsibility, and courage among the mass of voters in Mississippi cannot be made good by Mr. Boutwell's speeches in Massachusetts, nor can society be permanently turned bottom upward in order to keep ignorance and squalor in the halls of legislation and the seats of power. Hence any union between the Democrats and the colored men to secure electoral votes—which imply State and local control as well—for General Grant is out of the question. If enough Democrats are satisfied with him the party will furnish such votes to him, but they will never ask the partnership of their own field-hands in doing it. As regards the Southern whites themselves they will probably remember that General Grant went into the Presidency with the motto, "Let us have peace"; that he waged war against them by means both constitutional and unconstitutional during eight years; and that they never had any real peace till they got rid of him. Here is one fact for them to steady themselves by, in this day of strange paradoxes.

A NEW VIEW OF PARTY HARMONY.

A REFORM platform which was "unanimously adopted upon motion of the Hon. George S. Boutwell" could not be expected to be free from ambiguity. In fact the resolutions of the Massachusetts Republican Convention at Worcester last week, which ended with the recommendation of Mr. Edmunds for the Presidency, carefully avoided that plainness of speech which has characterized the manifestoes of the New York Independent Republicans, the National Republican League of Philadelphia, or the Massachusetts Young Republicans. Nevertheless, their meaning is unmistakable, and they shelve the "claims" of Grant and Blaine, if not of Sherman, as clearly as if both these candidates had been named. Moreover, they go a stride beyond the present emergency by laying down the salutary general principle that "the duty of all Republicans loyally to support the candidates of the party, and the duty of nominating conventions to present candidates who are acceptable to all Republicans, are reciprocal duties of equal force and obligation." In this clause, logically applied, lies the condemnation of the Machine and the justification of bolting.

When we stop to enquire what is meant by "acceptable to *all* Republicans," or by the corresponding phraseology, "no man should be nominated who cannot poll the *full* Republican vote" (N. Y. Independents), and "we protest against the nomination of any candidate who is certain to lose the support of *any important portion* of the party" (Mass. Young Republicans), we perceive that these expressions are not to be taken literally. If, for example, there is (which is not at all unlikely) a considerable body of Republicans, who, being Greenbackers, are inflexibly opposed to Secretary Sherman because he favored and carried out resumption, or another body who will not vote for him because he has been "unfriendly" to silver; or if an "important portion" of the party can never forgive General Grant's refusal to settle the Louisiana and South Carolina contentions before his successor had qualified, as he had abundant time and plenty of instigation to do; or if yet another constituency objects to Blaine that his mismanagement of the Machine in Maine allowed the Fusionists to carry the State by a fair majority, and again nearly to capture it by fraud—we do not understand that these are the Republicans who must be conciliated and their scruples respected at Chicago in the choice of a party leader for the next campaign. We apprehend, on the contrary, that the class designated in the resolution against which neither Mr. Banks nor Mr. Boutwell lifted up his voice, consists of those whose consciences are commonly considered too nice for "practical politics," and who accompany their specification of objectionable candidates with charges of intrigue, corruption, or dishonor—in short, the sensitive and moral portion of the Republican party.

But if concession ought to be made to this despised group of reformers and scratchers by party managers like Messrs. Cameron and Conkling, and if they are to be allowed to dictate at least who shall *not* be nominated by the National Convention, what, we should like to know, becomes of the doctrine of party harmony so industriously preached last fall in this State in particular? What will Mr. Beecher say to the pretension, gravely announced in a platform "in good and regular standing," that the party should be held together not by subserviency to the tricksters who control the organization, but by deference to those who in decency stand aloof from it—that harmony should be attained by consulting not the "fixers" but the "fixed"? Mr. Beecher, it will be remembered, held in his Brooklyn speech that it was pure conceit to attempt to overrule those who had taken the pains to have things their own way; that loyalty to the party nominations was the proper acknowledgment of superior industry on the part of the workers; and that the superior virtue assumed by the reformers was only a cover for indolence, preoccupation, and prejudice. Now come the Massachusetts Republicans and declare that loyalty is a reciprocal sentiment, due to fit nominations and no other, due in the measure that nominations are fit, not due at all if these are unfit, and the rest of the chapter. Candidates must be acceptable to all Republicans, not as the unanimous choice of the party bosses, but as in themselves deserving of general confidence and approval and as "having the requisite qualifications for the high office of President"—"whose nomination will be most expedient because most worthy and least objectionable." In other words, the dextrous manipulation of State conventions, the pledging of delegations, the forcing of the unit rule, and even a packed majority at Chicago, furnish no presumption except of skilful organization, and confer no prerogative by which the humblest conscience need be overawed. Minority against minority—the Machine against the bolters and scratchers—the party scales should incline, say the Massachusetts Republicans, not to organization but to character; and harmony is to be sought not by coercing the disaffected, but by elevating the standards of public and party morality in accordance with their aspirations.

We do not say, we can hardly hope, that the majority who drew these resolutions and elected delegates in sympathy with them will to a man follow the higher impulse, and refuse to sanction at the polls what they deprecated in convention. None the less is it to be said of them to their credit that they have taken a position from which it results that reform within the party is a higher and holier object than mechanical discipline under self-appointed bosses; that the party conscience is not in the keeping of these bosses; that it is not shameful to have been outmanœuvred by them; and that it is lawful, as a good partisan, to resist them at the polls after having been defeated in all other encounters with them. In short, in dealing with such adversaries the reformer may choose his time, his place, and his weapons.

Another healthy symptom is the coincidence between the seventh Massachusetts resolution and the third paragraph of the Philadelphia programme. We desire, says the former, a candidate who will "have the confidence and approval of all who have hitherto acted with the Republican party, who will invite the support of other patriotic citizens desiring good government more than party success," etc.; we seek, says the latter, to secure the nomination of a statesman "who will secure the support not only of zealous Republicans, but also of thoughtful and independent voters." Here again is an idea essentially opposed to machine politics. All the efforts expended upon caucuses, primaries, and conventions have but one end in view—to keep the voter in his party allegiance, to constrain him to walk in the narrow path marked out for him. The attempt to *persuade* him or anybody else has been entirely abandoned. To set forth the unselfish aims of the party and the merits of its candidates and policy as reasons why

those not openly allied with it should join it, is unheard of in boss-ridden States. Instead of debate for the purpose of convincing opponents, we are treated to systematic, wholesale abuse of them as dangerous and incorrigible. The organization which we are told is indispensable to party life and achievement thus dries up the springs of earnestness and zeal of propagandism, and, by suppressing discussion, obscures the grounds of party division without encouraging the growth of patriotism. Voters long accustomed to passive obedience on the score of harmony, regard as a sort of devilish temptation the nomination by the opposite party of a public man of unblemished character. Thousands of good citizens, for example, stand ready to cross themselves if Mr. Bayard is made the Democratic standard-bearer, and to find additional evidence of the total depravity of his party in the cunning which fixed their choice upon him. On the other hand Mr. Edmunds would perhaps not consider his chances at Chicago greatly increased by considerations of "availability" based on the respect which his character commands outside of the Republican ranks. It is, therefore, chiefly as a foreshadowing of better things that we welcome the Massachusetts adhesion to the doctrine that a harmonious Republican may not only take account of his convictions in deciding whether to support the party nominee, but may honestly be influenced by the high character of the rival candidate; since, if the force of character should ever be allowed to obliterate party lines, it is a poor rule that will not work both ways.

THE NEW PARLIAMENT AND THE COMING MINISTRY.

London, Saturday, April 3, 1880.

MR. GLADSTONE has his revenge. He has dispersed the Conservative majority, and pulled down Lord Beaconsfield's Ministry. The former has already disappeared, and no gains which can possibly be made by the Government during the next week will restore it. The English county elections will indeed diminish the majority which now stands on the Liberal side, but it will again receive additions from the Scotch and Irish elections. A very experienced party-manager, whose estimates of the Liberal gains during the past week have erred on the minimizing side, puts the Liberal majority, when the House of Commons shall be completely constituted, at thirty, not including the Irish Obstructionists, but including certain Irish members who are Liberals first and by inclination, and who are Home-Rulers in the second place and by necessity. Other and more sanguine calculators give the Liberals a majority even larger than that just stated, independent of any section of the Home-Rule vote; and the unexpected and growing successes of the past few days warrant at least hopefulness in this matter. Though the Conservatives will retain their majority in the counties, it will in all probability be a much diminished majority, and will not in any way counterbalance their accumulated losses in the boroughs. The Scotch Conservatives will be swept out of the few seats they occupied during the past Parliament; and in Ireland already a Roman Catholic Liberal who is not a Home-Ruler, Mr. Charles Russell, one of the most eminent practitioners at the English bar, has defeated a noisy Home-Ruler at Dundalk. The O'Conor Don, who has severed himself from the Home-Rule party, seems likely to hold his own against Mr. Parnell's interference in Roscommon. The decision of the country is, however, given in the voting for the English boroughs and cities. They are the fluctuating element in English public opinion, and according to their vote the majority in the House of Commons and the Government is Liberal or Conservative. The counties have up to this time been stolidly Conservative. Scotland has been resolutely, and the majority of the Irish constituencies have been impulsively, Liberal. These are the permanent elements in the political problem. The English boroughs embody those fluctuations of opinion according to which majorities and ministries rise and fall. The English boroughs have given their verdict in response to Mr. Gladstone's appeal and in decided rejection of Lord Beaconsfield's.

Mr. Gladstone is justified in the course which he has pursued during the past few years. His incessant activity and loquacity have been viewed with contempt and dislike by some fastidious critics, and with serious misgivings by many who were well enough inclined to him, respecting him, as Ben Jonson loved Shakspere, on this side of idolatry. He has fallen into occasional errors of taste and temper. He has set aside the traditions of English politics. The spectacle of a statesman of the first rank who had lately held the highest office under the Crown, and of a scholar who had almost advertised his retirement to the quietude of learned leisure and of spiritual contemplation, rushing from platform to platform and pouring forth torrents of theologico-political eloquence, shocked the English sense of decorum. Particular things said and done by Mr. Gladstone were amazingly and almost unpardonably indiscreet. But when the labors of four years are looked back upon, when the energies which were expended under social contumely and popular odium are taken into account, when the fixed purpose and the overflowing resources of knowledge and speech placed at its disposal are remembered, and, above all, when the victory which has crowned these efforts is taken into account, the past few years of Mr. Gladstone's life may be counted as among the most memorable in his own career and as the most extraordinary in political history. He has brought England once more to his side. No doubt the natural awakening of the public mind and conscience, or, if a more neutral phrase be preferred, the inevitable reaction of opinion, has helped him. The confidence placed in the tact and moderation of Lord Granville and in the straightforward common sense of Lord Hartington has not been without its effect. But Mr. Gladstone's force of character and energy of propagandism have been the main instruments in the work now practically accomplished. A strictly solitary agency never effected anything. But, with only such limitation as is implied in the conditions of human affairs, Mr. Gladstone is entitled to say with Coriolanus, "Alone I did it." He is once more the foremost statesman in England, the man of light and leading, and the part which he will play in the near future is anxiously waited for.

Already discussion is beginning as to the leadership of the Liberal party. People are asking who is to be Prime Minister in the inevitable Liberal Administration which will be formed within a few days after the meeting of Parliament, if Lord Beaconsfield waits for a vote of censure, or a few weeks before it if he anticipates the action of the House of Commons by resignation before it comes together, as he did in 1868, and as Mr. Gladstone did in 1874. Probably both he and Lord Salisbury will desire to vindicate the policy they have pursued and which the nation has condemned. But the vote of censure will be proposed in the Commons, where the Government is weak in debating power. It will not be challenged in the Lords, where the ministers most directly responsible for it, and most capable of defending it, sit. But whether the ministers resign in April or May, their resignation is certain, and the question is, "Whom will the Queen send for?" It is thought, and with much probability, that Lord Granville will be the man. But this theory is not so mechanically certain as in some quarters it is assumed to be. It seems to be believed that the Queen is constitutionally bound to ask the advice of the retiring Minister as to the choice of his successor, and that the retiring Minister is bound to name the leader of the Opposition, for whom the Queen, under penalty of violating that very fluctuating and indefensible thing, the spirit of the constitution, is under the obligation to send. If this were so, there would be no need of asking or taking advice. The Queen knows as well as Lord Beaconsfield who is the leader of the Opposition. But the selection of a statesman to whom the task of forming a government is entrusted is one of the few acts which the Crown is at liberty to do without ministerial advice, and in which ministerial advice would be an impertinence. Sir Robert Peel explained this when, in 1846, he corrected the statement that on his retirement he had advised Her Majesty to have recourse to Lord John Russell. Having lost the confidence of the House of Commons, he was no longer the responsible adviser of the Crown, and simply held office for the transaction of routine business and until his successor should be appointed. In ordinary cases there can be no difficulty. The Ministry must be formed out of the Opposition, and the leader of the Opposition is the only person under whom its principal members would consent to serve. But this is not quite the position of affairs just now. The feeling which Mr. Gladstone has inspired at court makes it unlikely that the Queen should send for him. His own repeated and lately renewed assertions that he claims no other position than that of a faithful follower and supporter of Lord Granville and Lord Hartington may be considered as a refusal in advance to take the office of Prime Minister. But if the Queen should recognize in him the leader whom the country has followed, the statesman for whose policy it has declared, and especially the political rival who has overthrown Lord Beaconsfield, and who is bound to accept responsibility for his own acts, it is quite within her competence to send for him, and it would be free to Mr. Gladstone in these circumstances to reconsider his position and to undertake the task offered to him. This is not likely to happen, but it is not impossible, nor would this course involve any constitutional impropriety. If, again, it

should appear to the Queen desirable that the Premiership should be held by a statesman in the full vigor of life, and possessing a seat in the House of Commons, rather than by an elderly peer, there is no reason why she should not send for Lord Hartington rather than Lord Granville. Of course, as sovereigns and prime ministers are human beings and not puppets, she may consult Lord Beaconsfield on the matter, and may be guided by his opinion; but there is no constitutional obligation to ask and take his advice.

The probability is that the ordinary course will be followed, and that Lord Granville, as the senior of the two Parliamentary leaders, will be sent for. Mr. Gladstone will, of course, be at once communicated with; but it is not likely that he would be offered, and it is all but certain that he would not take, office under any other statesman. It does not absolutely follow that he would decline to enter the Cabinet. Lord Granville might appropriately make to him the proposal which Mr. Gladstone made to Lord Russell in 1868 to join his Cabinet without holding any office, a position which does not imply subordination, and which, as in the case of the Duke of Wellington and others, has been held by statesmen who are disinclined for administrative labors, but whose advice in council is deemed necessary. A Liberal Cabinet to whose decisions Mr. Gladstone was not a party, and by which he was not bound, would probably have a short and troubled existence. A member, even though unofficially, of any administration, he would almost certainly before very long become its chief. But the beginning will probably be a Ministry with Lord Granville as Premier and Lord Hartington as leader in the House of Commons, with Mr. Gladstone for the time being advising it from within or protecting it from without. If he remains in the House of Commons and in political life, and the Liberal party remains in power, this position can only be temporary; but it will ease his transition to the Premiership. † † †

THE ANTI-CLERICAL CRUSADE IN FRANCE.

PARIS, April 2, 1880.

I HAD not followed any debate of the Chambers since they left Versailles, but I could not resist the temptation to hear the discussion on the now famous Article 7. The hall where the Senators meet in the Luxembourg is the same they used to meet in under the Empire, but the sittings are open to the public, while they were not under Napoleon III. It was with some difficulty that the architect contrived to make room in the galleries, which have been opened on the sides of the great hemicycle. I know from personal experience how uncomfortable these dark and narrow galleries are, and even while I listened to such men as Dufaure I often regretted the spacious galleries of the magnificent theatre at Versailles.

I will not describe here the various incidents of a long discussion; the speech of M. Dufaure was the last act of the long battle. The vote was taken as soon as the "old man eloquent" left the tribune. Article 7 was condemned by the Senate. This article refused the right of opening schools and of teaching to all persons who formed part of a non-authorized congregation. Since this famous discussion the Chamber of Deputies has signified to the Cabinet that it must simply execute the *existing laws* with regard to all congregations. The Cabinet took some time to examine these laws, and two days ago the official paper inserted, after a "longa et verbosa epistola" of the Home Minister, two decrees, one concerning the Jesuits, the other concerning the other non-authorized congregations. An exceptional rigor is shown toward the Jesuits: "A delay of three months is given to the non-authorized association, called of Jesus, to dissolve in execution of the above laws, and to vacate the establishments which it occupies throughout the territory of the Republic. This delay will be prolonged till the 31st of August, 1880, for establishments in which, under the care of this association, literary or scientific education is given to youth." I beg you to observe that the word association is used in this decree, not the word congregation. The Jesuits are not treated as a non-authorized congregation, they are treated as a non-recognized association. For this there are technical reasons which I will explain presently.

This first decree is directed against 1,480 Jesuits who live in fifty-six establishments in France. By the second decree "every non-authorized congregation or community is bound within three months to take the following steps to obtain the verification and approbation of its statutes (by-laws) and regulations, and the legal recognition of each of its establishments now existing *de facto*." The request for authorization must be left with the prefect of the department in which the establishment exists, and sent to the Home Minister. "With regard to the congregation of men, provision will be made by statute; with regard to the congregation of women, either by statute or by decree rendered in the Council of State." Each request for authorization must contain the designation of the superior or superiors, the indication of their place of residence, and the proof that this residence is and will remain fixed in France. It must indicate whether the association extends to foreign parts or is exclusively on the territory of the Republic. To each request must also be annexed, 1st, a list of the names of all the members of the association, specifying the birth-place of each, whether native or foreigner; 2d, a financial statement of assets and debts, with a list of the revenues and charges of the association and of all its establishments; 3d, a copy of the statutes and regulations, approved by the bishop of the diocese, and containing a clause binding the congregation or community to submit in spiritual matters to the jurisdiction of the ordinary. All congregations which neglect to ask, in the given term, for the aforesaid authorization, with all the proofs therein prescribed, "will incur the application of the laws now in force"; that is to say, they will all be treated with the rigor now exceptionally visited on the Jesuits.

Practically it seems difficult now for the Government to stop in the career upon which it has entered. Even if the congregations should be willing to go through all the forms which I have explained, there are many points in which they cannot satisfy the Government. 1st. Most of the great congregations have their superiors out of France, in Rome or elsewhere. 2d. The great congregations have never accepted the spiritual jurisdiction of the ordinary. The conditions which are now imposed on them are such that it is doubtful whether they will send a copy of their statutes to the Government, and ask for an authorization which can only be given to the most important of them by a law discussed in both Houses. The temper of the Chamber of Deputies is such that the necessary legislation will not be voted by it, and the Catholic Right itself will hesitate before it *recognizes* any congregation, because such a recognition or authorization would give the corporations rights which they do not possess now, such as that of acquiring property, accepting legacies, etc., as a corporation. The Catholics are anxious to keep the corporations religious and teaching bodies; few of them would like to see them become great landlords. The Government offers the existing congregations too much in order to deprive them of the little they have; it offers it on what are known to be impossible conditions.

The legal aspect of the question is, however, such as to give us the certainty of a long and painful period of agitation in the country. If the clerical question was invented in order to give satisfaction to the restless spirits of the nation, it was well invented. We are plunging into a sea of legal difficulties, and, as they are mixed up with religious interests and passions, we can fairly prophesy a long era of confusion, strife, and warfare. With the 1,480 Jesuits now in France and the 5,917 members of the other congregations which are summoned to ask for their recognition, our political leaders will keep thirty-six millions of men and women in what they consider a wholesome state of fermentation for a year or two. The struggle will go on till the next general elections, and the electoral battle will be fought on the platform of "clericalism" and "anti-clericalism." This is said to be Gambetta's plan; he declared at Romans: "Le cléricalisme, c'est l'ennemi." He has carried all his followers with him in this campaign, and he has only been abandoned by men like Jules Simon, Dufaure, by those who may be called the Liberal Republicans. A new alliance is now forming between the Conservatives and these Moderate Republicans; as for the people, it is difficult to know what they feel on these subjects. The clerical question has not arisen from the conscience of the nation; it is an artificial flower born on the bed of what is called now "opportunism." I doubt if it strikes any root in the great masses of the country. It is a German importation, a copy of the *Kulturkampf* invented by professors and lawyers; it has not the character of a national movement. It remains to be seen how it will succeed in France.

The difficulties arising from the new decrees are obvious. A non-authorized congregation is now illegal. The Marists, the Jesuits, the Dominicans are all electors, they have all the rights of citizens, but they have no *corporate* rights. I cannot sell a house to the Society of Marists, as they are not an authorized congregation. I can sell a house to an individual Marist. The Brothers of the Christian Doctrine (who are teachers in many primary schools) form an authorized congregation. I could sell a house before a notary, not only to the superior or to a brother of this institute, but to the institute itself. Article 291 of the Penal Code, which is one of the favorite articles of our anti-Liberal Republicans, says:

"No association of more than twenty persons, wishing to meet every day or on certain fixed days for religious, literary, political, or other objects, can be formed without the consent of the Government." But the rest of the article is never cited: "Among the persons indicated in the present article are *not* comprised those who are domiciled in the house where the association meets." Are the Jesuits, the Dominicans, etc., *domiciled* in the houses of their institute? They are; and this domicile is a portion of their rules. The Jesuits, Dominicans, etc., have the right to live together in their houses; they have the right to teach in their houses, since the Senate rejected Article 7 and thus recognized formally this right. The Jesuits (I choose them on purpose) have, therefore, according to the "existing laws," the right to live together in certain houses, they have a right to teach in those houses, and yet the decree denies them the right to exist at all. If the Jesuits claimed any corporate right the Government would have the right to examine their statutes, to give or refuse these corporate rights. But they do not; they simply claim their rights of citizenship.

The other congregations are apparently treated with less severity than the Jesuits; in fact, however, their fate will be the same. The cause of the Dominicans, the Marists, the Trappists is closely bound up with that of the Jesuits. It is not enough to say that at various times the Jesuits have had the honor of special persecution—that the old *parlements* and kings of France treated them with especial rigor. It is a principle admitted by all criminalists that all articles of the Penal Code which have fallen into disuse are not to be revived without the strongest of motives. When the Jesuits were the confessors of kings, when they controlled the policy of Europe, they had in their hands the fate of all the politicians; they fell and rose, and fell again. Times are changed; a free press, parliamentary government, the progress of science have created an atmosphere in Europe in which religious persecution cannot live long. When people are left free to rehabilitate Marat, Robespierre, the Terrorists, or the Communists, the disciples of Saint Bruno, Saint Francis, Saint Bernard, the disciples of Loyola, might be left free to pray and to teach.

THE SAN DONATO MUSEUM.

FLORENCE, March 30.

THE sale of the collection of pictures, bric-à-brac, furniture, and tapestry belonging to Prince Demidoff is one of those exceptional clearings-out which demand passing notice even across the Atlantic. The probability is that no such sale will ever take place again, for this collection, formed by the most lavish expenditure, if not always by the most correct taste, and the work of two generations (three, if we consider that the nucleus of it, the Napoleon collection, was formed by Jerome Bonaparte, father of Princess Mathilde, as part of whose dowry it passed to Prince Anatole Demidoff, uncle of the present Prince), has been or is to be, completely and to the last trifle, sold at auction without reserve of price. It was a complete museum, containing examples of every application of art (including the antique) which artistic taste can need for its education, if not always the best examples of it. Something there was of every school of art from the Revival in Italy down, though the sale of the French and other pictures some years since had deprived it of the best work of the schools of the day. Florentine Renaissance bronzes and wood-carving from the thirteenth century down; tapestries and embroideries of all modern and mediæval schools; a few old Italian pictures; early French, many, and some remarkable, Dutch; with porcelain, terra-cotta, furniture, German, Dutch, Spanish, French, and Italian. It was, in fact, such a collection as our Metropolitan Museum should have been modelled after, a miniature combination of South Kensington and the National Gallery of London. There were half a dozen Dutch pictures worth the whole collection in the Metropolitan Museum: one of the finest Rembrandt portraits in existence, another by Rubens, the best Adrian Van der Velde I have ever seen, and unsurpassable examples of Teniers, Ostade and Ruysdael, and a remarkable portrait by Terburg, the master of miniature portraiture of his school, if not of all schools. There are tapestries from the twelfth century down, embroideries of all times and nations from the twelfth century, and household furniture, comprising the best applications of art to household uses of the last six hundred years—work of Florence in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries; French of the times of Louis XIV. and XVI., that reconciled one entirely to the taste of those times, which is more than their pictures could do; and even Empire furniture, which, by the refinement of its forms, conquered the antipathy its artificiality and coldness provoked. As a whole, the collection merited the attention it is receiving from amateurs and collectors from all Europe and America; and though it might, doubtless, be still further diminished in numbers without losing value as a museum, probably no collection equal to it in average merit exists. It should, it seems to me, be the type of our American museums, where applied art is, and will long be, the principal desideratum of our æsthetic life.

The pictures of the Demidoff collection, with few exceptions, brought prices much below those which the Prince paid, and, though he in many cases paid too much by far, there remains a large margin of profit to the buyers. The Terburg, for which Demidoff paid 45,000 francs, sold for 13,500 lire, or 12,100 francs *circa*. His price was absurd, but the buyer now holds it at £1,000 sterling, or more than double what he paid. For the portrait of a young woman by Rembrandt the Prince paid £6,000; it sold for 137,500 lire, or less than £5,000. The bidding was curiously unappreciative at times: a Solomon Ruysdael, "Banks of the Meuse," sold for 25,100 lire, and two far more important pictures of Jacob Ruysdael sold for 7,800 and 18,100, the latter one of the finest pictures the painter has left. The full-length of Anne Cavendish, by Van Dyck, sold for 150,000 lire; and his half-length of the Earl of Strafford, a fine and important portrait, for 3,600. The portrait of Spinola by Rubens, certainly one of his finest heads, sold for 81,000 lire, while the admirable and important study for the *plafond* at Whitehall sold for 11,200, or about $2,000. A few of the fine pictures were secured for America, but none of them were first-rate samples of their respective painters' work with the exception of the little portrait of a peasant boy by Greuze. This is as fine as a Greuze can be, whatever that limit may be.

On the whole the Prince was largely a loser by his pictures, but in the furniture, etc., he seems likely to recover himself, as most of the really fine articles, especially those of early Florentine work, have gone for prices higher than they could be bought for in the shops here. Some of the Sèvres porcelain went for high prices, a set of three jardinières bringing 94,500 lire, and being resold for 20,000 advance already, while a piece of old Vienna, for which the Prince paid 18,000 lire, was struck off to Mr. Jarves, for New York, for about 4,000.

The fact is that the Prince has had most extraordinary facilities for buying and collecting, but a very poor judgment; and while he has made many very advantageous purchases he has at other times bought fantastically, so that his prices afford no indication of the comparative value. Some late and not very remarkable faïence, which in the market would command about 40 lire the pair of vases, sold at the auction for from 150 to 250 lire the pair; and some carved furniture, which was made in Florence by living men, sold for three or four times the price it can be reproduced for. A very fine example of Florentine cabinet, which at the utmost would have been priced by a dealer at 1,000 lire, sold for 1,750, etc., etc., while some of the Louis XVI. cabinets and other furniture went far below their market value. Nothing could be more uncertain than the relation between the actual market value and the price realized.

But to the American public, away from the *actualités* of the sale, the most important fact will be that many things from it are to be sent to America. The best snuff-box in a most curious and complete collection; a rare and very interesting suite of furniture, comprising a sofa, two armchairs, and six chairs of the time of Louis XIII., covered with a curious Flemish tapestry, perhaps the most interesting lot of the kind in the palace; the finest of the Della Robbias, a madonna and child; some interesting souvenirs of royalty in its prosperous days, and some valuable bric-à-brac, will follow the pictures I have mentioned across the Atlantic; and it is understood that some of the most valuable are destined for the Boston Museum. The policy thus initiated, and which the San Donato collection itself suggests and recommends, will, if followed out, give Boston a museum of the highest practical utility at an expense far less than that already incurred by the management of the New York institution, which has buried in useless duplicates of articles in great part without any artistic value commensurate with their cost a capital large enough to have given an epitome of the art of all ages and countries.

It is, in fact, difficult for one who has made art collections a study to comprehend the policy which directs the operations of the Metropolitan Museum. If there were the hope of rivalling the British Museum, South Kensington, and the National Gallery in one institution, the purchase at what after all were extravagant prices of a large collection of Dutch pictures to the exclusion of the better schools, of the Cesnola collection of Cypriote art at a cost which would have made a sample collection of artwork of all the centuries from the building of the pyramids to the present day, etc., etc., there would still be a doubt if the directors of the Museum were guided by sound policy; but when we know that instead of the resources of the whole British Empire we have only those of the city of New York, the laying of the foundations of a civic museum with such

disproportionate acquisitions reminds one of a temple which is all portico. An hundred years would not make the Museum a fair representation of art-work at this rate. This is not judicious collection, but ignorant acquisition, and so far from exciting the admiration of the Old World, as some New-Yorkers may imagine, it reminds the true collectors and students of collections of the frog who burst rather than of the bull whom he emulated. The subject suggests a great many bitter comments which good-nature suppresses, and one need only say that, in what pertains to the soundest art-culture, the policy which it is understood Boston is entering on will place her in an incontestable superiority to the metropolis before ten years have passed. The formation of art collections is a thing which demands an amount of art-culture in the collectors which the New York direction do not seem to think it worth while to employ; and we may easily learn that the vanity of art patronage is no match for the study and love of art, and that all the capital of New York thrown out in the reckless and unintelligent manner in which it has been thus far employed will not compete with the modest resources of the capital of New England under the direction of men who have made art their life-long study. We New-Yorkers are as proud of the Cesnola collection as if we had bought a white elephant, and with equal reason. Boston, at a tithe of the cost, will cover the art of five thousand years. It is not the way to work, and it is unworthy our American shrewdness to work in it. One-twentieth of the Cesnola collection and one-tenth of our Dutch Gallery were worth to the metropolis as much as the whole. What is needed is intelligent selection and arrangement, not indiscriminate accumulation.

In the midst of so much official unintelligence it will be a satisfaction to know that so many of the best things of the Demidoff sale are going to New York to private hands, and that the interesting collection of drawings by the old masters, purchased by Mr. Jarves, and to which I have before alluded,* also goes there, and that they will be probably seen at the Museum for a time. They have been purchased by a wealthy New-Yorker, and it is to be hoped that some interesting fragments of early frescoes and carved work in Jarves's possession may have gone with them. He has a head by Correggio, a fragment of a large picture, which as an example of largeness of style in painting is a priceless lesson to our young painters.

The San Donato sale has been a unique opportunity, but in the decay and revolution of the old social order in Italy there will probably present themselves continually objects of the greatest interest to art-collectors, and the troublous times which seem to be brewing may throw in the market, even more than is the case now, an art accumulation which our prosperity and capital may profit by as Western Europe did by the dispersal of the Greeks at the fall of Constantinople. Those are the times in which museums become possible, and in which with patience and judgment America may make hers. W. J. S.

Correspondence.

OPPERT'S COREAN OUTRAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The notice of Oppert's book on Corea, in your issue of the 7th instant, recalls some curious incidents to my mind. The raid on the king's tomb was one of the most extraordinary affairs ever known. Its inception and failure might have been concealed but for the Coreans, when they attacked the ghouls, killing an unfortunate Manilaman. Hearing of this, the Spanish consul applied to Mr. Seward (U. S. Consul-General at Shanghai), who at once arrested Jenkins. I was one of the four "associates" summoned to sit with the consul-general in the trial, and well remember what a perfect burlesque it was. The Chinese, who had told a plain and coherent story on preliminary examination, were as dumb as oysters on the stand. When all had been called, the defendant's counsel said that he would rest his case on their testimony. Conviction was impossible, but in the minds of those informed on the subject the wickedness of this buccaneering expedition was remembered as surpassing even the absurdity of an attempt to destroy a granite mausoleum with coal-shovels. There is monstrous impertinence in Oppert's publishing an account of a piratical fiasco which is reported to have cost him a term of imprisonment at home. A. A. Hayes, Jr.

New York, April 15, 1880.

* See the *Nation*, No. 752.

GENERAL HARRISON'S ONE-TERM DOCTRINE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following declaration of President Harrison on the eve of his election has not to my knowledge been noticed in the third-term literature of the day. It shows how even second-term aspirations on the part of a Democrat were regarded by the Opposition in 1840:

"In the Constitution, that glorious charter of our liberties, there is a defect, and that defect is, the term of service of the President is not limited. *This omission is the source of all the evils under which the country is laboring.* If the privilege of being President of the United States had been limited to one term, the incumbent would devote all his time to the public interest and there would be no cause to misrule the country. I pledge myself before heaven and earth if elected President of these United States to lay down at the end of the term, faithfully, that high trust at the feet of the people."—*Speech at Dayton, Sept.* 10, 1840. Niles, lix. p. 70; cited in Von Holst's 'Constitutional History of the United States,' vol ii. pp. 377, 378. Geo. N. Orcutt.

Hornellsville, N. Y., April 12, 1880.

SOUTHERN RECEPTION OF NORTHERN SETTLERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A correspondent of the *Nation*, writing from Springfield, Mass., March 23, 1880, says: "The cold or hostile reception of Northern immigrants and the overbearing spirit of the master class toward their former slaves have kept up an irritation" between the North and South. While the spirit of the communication is somewhat clement toward us down in this latitude, and evinces a sentiment of fairness, yet in the foregoing extract the author labors under a grave mistake. Speaking especially for this State, it is a fact that cannot be denied that Northern citizens seeking a home among us have met with a cordial reception. I dare say not a single instance can be established to the contrary. Indeed, our people have all along shown a nervous anxiety to get Northern immigrants to locate and live with us. Whenever a Northern person comes in our midst, with a view to buying property and settling here, he is not only treated with uniform kindness, but coaxed and persuaded to remain. Whenever one makes investments here and becomes a citizen he is treated with marked civility, without reference to his political antecedents while a resident of the North. I could refer to instances in point where such new-comers were recipients of attentions but little short of an ovation. As to a man's politics, we have no fear in this country, if he is honest and intelligent, or more especially if he has property at stake. The universal law of moral gravitation—self-preservation—unites those classes in this portion of the Union.

In only one aspect is a Northern man shunned and hated down here, and that is when he comes in quest of political pottage and aligns the black population against the white. If possible, the native white man who plies this vile vocation is hated more heartily than the bird of passage known as a carpet-bagger.

We are not understood North. We have endured more than many of your most intelligent people can believe, and with a fortitude and forbearance that will one day be universally admitted. Had your Springfield correspondent seen what we have seen and felt what we have felt, he would have marvelled at our submission, he would have said that we were "pigeon-livered, and lacked gall to make oppression bitter." Those days are now happily past. It is to be hoped they never will recur. Northern men are warmly invited to come and cast their lots with ours. We want their capital and enterprise.

Your correspondent is also in error when he speaks of the overbearing spirit of the master class to the negro. While, in some instances, this is true, it is by no means the rule; indeed, it is seldom so. A large portion of the lands is leased by negroes. They are tenants, and cultivate them to suit themselves—with perfect freedom. The law gives a prior lien for rent. These tenants buy supplies from the merchant, who has a lien by law. Thoughtless, liberal, improvident, the negro always spends the value of his crop before he gathers it. The same may be said of the laborer whom the planter employs for money wages or a portion of the crop. In many instances the planter will not indulge him, in order that he may have something at the end of the year. Then every farthing of it goes during Christmas. His poverty is often construed by Northern men as the result of oppression. Many of our most intelligent and impartial people recognize the fact that the negro can never be a factor in the progress, prosperity, and success of the South; therefore they are perfectly willing for him to depart and try his fortunes elsewhere, and for a spirited, industrious, and thrifty white population to take his place. One thing the negro himself will find to be true, that go where he will

he will never find in this wide world a white face so indulgent to his faults and foibles, who will so kindly overlook and pardon his many immoralities and petty vices, as the "master class" "away down South in Dixie." F. G. B.

WEST POINT, Miss., April 9, 1880.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS announce for immediate publication 'Uncle Jack's Executors,' in their series of Knickerbocker novels; 'The Metric System of Weights and Measures,' by D. Beach, jr.; and "a monograph by a well-known Republican, entitled, 'The Independent Movement in New York, as an element in the next election and a problem in party government.'"——Mr. Horace White's Steinway Hall address on "Third-Term Politics" has been printed in pamphlet form by the New York Independent Republican Association, No. 8 Union Square.——'A History of England in Rhyme,' for children, by Capt. Robert Adams, is the novel announcement of D. Lothrop & Co., Boston.——We learn that Mr. G. D. Scull, of Philadelphia, whose 'Memoir of Captain Glenville Evelyn' we noticed a fortnight ago, purposes a new edition of the work, for which he has some eighteen additional letters of much interest to Philadelphians. In these Col. Harcourt describes the battle of Germantown and the operations at Red Bank and Mud Island.——Mr. Ad. F. Bandelier's exhaustive monograph 'On the Social Organization and Mode of Government of the Ancient Mexicans' has been reprinted from the twelfth annual report of the Peabody Museum at Cambridge. It is one of the most learned and important contributions yet made to the history of primitive institutions.——Vol. viii. of the Collections of the Wisconsin State Historical Society contains the usual entertaining miscellany. Noticeable are the crushing exposures of Eleazar Williams's imposture. In January of last year the library numbered more than 39,000 volumes, and embraced 3,012 bound files of newspapers.——We have also before us the annual report of the Wisconsin Natural History Society of Milwaukee, of which the most significant contents are its articles of incorporation. For twenty-two years it was the *Naturhistorischer Verein;* now it takes on an English title, and as some of the papers of the past year were read in English, we infer that its membership is broadening.——The *Popular Science Monthly* has virtually reduced its price to $3 since April 1. For the usual subscription price of $5 the subscriber will be entitled to two dollars' worth of scientific books from a list of 110 volumes published by the Messrs. Appleton—a small library, of which the total value is $209.——The most important contribution to the *Harvard Register* for April is a brief paper by Professor Benj. Peirce on "The Intellectual Organization of Harvard University." The theme would well bear enlargement. Mr. Arthur Gilman announces that the women students of the "Annex" will be admitted to the privilege of instruction in Chinese, for which the professor has, we believe, ample leisure.——With its January issue the *Mathematical Visitor* reaches its fourth number. (Artemas Martin, editor and publisher, Erie, Pa.) It is a well-printed and well-conducted journal, consisting of problems and solutions in a junior and senior department, and of terse book-notices.——The marine zoölogical laboratory of the Johns Hopkins University will be opened for its third session at Beaufort, N. C., from the present date to September 1, 1880. A house has been rented near the water for laboratory accommodations. Applications for admission may be sent to Director W. K. Brooks at Beaufort.——*Landsberg's Illustrirtes Wochen-Blatt*, published at 5 Beekman Street, New York, is an attempt to supply a want not met, we believe, by any German publication in this country. It eschews news and politics, and devotes itself to science and art and belles-lettres. The first two numbers have appeared.——A movement has been set on foot in London to utilize the collections of the British Museum for the benefit of the principal colleges and schools in and near the British metropolis. It is stated in the *Athenæum* that "Mr. C. T. Newton, C.B., has undertaken to deliver the first course, consisting of eight lectures on Greek sculpture and painting, at the Botanical Theatre, University College, during the months of May and June next, commencing May 5. The lectures will be accompanied by visits to the British Museum, and will have special reference to the works of art which can be studied there." In good time our Metropolitan Museum may serve a similar function.——F. W. Christern will receive subscriptions to A. Quantin's *édition de luxe* of La Fontaine's 'Fables,' with full-page etchings by A. Delierre.——Copies of the etching after Fortuny's "Choix du modèle," the latest premium offered by *L'Art* to its subscribers, can be had through the American agent, Mr. J. W. Bouton. Of the *Etcher* for March (Bouton) the three plates are "Tintagel," by R. S. Chattock; "The Tiger," by C. O. Murray; and "The Skaters," by Baron von Gleichen-Russwurm. Mr. Chattock's etching, without being particularly noteworthy, is quite as good as the verses with which he accompanies it, and which are perhaps necessary to explain that his singular clouds are meant to represent "multitudinous rose-flush'd cirri"; there is enough good work in the foreground to excite regret that he should have attempted this. William Blake's admirable poem on "The Tiger" altogether overweights Mr. Murray's depiction, which has nothing terrifying about it and might easily have been made by him "who made the lamb." "The Skaters" is a Dutch winter scene, vacant and somewhat feeble, but wholly unpretentious.——M. Hetzel, the Paris publisher of educational and entertaining books for the young, announces a "Histoire des États-Unis, racontée à la jeunesse, par Th. Wentworth, traduite par MM. G. Ovrée et A. Varemberg." The cutting short of Col. Higginson's name in this characteristic French fashion will fortunately do no harm, and we may hope for his 'Young Folks' History of the United States' as great a success in France as here; it is fully as much needed there.

—The second and concluding paper on "The English Workingman and Commercial Crises," by Octave Thanet, is the prominent contribution to *Lippincott's* for May, as its predecessor was of the April number. It is a study of the causes which created and have widened the gulf between the laborer and the higher classes. The philanthropic efforts of England, both private and public, have shown that the condition of the farmer is not due to class oppression, Mr. Thanet thinks. Though the promise of the free-traders to cheapen food went unfulfilled, wages advanced more than grain, capital immensely increased in proportion to population, the number of paupers decreased one-fourth from 1851 to 1857, and the panic of the latter year was so temporary that it disclosed the great gain in the country's recuperative power. Still, the laborer's general condition has not improved, and the remedy for this is yet to be sought. He is improvident; loss of work brings him on the poor-rates in from a fortnight to six months; he lives without hope, and dies in the station he was born in; he marries earlier and more heedlessly than any other class; his standard of comfort is low, so that increased wages generally lead him into extravagance and dissipation; he fights against the great forces of the modern world—combination of capital, division of labor, and machinery—which every other class has accepted, and is thus practically "an uncivilized man in a civilized world." The remedy cannot be a return to feudalism in any respect. It is only civilization that enables England to feed her 24,000,000, scantily as they are now fed. The only alternative is for the laborer to adapt himself to civilization. And the task of the future, according to Mr. Thanet, is the enlightenment of labor to this end. He mentions various agencies in detail, among which he sets a high value upon co-operation.

—In the May *Atlantic* Mr. Howells brings us back to human interest in "The Undiscovered Country," and we have a near prospect of something more vivacious than Shakers and Spiritualists in the re-entrance of the cynical Boston journalist. Mr. Aldrich's "The Stillwater Tragedy" busies itself with retracing its steps, and is far less sensational and more like the Rollo books than the opening chapters. Mr. Bishop has a good short story called "McIntyre's False Face." Mr. White resumes his "British Americanisms," and is betrayed into asking, apropos of Mr. Bartlett's including "mahogany" among words usually regarded as peculiar to the United States, "What human creature on the outside of a lunatic asylum ever so regarded it?" "The Examination System in Education" is sensibly and suggestively discussed by Willard Brown; there is a paper on "The Democratic Presidential Nomination" that anybody might have written; the conclusion of the "Records" of the late Mr. Hunt is trivial enough to be almost in bad taste; and among the literary articles and reviews, of which latter there are many, is a paper on Crabbe by G. E. Woodberry, and one by T. S. Perry on Zola's latest novel, which Mr. Perry finds very nasty indeed, and does not scruple to say so vigorously. This is more just than to call Zola "a mediocre writer," and his position "a very second-rate" one, or, in fact, than much of the article, to our mind; a few more articles of this sort, however, may make it impossible to differ from them publicly.

—Up to the first short story there is not a weak article in *Harper's* for May, unless, as we probably should, we except the last one—on the Metropolitan Museum. This has a certain timeliness and utility which to some extent will compensate its shortcomings. It errs not through excess of praise of the trustees for their liberality and devotion, but by

fostering just that complacency over the method and result of past outlays which Mr. Stillman so forcibly criticises in our present issue. Mr. Henry Van Dyke, jr.'s, "Red River of the North" is an unbiassed description of a farming region rich enough to dispense with the exaggerations of interested capitalists, but not inviting enough to warrant one-half that has been written about it. The story is freshly and humorously told with the help of many interesting illustrations. We have found Mr. Henry Brace's "Old Catskill" above the average of this class of historical magazine articles. More excellent portraits accompany Mrs. John Lillie's second article on "Music and Musicians" in England, which deals with Albert Hall oratorios, the Bach Choir performances, the pianoforte concerts of Hallé and others at St. James's Hall and the Crystal Palace, the ballad concerts, the Moscheles musical parties, etc. "The Shad and the Alewife," by Mr. James W. Milner, and Mrs. Mary Treat's "Home Studies in Nature"—on spiders, as heretofore—will repay reading. Mr. Edward Cary shows us the best side of "Civil-Service Reform in New York" when he describes the modus operandi of the Custom-house examinations, and Mr. James's admirable practice in the Post-office. Mr. James, we are told, does not profess to be a reformer and does not cease to take part in politics; it is, therefore, probably owing to his lack of any ambition to be President that we hear no such insinuations against the sincerity and good faith of his examinations as the *Times*, for example, constantly utters against those instituted by authority of Secretary Sherman.

—The last concert of Dr. Damrosch's Symphony Society, which took place at Steinway Hall on Saturday, was the crowning effort of its conscientious, energetic, and enthusiastic head. Two names only occurred on the programme, Beethoven and Wagner. The master of the classical school was represented by his Ninth Symphony, the greatest instrumental work which the world has yet seen; the creator and hitherto unapproached master of the modern dramatic school of music, by one of the most powerful scenes of his great trilogy, the "Ring of the Nibelung"—the third act of "Siegfried," a work of immense proportions. The opening instrumental introduction in G minor is highly characteristic in its sharply-accentuated rhythm of the approach of the war-god *Wotan*, who has come to ask of the all-knowing goddess *Erda* the future fate of the gods and of his favorite child, the Walküre *Brünnhilde*. In the duet which ensues, the wild accents of *Wotan* are invariably accompanied by staccato trumpet and tuba notes, while *Erda's* solemn words of warning float mysteriously over the long-drawn chords of the string instruments. A magnificent effect is produced, as the goddess gradually relapses into the slumber from which she has been wakened and sinks beneath the ground, by the muffled drums, cymbals, and harps. The following duet between *Siegfried* and *Wotan* is full of grandeur and power, and the climax is reached at the moment when *Siegfried* with his great sword Nothung shatters *Wotan's* spear, that bars his passage to the hill on which *Brünnhilde* rests. The closing duet between *Siegfried* and *Brünnhilde*, whom he has roused from her long sleep, is one of fire and passion such as has perhaps never been heard in a concert room. In spite of some drawbacks—the absence of scenic accessories, the rather ludicrous effect of hearing *Erda* (Mrs. Norman) sing in English, *Siegfried* and *Brünnhilde* (Signor Campanini and Mrs. Swift) sing in Italian, and *Wotan* (Mr. Remmertz) sing in Rhenish-German, and insufficient rehearsing, both of the singers and the orchestra—the performance was exceedingly good.

—The public rehearsal of the sixth and last concert of the Brooklyn Philharmonic Society took place on Monday afternoon. The performance opened with a characteristic instrumental arrangement of Bach's Chromatic Fantasia and Fugue, made familiar during the present season by Mr. Joseffy's frequent repetitions of it. This was followed by the two scenes of the third act of the "Götterdämmerung." Those who heard Dr. Damrosch's performance of the third act of "Siegfried" two days before in New York, must have been astonished at the versatility of Wagner's genius. While in the latter composition the wildest passions prevailed throughout, with only one or two brief intervals of calm, a most charming romantic and idyllic tone rules the scenes which Mr. Thomas performed on Monday. The opening number is the famous trio of the three Rhine daughters awaiting the hero *Siegfried*, from whom they hope to obtain the famous Ring of the Nibelung, of which they are the rightful keepers. The closing scene is between *Siegfried*, *Gunther*, and the traitor *Hagen*, in which *Siegfried's* long story of his life is accompanied by the leading motives of the different situations involved—the motive of the Ring, of Walhalla, of the sword, of the fire charm, and especially the lovely bird motive—altogether one of the most beautiful tone-pictures ever conceived. Then follows *Siegfried's* sudden death at the hands of the murderer *Hagen*, and the scene closes with that colossal funeral march which Mr. Thomas has produced once before this season, and which seems to express the woe of a whole world mourning for its hero. The performance was fine in all respects. The three ladies were excellent, Miss Henne's lovely mezzo-soprano often sounding with mellow richness above the others. Signor Campanini was fully imbued with the spirit of the music and sang it with perfect taste. Mr. Remmertz was in good voice and sang in tune, a compliment which cannot always be paid him. As for Mr. Thomas and his orchestra, they had completely mastered the transcendent difficulties of the work, and the conductor led his forces with as much comfortable self-composure and good-temper as if they were playing a Haydn symphony. The work of the Brooklyn Philharmonic has been exceptionally interesting and meritorious during the past season, and the wholesome influence of Mr. Thomas's high qualities as a conductor and a musician is more and more perceptible.

—Both the Portuguese and the Brazilians are making extensive preparations to commemorate fitly the third centennial of the death of their great epic poet, Luiz de Camões (June 10, 1580–1880). The royal Government at Lisbon will despatch a war-vessel to some of the French ports to convey to Portugal all men of letters who may like to attend the jubilee and have obtained passes at the Portuguese legation in Paris. The International Literary Congress which year before last met in that city, and last year in London, is said this year to be summoned to Lisbon. The festivals are to consist not only of the publication of new and accurate editions of the 'Lusiadas,' but also of critical commentaries on it and the minor poems of Camões; and of lectures, dramatic representations, unveiling of new statues, etc., all relating to Camões and his works. The Portuguese papers abound with details concerning some of the new editions. Sr. Biel, of Porto, will publish only fifty-two copies of a very rich and accurate reprint of the second edition of the 'Lusiadas' (1572), preceded by an essay on the poet by Sr. J. M. Mendes Leal, one of the best Portuguese writers, now representing his Government in Paris as envoy extraordinary. This edition will be illustrated with fourteen steel engravings, ten chromo-types, sixteen wood-cuts, and eleven photo-engravings. The *Nacional* printing-office, also of Porto, will publish an edition with a thorough "enquiry into the history of the text," by Sr. Theophilo Braga, the best living authority on the history of the Portuguese language. The publisher Corazzi, of Lisbon, has in preparation a very sumptuous edition, of which only one hundred copies will be issued. It will be prefaced by an essay on the poet by Sr. Latino Coelho, beyond doubt the most elegant modern writer in Camões's language. Srs. Abranches and Duarte dos Santos, also of Lisbon, will publish an edition of the 'Lusiadas' with a new life of the author, by Sr. Pinheiro Chagas. The Government Printing-office has in preparation a new edition of the Latin translation by Frei Agostinho Macedo. The Viscount Juromenha, to whose munificence is due one of the best editions (in many respects the very best) of all the works of Camões, will have ready the seventh and last volume of his superior work. This volume contains an historical commentary on the subject of the 'Lusiadas.' Besides these, there will be other new editions of Camões's works. The *Jornal das Viagens*, of Porto, will issue a 'Parnaso,' or new and complete collection of Camões's lyric poems, preceded by an essay by Sr. Theophilo Braga, above referred to. A Lisbon publisher is preparing a 'Bibliotheca Camoneana,' or analytical list of all works, translations, etc., of the great poet and his productions. Some new translations will also commemorate this literary jubilee. The seventh complete English version has just reached us from the Government Printing-office at Lisbon; it is by Mr. Robert Ffrench Duff. A German translation of all the lyric poems of Camões, by Dr. Wilhelm Storck, of the University of Münster, has also appeared, as well as a 'Critico-biographical Study' of the poem and poet, by Dr. Karl von Reinhardstoettner, of the Polytechnic School of Munich. Dr. Robert Avé-Lallemant, for many years a resident of Rio de Janeiro, will soon issue his essay, entitled 'Camões, the greatest Poet of Portugal,' with Hermann Foltz, of Leipzig, for his publisher.

—The public festivals at Lisbon will consist of lectures on the 8th, 9th, and 10th of June upon the historical, philological, literary, and philosophical aspects of Camões and his works. These lectures will be under the auspices of the "Curso Superior de Lettras," or Royal Academy of Letters of Portugal. The proceedings will be published soon afterwards at the Government Printing-office, from Portuguese-cast type and home-

made paper. In the city of Porto, on the same days, there will be, besides lectures, dramatic representations of new pieces dealing with the subjects of the 'Lusiadas' and of Camões's life. Several statues of the poet are to be unveiled in various Portuguese cities, and the National Mint will have ready a large commemorative medal of gold and bronze.

—The Brazilians, whose language is the Portuguese, are not behind in their preparations to pay homage to the greatest poet of their literature. The corner-stone of the new library building of the "Gabinete de Leitura," in Rio de Janeiro, will be laid on June 10. The façade of the building is to be in the "Manueline" style, which was current at the time of Dom Emmanuel, the Portuguese sovereign when Brazil was discovered. The interior of the library, which is intended to accommodate 100,000 volumes, has been designed mainly by an American architect of this city. The "Gabinete" has already 60,000 volumes. Its directors are preparing a centenary edition of the 'Lusiadas,' followed by a Vocabulary by Sr. Adolpho Coelho, of Porto, one of the best living authorities on the philology of the Romance languages. The "Gabinete" has also ordered a new steel portrait of Camões, to be awarded as a prize to the best scholars in the public schools of both Brazil and Portugal during the year 1880. The Brazilian writer, Miguel de Lemos, a resident of Paris, will publish in that city a philosophical study on the poet. The same "Gabinete" of Rio will publish an *édition de luxe* of the lyric poems, and has ordered a bust of Camões and three hundred large commemorative medals. A great musical festival will be held at Rio de Janeiro by the Portuguese *maestro*, Arthur Napoleão, with an orchestra four hundred and fifty strong. All the Portuguese societies of Rio will unite in a series of lectures, receptions, etc., which have not yet been fully decided upon, but will take place on the 8th–10th of June.

GRAY'S RELIGION AND SCIENCE.*

THE readers of 'Darwiniana' will know what to expect of this volume, and will not be disappointed. They will find the same frank simplicity of style, the same intermingling of free scientific investigation and tender religious reverence, and in the abstruser metaphysics of the theme the same points of weakness. Dr. Gray does not hesitate to admit the failure of the cosmogony of Genesis, and indeed is not greatly concerned over it. He thinks it of little importance that it is now shown to be a compilation of untrustworthy primeval tradition, so long as we can see that it is impregnated with ideas that the world will never outgrow. "For its fundamental note is the declaration of one God, maker of heaven and earth and of all things visible and invisible—a declaration which if physical science is unable to establish, it is equally unable to overthrow." The old doctrine of distinct species, separately created by special divine fiat, "died a royal death with Agassiz," its last great supporter. "I am not aware," he says again, "that it now has any scientific upholder." Nature is seen to have been an unbroken series of forms without a break even between plant and animal, or animal and man. And one of the great laws of its growth Darwin has established. Natural selection by competition in the struggle for life is no longer to be treated as a hypothesis, or even as a theory; it has become established law. "It is a truth—a catena of facts and direct inferences from facts." "Taken in its fullest sense [it] is the only one known to me which can be called a real cause [of development] in the scientific sense of the term. Other modern hypotheses assign metaphysical, vague, or verbal causes"; this one is scientific, and certain. "There is no doubt that natural selection operates; the open question is, What do its operations amount to?" Will it explain the rise from the simplest to the highest form? Given the variations in birth, it shows satisfactorily how the best forms are preserved; but what law produces the variations?

Here we come upon Dr. Gray's principal point of difference with Mr. Darwin, who regards these variations as the slight modification which varying external circumstances produce in the delicate process of the transmission of parental traits by inheritance, and finds no evidence of any tendency to vary in any one special direction more than another. Dr. Gray, on the other hand, thinks that there is evidence of a special tendency to vary in certain directions (upward directions, we gather), indicating some undiscovered and perhaps undiscoverable natural law governing them. It would be interesting to know what the evidence is on which he relies, and whether it is anything more than the tendency of plants which have once sported in some respect to continue their roving in this unsettled direction. It is but a short time since it was held by very eminent naturalists that there was an unconquerable tendency in just the opposite direction from that in which Dr. Gray sees it, namely, to revert to the specific type. It would probably require a far larger amount of evidence to convince naturalists now of any such inscrutable tendency as this other one which our author hopes to find. The law of development is reasonably complete and adequate without this unknown factor; and tendency theories, though very pretty, are apt to be misleading, either in theology or science.

Whether there is or is not any such tendency, Dr. Gray does not suggest any supernatural interposition in regard to it. As a Christian he believes in divine control of the universe, but he thinks that it is by natural means under natural laws that the divine power works. We have no doubt (though it is not anywhere clearly stated) that his belief is that which has satisfied the greatest minds in all ages, the trust in an eternal first cause underlying all change, an infinite substance informing all phenomena. Giving up special providences he can still believe in the divine Being on other grounds, and, secure in the light of a higher revelation, calmly abandon all the attempted arguments from nature, content with the "assurance that if we bring the idea of God to nature we may find nature wholly compatible with that idea," and what we lose in directness we may gain in breadth and depth. This is, we are sure, the true reconciliation of religion and science, leaving science untrammelled and religion unalloyed. It is time that the loose talk about the Darwinian theory as a fanciful speculation of evil-disposed scientists was arrested; and while the present confusion of mind on the subject exists it can hardly be too often or too plainly set forth. Here we should like to leave these lectures; but there are one or two points where the author's usually clear sight fails him, and he turns longingly back towards the abandoned land. Thus we find him towards the end quoting with approval Balfour's argument for supernatural interference in earthly affairs and treating it as a true scientific cause, an argument which it is quite impossible to reconcile with the fundamental principle of modern science, that every event has and has ever had its adequate physical consequent, every natural effect its preceding natural cause, since the beginning. Indeed, in one passage our author seems to dispute this principle itself. Taking this in connection with his avowed belief in miracles it would seem that if we gave it its full weight it would destroy all the force of the argument which the lectures were written to set forth. Then, too, we find him unwilling to relinquish the argument of design, though he is not at first quite confident of its strength, and has himself shown its uselessness. Let us look at this more in detail.

We may separate the thinkers whom this celebrated argument from the natural to the supernatural can affect into three classes, and we shall then see that it affects them in different ways, but has no real validity for any of them. The first is the party of the extreme Right, the orthodox conservatives who have not relaxed in any way their old faith, and look upon geologic remains or scientific observations that conflict with the Holy Writ as misunderstood or deceitful. They see everywhere in life the traces of direct divine intervention, and physical laws become of little importance in comparison. The cause they look for is the first cause, and the unbroken chain of scientific antecedent and consequent they cannot tolerate. The Paleyan proof of providential design is grateful to them, for it shows this divine action in a satisfactory way. But it can have no convincing power, for it merely exhibits in an imperfect manner the great probability of an intelligent supervision which they were perfectly sure of at starting. It is a mere illustration—nothing more. It is an example of the internal consistency of a scheme which it cannot do anything of itself to establish.

At the other extreme the party of the Left, the scientific materialists, have other objects and other methods. What they seek is the physical attributes of matter, the order of the succession of its phenomena, and they have nothing to do with supernatural causes. A natural law is to them not the edict of a divine ruler, but a convenient statement of some invariable property of matter. They look upon matter as self-existent, endowed with a few simple properties of attraction and repulsion, of direct or vibrating motion, of chemical, crystalline, or organic combination, and assert that, these being possessed, the whole universe as we know it must necessarily result; and they refuse to go any further, regarding all spiritual insight or revelation as entirely beyond their ken. It was against this class that Paley aimed his thesis, and it is against this class now that Dr. Gray and the Conservatives seek to employ it. But they do not fully realize the change since Paley wrote, and the great accession of strength that the theories of evolution of Lamarck, and Darwin and

* 'Natural Science and Religion. Two lectures delivered to the Theological School of Yale College. By Asa Gray.' New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1880. 8vo, pp. 111.

Haeckel have brought to the materialists. We pointed out more than three years ago, in reviewing 'Darwiniana,' how Paley, with his consummate powers of logical analysis, had anticipated the possibility of just such a scheme of evolution, and had recognized that against it his argument would fail, but had rejected it as unproved. Now this evolution has become the head of the corner, and we must accept the consequences he foresaw. We have explained away the complexity of adaptation, for which no other theory than that of special divine arrangement would account, and shown how it must arise from the simple qualities known to inhere in matter. With this the design argument fails, much in the same way that the argument from supernatural interference at the end of each geological period fails before evidence that these periods did not end in the supposed cataclysm of destruction, but in quiet transformation into their successors under unvarying natural laws. It is not enough to reply that this is only transferring divine action to the beginning, for the materialist denies any such beginning, or, admitting it, says that the creation of these few attributes does not show any foreknowledge or intelligence or continued existence. A most powerful weapon of attack upon the unbeliever is thus lost, but, as Dr. Gray himself has pointed out, this need not shake our own belief, which has very different support.

Between these extreme schools lies the third—the moderate party to which Dr. Gray really belongs, notwithstanding the shortcomings we have noted. These thinkers combine the view of science of the extreme Left with the intuition and revelation of the extreme Right, and unite them harmoniously by making each supreme in its own province. They see in nature invariable law, and study it for that law, but they unite with it the higher knowledge of the eternal lawgiver and the spiritual life. They look to science for secondary causes and no other, and to religion for primary causes and no other. In their practical conduct of life religion may still give the vivifying emotion, while reason furnishes the guiding rules. They can afford to let the scientific part of the Bible go, as Dr. Gray says, for the essence that gave it life remains. But to them the design argument is worth least of all, for it not only involves intelligent creation with complete foreknowledge and fore-ordination to begin with, and so reduces the argument to the inevitable circle; but it violates the elementary principle of combination by which alone these thinkers are able to unite the tenets of schools so diverse—the principle of confining each of the two elements of the union, science and religion, strictly to its own sphere, within which it is free from interference or control. It is thus of no use to anybody, and belongs in the museum of antiquated weapons of logic, for which theology can give us so many specimens. It is hardly necessary to notice Dr. Gray's surely hasty remarks about setting up the design argument, notwithstanding its shakiness, in order to meet a belief in chance. There is no more chance about the one theory than the other. All directioned variation is no more accidental than special variation. The most out-and-out materialist is as free from this charge as Dr. Gray himself. We do not recall the writings of any modern materialist of importance where fortuity is put forward as a cause. Their belief is ugly and barren enough as it is without attributing to it absurdities like this. Their extreme position is, indeed, from a logical point of view invulnerable, like the extreme position, whether Calvinistic or Catholic, on the other side. But if the instincts revolt against the imprisoning walls of both extremes there is but one intermediate position that can be safely held—that union of each in its own field which we have described. Not that this true medium involves *per se* any particular scientific theory or religious faith. The holder of it may accept or reject the meteoric theory of stellar evolution or Dr. Gray's undiscovered law directing variations, but he must do it for scientific not religious reasons. He may believe or disbelieve in Swedenborg's view of God's downpouring love and knowledge, or Spinoza's demonstration of the divine unity, or Tertullian's doctrine of the Trinity, but he must do it on purely religious not scientific grounds. This is the elementary law of their combination, and this our author does not fully realize.

SMITH'S GLADSTONE.*

WHEN a book like this is published in the United States about an American statesman its character is from the outset so clearly defined as to render the task of analysis and criticism simple. A "campaign life" with us plays a well-recognized and important part in the economy of politics, and is seldom supposed by any one familiar with these to have any relation either to literature, history, or biography. But for many reasons the production of "campaign lives" has never received much attention from English politicians. It is the original obscurity of so many Presidential candidates that makes campaign biography so necessary with us. When a convention has nominated some local politician as the candidate for President, the very unfamiliarity of the world at large with the name and exploits of the great man makes it necessary that the facts should be published, and it is a natural and inevitable result that some friend of the candidate, gifted with literary fluency, should come forward and tell the thrilling story in a volume of convenient size, shape, and price. In no other way would the party know who their "standard-bearer" was; how, if a Republican, he volunteered with one of the first regiments that left his native State, took early ground in favor of abolishing slavery, and during the period of reconstruction never wavered in his support of equal rights; or how, if a Democrat, he has since his school-days on every proper occasion maintained that "ours is a government of divided powers," and that the only safe course is to abide by those fundamental principles of constitutional law handed down to us by Jefferson and expounded by Silas Wright and other great men. No such necessity as this, however, exists in England. The foremost English politicians are not the products of nominating conventions and the "unit" rule. They are men who have been constantly before the public as leaders of the Government side or the Opposition in the House of Commons during the best part of their lives, and whose careers and opinions are thoroughly well known. "Campaign lives" of Mr. Gladstone or Lord Beaconsfield are as much out of place as a campaign life of Washington in his time would have been.

Nevertheless, Mr. George Barnett Smith's volume—though the author repels the idea in his preface that his biography has any "polemical character"—seems to have many of the qualities which in this country mark a book out as a campaign biography. This is perhaps most conspicuously apparent in his final chapter, devoted to the "personal characteristics" of Mr. Gladstone. It is the peculiarity of the campaign biographer that he is not at all content with showing that his subject is a great man; he must show that there are no bounds to his greatness. The pen of the campaign biographer is, in fact, that of the enthusiast. Mr. Smith says of Mr. Gladstone that "in almost every movement of the age he has been a participant, whether that movement be social, scientific, philanthropic, political, or religious; while at some point or other his sentiments and sympathies have impinged upon those of every class in the state" (p. 571). He immediately adds, with a curious combination of climax and bathos, "the ex-premier is not only the most versatile orator, the most brilliant debater, and the foremost member of Parliament of his age, but is pre-eminently a Christian statesman." We might add numerous other extracts to show what sort of a biographer Mr. Smith is; but it is unfair to his subject to quote them. The book as a whole is not a successful performance. It does give in a tedious and uninteresting form the main facts of Mr. Gladstone's life, but the materials are all to be found elsewhere and found in a better state. With regard to the Crimean war, for instance, nothing could well be worse than Mr. Smith's statement of the causes which led to it. His account of the quarrel over the Holy Places is summed up in the following sentences: "The difficulties which had arisen with respect to these places already threatened disturbance to the peace of Europe, and they were the primal origin of the ensuing war. France and Russia were, at this period, at daggers-drawn with regard to the question of ecclesiastical privileges at Jerusalem. Upon this particular difference England was bound to admit that Russia had right on her side; but by and by the rift widened." In any critical account of Mr. Gladstone's life the Crimean War and his relation to it would be of extreme importance. At the time of the last Russo-Turkish war his enemies insisted that his attitude of friendliness toward Russia was inconsistent with his support of Turkey in 1853; Mr. Gladstone repelled the charge, on the ground that on both occasions he upheld the interests of the public law of Europe against a Power which was threatening to infringe it. In order to understand either the accusation or the reply it is certainly necessary to have a clear statement of the facts of the case before us; but such a statement Mr. Smith is far from giving.

It is a strong proof of Mr. Gladstone's force of intellect and character that even the dulness of Mr. Smith's pages is not able to efface it. Even from the stupidest chronicle the reader gets the impression of a great man, of a man whose name will live in the history of his country as that of the greatest political leader of our day since Palmerston. It is perhaps too soon to compare him with English public men of other generations, but for the formation of a general impression as to the sources and meaning of his influence and career the materials are ample. His politi-

* 'The Life of the Right Honorable William Ewart Gladstone, M.P., D.C.L., etc. By George Barnett Smith.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1880.

cal career extends over a period in which the English constitution, English law, and English society have passed through changes perhaps more momentous than have occurred in any other fifty years of the history of the country, and it is not unfair to say that these changes have been themselves reflected in Mr. Gladstone's own life. To say that he began life as a Conservative but feebly indicates the change in his opinions which the progress of events has produced. Mr. Gladstone was born in 1809, and was surrounded by extreme Conservative influences down to the time of his entry into Parliament in 1832. His father was a Liverpool merchant and a friend of Canning. He was educated at a time when the example of France had brought liberal principles into discredit throughout Europe, and particularly in England. He obtained his seat in Parliament in 1832 through the influence of the Duke of Newcastle, on the invitation of the Red electors of Newark. The questions put to him on the hustings by hostile voters carry us back vividly to the period of the Reform Bill and the anti-slavery agitation. One of these questions was, "Whether his father was not a dealer in human flesh?" Another was, "What state of things did he wish to return to? and ought a man to be put to death for forging a £1 note the same as for killing his fellow-creature?" Mr. Gladstone's address to the electors of the borough warned them generally against "that unenquiring and indiscriminating desire for change amongst us, which threatens to produce along with partial good a melancholy preponderance of mischief," and specifically opposed immediate emancipation, whether with or without compensation. Of the early principles and inherited habits of thought which led to the expression of such opinions in 1832 not a trace remains in 1880, and Mr. Gladstone is to-day the leader of a party which in early life he looked upon with the most extreme suspicion and distrust. This change is perhaps the most interesting psychological fact in Mr. Gladstone's life. A change from liberal to conservative opinions is one of the most common political phenomena. It is even frequently said by political writers that the advance of years of itself tends to make all mature politicians conservatives, just as youth tends to make every one a radical. But in Mr. Gladstone's case we have an ardent young Tory converted, and not very early in life either—for down to the time of Sir Robert Peel's death in 1850 he remained a Conservative, at least so far as party connection went—to liberal opinions, his attachment to which appears to have increased as time has gone on. He has himself stated in a striking way within a year or two the difference between his early and his present attitude of mind. In a speech made at Oxford in 1878 he said:

"I think that the principle of the Conservative party is jealousy of liberty and of the people, only qualified by fear; but I think the policy of the Liberal party is trust in the people, only qualified by prudence. . . . I am not in the least degree conscious that I have less reverence for antiquity, for the beautiful, and good, and glorious charges that our ancestors have handed down to us as a patrimony to our race, than I had in other days when I held other political opinions. I have learnt to set the true value upon human liberty, and in whatever I have changed, there and there only has been the explanation of the change."

This, however, is rather a statement of the result than an explanation of its causes.

But a more remarkable fact even than the change in question with regard to Mr. Gladstone is that he has never been seriously accused of insincerity, although all his later convictions are at war with those of the party to which he belonged in early life. His bitterest enemies have never really doubted the honesty of his professions or suspected him of advocating doctrines which he does not at heart believe in. Indeed, the view taken of him by those who sympathize least with his tone of mind is that he has rather too much conscience than too little. The following description of him by the historian of the Crimean War was once thought by hostile critics to present a very acute analysis of his character:

"If he was famous for the splendor of his eloquence, for his unaffected piety, and for his blameless life, he was celebrated far and wide for a more than common liveliness of conscience. He had once imagined it to be his duty to quit a Government, and to burst through strong ties of friendship and gratitude, by reason of a thin shade of difference on the subject of white or brown sugar. It was believed that if he were to commit even a little sin, or to imagine an evil thought, he would instantly arraign himself before the dread tribunal which awaited him within his own bosom; and that, his intellect being subtle and microscopic, and delighting in casuistry and exaggeration, he would be likely to give his soul a very harsh trial, and treat himself as a great criminal for faults too minute to be visible to the naked eyes of laymen. His friends lived in dread of his virtues as tending to make him whimsical and unstable; and the practical politicians, perceiving that he was not to be depended upon for party purposes, and was bent upon none but lofty objects, used to look upon him as dangerous—used to call him behind his back a good man—a good man in the worst sense of the term."

This reputation for goodness and sincere devotion to "lofty objects," which is perhaps in the long run the most valuable possession a popular leader can have, is undoubtedly the explanation of much of the success of his career. Goodness, however, in the hot battle of English politics during the last fifty years would not have brought Mr. Gladstone to his present commanding position had it not been reinforced by remarkable intellectual gifts. His genius as a financier has been so much dwelt upon that it has passed into a commonplace. It may be worth while remarking, however, that he stands alone among financiers in making finance when he touches it a popular subject. There is no branch of the "dismal science" which is more unattractive to even the educated man than financial administration, and the extraordinary power of Mr. Gladstone's eloquence can perhaps best be judged by the fact that he has been able to gather crowded audiences by speeches on a subject which usually drives them away. This power of imparting interest to a dry subject is, however, with him by no means confined to finance. It seems to spring from a deep earnestness of disposition, which for the time colors every subject to which he turns his mind. Mr. R. H. Hutton in his sketch of Mr. Gladstone has noticed this peculiarity:

"He cares even more than trades-unions for the welfare of the workingmen, more than the manufacturers for the interests of capital, more for the cause of retrenchment than the most jealous and avowed foes of Government expenditure, more for the spread of education than the advocates of a compulsory national system, more for careful constitutional precedent than the Whigs, and more for the spiritual independence of the Church than the highest Tories."

This earnestness is perhaps the most fundamental trait of Mr. Gladstone's character. Whether it is in any way connected with his Scotch blood is a point which must be left to English criticism to settle.

To turn to what the French would call the defects of Mr. Gladstone's qualities, his lack of humor is almost a necessary correlative of his zeal. An instructive contrast might be drawn in this respect between Mr. Gladstone and Lord Palmerston. Palmerston was in nothing more thoroughly English than in his strong sense of humor, and the number of occasions on which he extricated himself from serious difficulties by means of it was very great. It was not the amiable cynicism of Lord Melbourne, founded on a genuine indifference, but the strong practical humor of a man of the world, who regards the immediate object in view of far greater importance than general considerations of abstract propriety and consistency, and looks upon all abstractions with a good-natured contempt. Mr. Gladstone has nothing of this feeling, and consequently we find him always anxious and always ready to express an anxiety that all the steps in his long and eventful career shall be consistent with each other and with his general views of public duty. As he has much zeal and little or no humor, so also his career has very little of that mystery which has often rendered the lives of politicians of a far less calibre attractive. His intellect is anything but simple; his character is simplicity itself. And that "casuistry" of which his enemies accuse him is the product of both traits. The political acts of a great party leader are what mathematicians call the resultants of the combinations of his own aims and objects with a vast variety of aims and objects of others with whom he is sometimes closely, at other times remotely, in sympathy. Mr. Gladstone's aims and objects have always been singularly pure. Those of his associates have been good, bad, and indifferent. Party leadership could hardly have been carried on by Mr. Gladstone except by the help of a little "casuistry." In fact, we may almost say that "casuistry" has been the homage which his intellect has paid to his character.

THE GERMAN ELEMENT IN THE UNITED STATES.*

THE literature on German emigration to this country has received a valuable contribution in the volume recently published by Mr. Gustav Koerner, of Belleville, Illinois, late Lieut.-Governor of that State, and U. S. Minister to Spain under President Lincoln. The book is chiefly composed of short biographical notices of Germans who came over between the years 1818 and 1848, and who have in some way or other distinguished themselves. It is evidently the fruit of long personal experience and of laborious research in a field where accurate information is not easily accessible. A large number of Germans in this country will be

* 'Das Deutsche Element in den Vereinigten Staaten von Nordamerika, 1818-1848. Von Gustav Koerner.' Cincinnati: Verlag von A. E. Wilde & Co. 1880.

gratified to find in it reliable data concerning the origin and history of men and families with whose names they have become more or less familiar; later generations also will refer with pleasure to these pages for the memories that are there preserved from oblivion. But the chief and general merit of the work will be found to consist in its illustration of the rule, that in order to render the immigration of Germans profitable to themselves and to their adopted country they must enter into American life as it is, willing not only to influence but also to be influenced by that specifically American civilization which had been developed before them by a population mainly of a different origin. That the modern German immigration is fulfilling the conditions of a satisfactory amalgamation with Americans hardly needs to be proved; it will, nevertheless, be interesting also to Americans to trace the process, which is not always an easy one, through the varied history of individuals.

The book is dedicated to Friedrich Kapp, of whose works on the earlier German immigration it forms a worthy continuation. During the fifty years between our Revolution and the end of the wars of Napoleon emigration from Germany had almost ceased. In the eighteenth century it had been recruited chiefly from the poorest classes, who were driven away by sheer misery, education being almost confined to the ministers of the Gospel who accompanied or followed the masses. During the fifty years of cessation that German element had either become amalgamated with the English-speaking population or, where it continued to maintain a separate existence, had sunk into a low and stagnant life totally cut off from the development of the mother country, and at the same time not assimilated with the higher American life, its only product being that horrible jargon known as Pennsylvania Dutch. When, during the first quarter of this century, emigration began to revive, many undoubtedly were again driven across the ocean by misery, but the masses, and particularly their leaders, showed what a great change their country itself had undergone during those fifty years. The idealistic elevation of sentiment bequeathed to the new generation by their literary heroes and philosophers had combined with the national feeling awakened by the crushing despotism of Napoleon. In this fiery furnace of national misfortune the German people were stirred to their depths, and their character received that purification and strengthening which has led to the political regeneration of their country in our own day.

We all know how slow was the process by which this goal has been reached. It was, however, in the minds of the educated classes from the beginning of that period, and it was this that gave its character to the new emigration. A host of young men imbued with that spirit, baffled in their attempts at political improvement, and persecuted by blind reactionary governments, joined the ranks of emigrants and became their leaders and pioneers. Comparatively few of them remained in the Eastern States; among these were, however, such men as Follen, Beck, and Lieber, who by their weight made up for the smallness of their number. A large proportion even of the educated German immigrants of that time had set their minds on agricultural pursuits, and followed the then rising tide of Eastern emigration to the fertile West, where, a natural instinct told them, their active spirits were to find a freer field than in the East. We gather from Mr. Koerner's book, which naturally treats of this class of immigrants more fully than of others, that their first experience was full of disappointments. Those who had dreamed of a German commonwealth had soon to awake to the impossibility of their plans. The "Latin farmers" found the plough uncongenial and unprofitable, and had to look for more suitable employment. For this the rapid influx of population offered ample opportunities. A large number took to journalism, and laid the foundation of the German press, which under the succeeding emigration has gained such great influence in the country. American politics promptly engaged their attention, and the nativistic tendencies of the Whig party drove them almost to a man into the ranks of the Democracy. This, however, did not prevent them from joining heartily in the war against rebellion, and from transferring their allegiance largely to the Republican side when the issues were changed.

These German settlers in the West had the advantage over those remaining in the East of growing up side by side with a new population, all settlers like themselves; but if they reaped the fruit of their labors sooner and more abundantly than the others, it must be acknowledged that their success was merited by the manfulness with which they performed the service of pioneers for the succeeding larger immigration. The author himself, in spite of the meagre account to which his modesty has made him limit his own biography, stands forth as a bright example of the speedy transformation of the enthusiastic, educated German into a useful and respected American citizen. The value of such examples will appear all the greater when we consider that Germany will probably for a long time to come furnish the largest portion of the immigration to the United States, and that the future character of the American people must be to a large degree determined by that element.

The author gives as his principal reason for limiting the period under review to the year 1848 the consideration that the greatly increased literary force brought over by the later immigration will be fully competent to perform the work for their own generation. We trust that this expectation will be realized, but we regret that he has adhered so strictly to his resolution as to exclude notices of such men as Friedrich Kapp and Carl Schurz, both of whom came so near the limit that their lives would have made a most appropriate conclusion. Not unnaturally, too, literary and political rather than professional prominence has determined admission to this biographical collection, so that we find, for example, but a scanty notice of the Wesselhoefts of Boston, who did so much to introduce the homœopathic practice in Boston and vicinity, and to give it a more numerous and respectable adherence, perhaps, than it commands in any other part of the country. To the same neighborhood, again, Spurzheim brought phrenology and won for it distinguished supporters; and as he died there in 1832 and was buried at Mt. Auburn, he was, even if only a bird of passage, entitled to be reckoned as a constituent part of the German "element" in the United States—yet his name is omitted by Mr. Koerner.

The book is written in pure and fluent German, showing but slight traces of Americanisms; it is furnished with a full index, and bears internal evidence of great accuracy in detail.

RECENT NOVELS.*

IN noticing the first part of 'Nana' some weeks ago we spoke of the curious lack of verisimilitude which characterized it, and in the now complete work this is still more evident. The book is far too long, and the second half contains little but iteration of the scenes and incidents of the first. These were monotonous enough, but the whole work is a marvel of tediousness, not even appreciably relieved by what appear to such critics as M. Louis Ulbach sops to salacity, but which we are inclined to think evidences of M. Zola's uncompromising conscientiousness. His lack of humor is absolute, and indeed almost appalling at times, and for imaginativeness it is notorious that he entertains a great contempt; consequently his hard-and-fast theory holds his genius in a subjection that has become servile. No theory can be applied in this way; *à fortiori* one which is in the teeth of all accepted notions. The merit of his better works, such as 'Le Ventre de Paris,' is handicapped rather than assisted by his gospel of naturalism; they are able in spite of it, rather than because of it, in the first place, and, in the second, they are best when his imaginativeness succeeds in freeing itself from the fetters with which he does his utmost to trammel it. But although this is true, and M. Zola has always negatively demonstrated the soundness of the apparent paradox that in art there is nothing so false as unimaginative realism, it is due to 'Nana' to acknowledge that there never has been so successful a positive demonstration of it hitherto. And such a service deserves more than a passing recognition. M. Zola announces with a rather defiant air that he has endeavored to utter a protest against 'Marion Delorme,' 'La Dame aux Camélias,' 'Marco,' and 'Musette,' which he conceives as "a long procession of vice" having a very pernicious effect upon "the imaginations of young girls." The effect of 'Nana' upon such imaginations would certainly be different, but it is not at all clear that it would be less pernicious. Its effect upon other than young girls—whom one would say might be left quite out of the question—would be in the highest degree depressing and vicious if it were not for the antidote of incredibility which it carries with it. Beside 'Nana' one feels that even 'La Dame aux Camélias' is essentially a veracious story; the exaggeration of the *romancier optimiste* is likely to be less misleading than that of the *romancier pessimiste*, for the former makes no such claims to reality as the latter, and the reader is not asked to forego the corrective of his own experiences. The conclusion to be drawn from most of M. Zola's books is that the devil is far blacker than he is painted, and it is gratifying to find him so overdoing the matter in 'Nana' as to convince even the wayfarer that not even the devil can be of the unrelieved blackness with which he is there endued. 'Nana' resembles a scientific treatise upon vice acting *in vacuo;* the action of vicious forces in life is, of course, essentially modified by friction of various kinds, and any novel that is really "naturalis-

* 'Nana. By Emile Zola. Translated by John Stirling.' Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 1880.

tic" will consider these. M. Zola has never done this, but has always employed his acute observation in the vivid depiction of details that give a great air of reality to his works, and go far to disguise the fact that the essence of each of them is conceived as a scientific thesis. Here, however, the details themselves are so monotonous and so clumsily managed as to weaken rather than enforce the truth of what may fairly be called the argument. The one admirable thing in the book is the shallowness of Nana. Everything else is, to reverse the ordinary phrase, too bad to be true; or at least is so set forth as to leave an entirely false total impression. Every man who runs across Nana is ruined, every incident in which she figures is of the dullest vulgarity; there is no revelry even that is not stupid, and no character that is not both vicious and brainless; and the implication that all this is a photograph of a very large part of human life becomes gradually absurd. In other respects than this of unveracity the probable verdict of all serious people, whether anchorites or men of the world, will be that it is a waste of words to consider it at any length. This is the almost unanimous verdict of Paris, where the intricacies of its subject are pretty well understood, it may be assumed, and where the sensation it has made is perhaps explicable on the ground that M. Zola's fame is great and well-earned, and which is always more or less excited over any literary event whatever. 'Nana,' in fine, is not worth reading, but every one who has been irritated by the extent to which the theory of "le naturalisme" has been carried will rejoice that it was written; it is a blow from which the cult of M. Zola will hardly recover.

No romancer has enjoyed more of the contempt and ridicule of the "naturalists" than M. Octave Feuillet, the novelist of the Second Empire. Much of this ridicule he undoubtedly deserves; in such a book as 'Onesta,' to say nothing of reality, "we are not even in the world of literature," as Matthew Arnold said of 'Hernani'; no writer of the most ultra romantic tendencies is more given to what Thackeray called "topsyturvyfication," which, in spite of the graces of his style and the undoubted charm of many of his portraits, places him among the "minor" French novelists. Nevertheless there is something very attractive about his work which makes 'The Little Countess' a refreshing contrast to the writings of some of his harshest critics. Although it is not among the latest, it is in certain respects the best thing he has done, which is probably due to its slightness. M. Feuillet inclines to melodrama, and in his more elaborate and ambitious efforts, such as 'M. de Camors'—a kind of 'Tom Jones' of the Second Empire—it involves him in intricacies of ideas and feelings where it is quite impossible to follow him without protest against his artificiality. But 'The Little Countess' is distinctly a minor work; it is simple and genuine, and its scheme permits the writer to display all his cleverness, which is great; his tact, which is considerable, and his workmanship, which is perfect. It is not a large enough thing to tempt his imagination to part with experience and observation, which is usually his main error; one may even suspect that the little Countess herself is a portrait, so sympathetically and distinctly is she depicted. There must have been not a few such products of the artificial and yet haphazard society of the Empire; the merit of the book is that it does not paint the manners of the period as illustrated in the conduct of a fiction of M. Feuillet's somewhat sentimental imagination, but the effect of such manners upon a real and passionate nature. The dénouement is very pathetic, and though, as always, the hopelessness of the tragedy seems partly due to the author's wilfulness, there is no slow music to detract from its impressiveness.

It is no small relief, however, to get into the realm of pure romance after sufficient doses of contemporary fiction, and we can heartily commend to all experienced novel-readers the 'Captain Fracasse' of Gautier, which has nothing contemporary about it. It belongs to the category of 'Don Quixote' and 'Tom Jones' and 'Wilhelm Meister'—we are not sure that we ought not to add of 'The Three Spaniards' also. Its reality is, like that of all the old romance, not at all resident in scrupulous and laborious fidelity of local color and infinite detail, but in the truth of its general drift and purport. There are villains and heroes, and maidens and wenches, bravos and faithful old servants, ruined châteaux, castles with moats, old inns, highwaymen, expert swordsmen, actors, noblemen, soldiers, peasants, midnight and midday duels, encounters with abductors and bandits, gallantries, and, indeed, all the ingredients of the old-fashioned romantic olio. There is a great deal of human nature in it, which the reader wholly given over to the modern novel may easily miss. Heightened as its tone may seem to those who only think of Gautier as a "lapidary of chiselled verse," its exaggeration is unfailingly artistic; the style fits the matter like a glove. It is a striking evidence of Gautier's imaginative range, of his fulness and force. It has about it an air of health and genial humor, of careless ease and absolute freedom, that is superb. A few figures, for example, are used over and over with a frankness which in another writer would betray poverty, but here only augments the sense one has of a wealth of resources that renders picking and choosing quite needless. The hero is the amiable hero of Scott, though a little more accentuated, perhaps. Nearly all the characters are vividly individualized. The time is that of Louis XIII., and we imagine that the archaism of the book is accurate in the main. Between the two translations before us there is little choice; the first-named, however, omits entirely the intrigue between Leander and the Marquise de Bruyères, and thus sacrifices a good deal of humor; this cannot but be regarded as over-squeamishness, as one of the chief characteristics of the book is that there is nothing low about it, and as long as they do not expurgate Fielding it is scarcely too much to demand of our publishers that they should print such a masterpiece of literary art as 'Captain Fracasse' as it was written, or else let it alone.

'The Return of the Princess' is a short story in which the life of the harem in Cairo is portrayed by a young Egyptian princess who has been educated in Paris, and thus views it through Western spectacles. This it does very well, though how much reliance is to be placed upon it will have to be learned elsewhere. As the story in itself is barely more than readable it will be seen that the book is not an important one.

'Democracy' is called "an American novel," but there are traces in it of other than American handiwork. The attentive reader will be in several minds about it; in parts it displays a thorough familiarity with "American institutions," which in others seems so dissociated from any native sympathy as to spring wholly from intimate and long observation from without. In saying that, as a whole, it leaves a general impression such as the work of some clever Englishwoman long resident in Washington and a practised writer, carefully revised and edited by an American, might leave, it is not meant to hazard a guess as to its author, but to give a description of the book. It is written with enough skill to induce a wish that it were more skilful, its cardinal defect being that its two elements, the love story and the political satire, are not better blended. The first half is pretty dull reading, and the rest is of rather more interest than that of the average novel. It is extremely unequal, and a little of it, from a literary point of view, "inscrutably vulgar," to borrow one of its phrases. The story is of an attractive and educated young widow, rather blasée but fond of "power," who takes up her abode in Washington determined to learn what goes on behind the political curtain, and view the movements of the wheels within wheels for herself. Though she has a notion of reforming all public abuses she is not much overdone. The same can scarcely be said for the Senator who tries to marry her, and whom she looks upon with great favor as a probable President and a coadjutor in the work of reform, until she finds out that his hands are soiled with bribery. Thereupon she throws him over, and it is hinted will some day marry a Virginia gentleman, who is apparently almost the only honorable person Washington contains. As it is the portrayal of Washington politics that the book evidently relies upon, and as it is the love story that is interesting, it cannot be called a great success. Nevertheless, there is much cleverness displayed in the political part. The main difficulty is that it attempts too much. To give a comprehensive picture of the politicc-social life of Washington something is necessary beyond the depiction of a few types, such as the strong party-man, the civil-service reformer, the cultivated applicant for a foreign mission from Boston, the cynical diplomat from abroad, the chattering woman lobbyist, and so on. These types, moreover, should be carefully and not loosely drawn. It is, for example, both loose and libellous to endue Senator Ratcliffe, from Peonia, Illinois, with the least admirable traits of several well-known public men who are easily recognizable; the result is not a worse man than is conceivable, of course, but a type which either does not exist, or at all events does not figure importantly. No amount of cleverness in making such a character consistent in itself and with its surroundings can make it a truthful type of the

'The Little Countess. From the French of Octave Feuillet.' Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 1880.

'Captain Fracasse. From the French of Théophile Gautier. By M. M. Ripley.' Leisure-Hour Series. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1880.

The Same. Translated by Ellen Murray Beam. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1880.

'The Return of the Princess. By Jacques Vincent.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880.

'Democracy: An American Novel.' Leisure-Hour Series. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1880.

strong party-man of American politics. Ratcliffe confesses to ballot-box stuffing and to having been bribed, and glories therein because his action was for the good of the party. No one needs to be told that, however great the shamelessness of some of our public men, to represent such a man as the probable Republican candidate for President is a perversion which must detract from the force of any picture of American politics. Throughout the book the same error is made, and the reader who mistakes it for portraiture will wonder how such a government can exist in the world, to say nothing of thriving. Onesidedness, however, is apt to defeat itself, and the effect of 'Democracy' will probably be slight on account of the obviousness of its bias and misinterpretation. Otherwise, and considering that it is as sensational in some regards as if it had a blackmailing intention, certain grave offences against good taste—witness the caricature designed to represent the American President's wife, and readily identifiable—might be seriously reprehended. All this part of the book is almost naïvely amateurish.

In 'Louisiana' Mrs. Burnett returns to her favorite scheme of idealizing the lower ten, not having made a marked success of her temporary aberration 'Haworth's,' in which there was only an attempt at the unconventional marriage so dear to her heart. It must be admitted that she is at her best in her ingeniously varied versions of the story of Cinderella, and loses something of the dramatic force which characterizes these when she essays representation of any of the facts of life. Louisiana is a beautiful young girl whose life in North Carolina has been simple and placid until she meets Mr. Lawrence Ferrol, a highly-cultivated literary man from New York. She has never heard of Ruskin, or John Stuart Mill, or 'The Scarlet Letter,' or Worth; about Michael Angelo she is not sure, but is ignorant of "what he did." Nevertheless, after a complication, in which Mr. Ferrol unwittingly affronts her by laughing at her father, who is an ultra North Carolina rustic with quaint ideas of grammar and homely notions about the fine-arts, she becomes Mrs. Ferrol and a great success in New York society. This last circumstance is, of course, told briefly, not portrayed. Mrs. Burnett is wise in always stopping as soon as her heroine is married, instead of attempting to interest us in the wedded bliss of educated men and beauties ignorant of etiquette, though possessed of noble natures and quick intelligences. She creates her own material and handles it very ably; the dialect, and indeed the characterization of Louisiana's father, are excellent; the affection of the two is delightfully exhibited, and there is much real pathos in the story. One of the advantages of a story written from Mrs. Burnett's point of view is that one can be comfortably thrilled by its pathos, undisturbed by the distressing reflection that it has any typical significance.

Miss Woolson's stories have all been printed in the various magazines, but they have merit enough to deserve permanent preservation in their present form.

'The Heart of It' alternates between the remotest wilds of the Sierras and a city of the Atlantic seaboard (presumably Boston), and is mainly noteworthy for the following original complication: Mr. Fred Heron is a young gentleman so ruined by opium-eating that he roams the world with every external appearance of a tramp, gets into a fight with a policeman, and is sentenced therefor to sixty days in the House of Correction on "the island." In the first hour of his incarceration there a very elegant young lady, Miss Carrie Dillaye, sails out of the female ward into his to be regaled with lemons by Mr. Heron, who, having found a balm in this fruit for his opium craving, administers the same for the brandy mania which is the young lady's peculiar infirmity. Her thirst is inherited, and though it seizes her only at very long intervals, a wicked stepmother has taken advantage of it to have her arrested and consigned to this retreat quite unknown to all her own relatives. Mr. Fred's lemons prove so efficacious that the next day he hears "a soft, silvery, tremulous voice, and turning round, there was Miss Dillaye holding out to him a small, flat flask" (of brandy). "Please, sir, if you'll only take it away from me." "I'll do that, Miss Dillaye; but you must do something for me at the same time." Here he hands the lady his opium-pills for safe keeping. The pair, having made this neat exchange of their respective temptations, then enjoy such a *tête-à-tête* as suggests that the facilities for flirtation afforded by a term in the House of Correction have been singularly overlooked hitherto. Nevertheless, beyond the release of one and the escape of the other unjustly incarcerated nothing comes of it all. She marries not him, but his brother; and he not her, but her cousin. The reader, however, will, we think, conclude that this is "of no consequence."

'Louisiana. By Frances Hodgson Burnett.' New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1880.
'Rodman the Keeper: Southern Sketches. By Constance Fenimore Woolson.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880.
'The Heart of It: A Romance of East and West. By William O. Stoddard.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1880.

Zoölogy for Students and General Readers. By A. S. Packard, Jr. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1879. Pp. 719. Large 12mo, illustrated.)—Our higher educational institutions have always needed a much better zoölogy than the market has yet offered—a work comparable to the several leading German hand-books by Thomé, Schmarda, Carus and Gerstaecker, Troschel, Claus, Von Koch and Hayek. The book before us is a marked improvement on our other native zoölogies and a very important approximation toward satisfying the demands of teachers and students, but still to a considerable extent without adaptation to our actual wants and to the purposes for which it was intended. It forms one of the "American Science Series for High-Schools and Colleges," while it bears the title: "Zoölogy for Students and General Readers," with a statement in the preface that it "is designed to be used quite as much in the laboratory or with specimens in hand as in the class-room." Its appearance and typography are commendable, and it is further made attractive by being fully illustrated by about five hundred and fifty figures. The invertebrates are not merely treated on a few pages at the end of the work, but the first half of the volume is devoted to them. In this respect, as in considering the animals in their order of gradual ascent from the lowest to highest, the plan of the more recent European systematic zoölogies is followed. "In working up," says Prof. Packard, "from the simplest forms to those more complex, it is believed that this is the more logical and philosophical method, and that in this way the beginner in the science can better appreciate the gradual unfolding of the lines of animal forms which converge toward his own species [*converge* is not exactly the word we should expect after *unfolding*]. Still, the learner is advised to begin . . . with a specimen in hand, the description of a frog, in order that he may have a standard of comparison, a point of departure from which to survey the lower forms" (p. iv.) The work on the lower forms is too fine and difficult for beginners, for which reason it is best for the student to begin with the coarse anatomy, dissecting a cat, a frog, a fish, and so on, proceeding downwards by the analytic, anatomical method, and only afterwards, in his advanced course, to pursue the inverse order.

On this account, and for other reasons, the book seems not adapted for beginners. It is too bulky for a first manual, or even for a text-book in the advanced courses of most colleges, and is disqualified for those commencing the study or for general readers by its lack of clearness of statement, technical description and illustration. The language is occasionally labored and wanting in perspicuity. Thus, the statements, "The primitive form of a cell, when without a *nucleus* or a *nucleolus*, is called a *cytode*" (p. 6), and "first, epithelial tissue (Fig. 4), consisting of cells of the most primitive form" (p. 7), together indicate that epithelium is composed of cytodes or non-nucleated cells, although the figure from Gegenbauer shows the contrary. "Epithelial cells form the skin of animals" (p. 7); they constitute only a thin outer layer on what is regarded as skin. "Muscular tissue is also composed of cells. . . . From being at first oval, the cells finally become elongated and unite together to form the fibrillæ; these unite into bundles forming muscular fibres . . . the cells forming the fibrillæ" (p. 8); muscle fibre is unicellular, not having the complex, polycellular construction here set forth, and its development (Stricker, 'Lehre von den Geweben,' pp. 1227–8, Leipzig, 1872) shows that it has no such method of formation. The explanation given above is a pure speculation, advanced as such by Schwann in 1839, and disproved by the observations of Koelliker and others (see Ranvier, 'Traité d'Histologie,' Paris, 1875).

Many institutions will doubtless include this among their reference-books, a use for which it was apparently not designed. It is too deficient in matter on important topics and very unfortunately without exact references to the literature, while the index is far from complete. The same objections lie against it for class-use. The student should know just where to find the authority for the author's statements, or just where he may amplify his knowledge on special subjects. Laboratory work is prescribed without sufficiently describing the instruments and precise methods of manipulation, in default of which its accomplishment is impossible. The finer organs and histology are very much neglected, while even the large organs are often treated in a very brief manner, sometimes with mere mention and without an allusion to their important details. Thus, the student would not be enabled to distinguish many of the most common tissues, and could learn from the anatomical descriptions almost nothing of those interesting and important organs, the eyes of verte-

brates, or of the minute parts of their ears. It would, too, have been instructive and entertaining to present something of the "unfolding lines" which the unequal development of these organs in the chief groups of the vertebrate series exhibits. Yet in the chapter on this subject but three-fourths of a page is devoted to the comparative anatomy of ears, and the two and a half lines pertaining to those of vertebrates merely state that they are "two in number and occupy a distinct, permanent position in the skull" (p. 642); while we notice the verbal mistake that the word "eyes" occurs instead of "ears" in saying "The otocysts or simple *eyes* of worms and mollusks are minute." The author's descriptions (pp. 409, 417, 426, 429, 440) of the brains of fish-like vertebrates are so brief and incorrect that it would have been better to omit them entirely.

The illustrations, though numerous and mostly fair, are chiefly borrowed, and often not of the most suitable kind. More and better diagrammatic, anatomical, and embryological illustrations of an explanatory character are needed. Those made from nature expressly for this book, whether intended as pictures or diagrams, are very poor. No representation of the bats, the cat-family (in spite of the strange effigy labelled cat on p. 567), the dog-family, the salamanders, or the marsupials of our own country are given. Why not have figured the opossum as our typical and only example of the great foreign group to which it belongs, or our *menobranchus* as our most typical amphibian, or an American case-bearing moth and our *mantis* instead of the African insects related to these? The four Cuvierian branches are divided into eight, including the seven branches founded by Leuckart and adopted in Europe, and adding an eighth, unwarranted branch for sponges. The classification is not given beyond the classes except to characterize briefly some of the more important orders. European naturalists will be surprised to find the amœba-like animals in the group of Foraminifera, and that the author apparently does not yet entirely comprehend the morphology of sponge-individuals, as fully made out by Haeckel, but evidently regards as a single sponge what is really a group of budding individuals grown together in one mass. In the systematic portion of the work considerable attention is given to the development and metamorphoses of animals, but in the chapter especially allotted to this subject it is discussed in a very epitomized manner. Those who prefer their childish philosophy to that of science may regard the author as a very naughty man for accepting and teaching evolution, to which he devotes a chapter.

The Theatres of Paris. By J. Brander Matthews. With illustrations, etc. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1880.)—Some portions of this book have appeared in the *Nation* from time to time, and those who have read them will need no recommendation of it. Mr. Matthews has chosen a subject of great interest to most people, and he has the additional advantage of knowing what he is writing about. The chapters on the Grand Opéra and on the Théâtre-Français, the two most perfect establishments of the kind in the world, are full of valuable details and statistics. Mr. Matthews's appreciation of French actors and of French plays shows judgment and taste. Especially worth the notice of managers and play-goers are his remarks upon the "curse of the star system," and the admirable get-up of a play at the Français, "where the most insignificant parts are filled, if not by first-class actors, by persons who have studied long and know their business." It is a question, on the other hand, whether patriotism or a desire to propitiate this public has not misled him when he doubts whether there are actors in France "who in their respective lines are more richly gifted or better trained" than some in the United States. We might admit the equality of "rich gifts," but the better training is not to be had in this country. The French stage is excellent because the French audience has a cultivated taste; the French are born artists and critics. Our actors play too much to "the groundlings," and sacrifice their art "to make the unskilful laugh." No audience at the Français, the Vaudeville, or the Gymnase would tolerate for a moment the tricks of attitude and of pronunciation, the face-making and the repetition of old gags and threadbare jokes, which seem always to bring down a New York house. An actor is perhaps not to be severely blamed if he gives "the quantity of barren spectators" who make up nine-tenths of the house what pleases them, but this lack of cultivation and taste in the audience is a radical difficulty in the way of really good dramatic representations; and if we may judge of ourselves by the experience of our kinsfolk in England, it is a difficulty which it will take us a long time to overcome.

On the History, System, and Varieties of Turkish Poetry. Illustrated by Selections in the Original and in English Paraphrase. With a notice of the Islamic Doctrine of the Immortality of Woman's Soul in the Future State. By J. W. Redhouse, Esq., M.R.A.S. (London: Trübner & Co. 8vo, pp. 61.)—This little book—originally a lecture delivered before the Royal Society of Literature—is an instance of the animosity with which the wrangling between friends and foes of Beaconsfield's Turkish policy has been carried even into the sphere of polite literature. The author, provoked by the circumstance that the Ottomans have been so much "misrepresented of late by political hypocrisy, religious bigotry, and classical bias," and deeming it "a sin and a crime" to spread such misrepresentations abroad "thoughtlessly, wrongfully, mischievously, in ignorance of their erroneous nature," undertakes the task of vindicating the Moslem subjects of the Sultan from two severe charges—namely, that they have no literature or poetry of their own, and that the faith of Islam teaches them that woman does not possess a soul. The latter charge he endeavors to refute by quotations from the Koran, which may and may not appear conclusive, as is generally the case with quotations from sacred books. In regard to the former accusation he is more convincing and instructive, although wasting a good deal of his limited space on the reproduction of Turkish originals, and too much enthusiasm in extolling the Turks as equally eminent in poetry and war, if not also in science and politics. The particulars which he adduces in evidence are not without value and interest, in spite of his obvious exaggerations in generalizing statements; and some of the poetry introduced in translations goes far to prove the main assertion that the nation so often and so mercilessly assailed by Christian bayonets and invective is not devoid of literary culture or poetic sensibility. The following poem, "The Mirror," by Izzet Molla, appears to us the best of the small collection:

> "My mirror shows that matter's forms are but a passing shade;
> With its mute tongue it inculcates the truth that all must fade
> So purely bright, it takes no stain from glint of outward things;
> My mirror thus may adumbrate the souls of virtue's kings.
> As sage of old, my mirror's sheen, proceeding from one Source,
> Expounds to me the mystic theme: All nature runs its course!
> A candid friend, it ever proves its ore's integrity;
> The mirror pictures to my mind naught else but verity.
> For man's inconstant moods and states, to praise or blame the spheres,
> Is folly; not the mirror, 'tis the face one loves, reveres.
> No trace remains for long from good or evil work of man;
> The mirror's still an emblem true for his life of a span.
> Like poet's heart, confronted with a thing of beauty bright,
> His mirror instantly evolves a counterpart, of light."

The Life of Alexander Duff, D.D., LL.D. By George Smith, C.I.E., LL.D. With an introduction by Wm. M. Taylor, D.D. In two volumes. With portraits by Jeens. (New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son.)—Dr. Duff was a man of great energy, sincerity, and enthusiasm. His devotion to the missionary work in India was absolute, and within certain limits he was a practical reformer. His theology was stiff even for a Scotch Presbyterian, and great was his alarm on account of the critical conclusions of Prof. Robertson Smith, as embodied in his famous article "The Bible" in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica'; but he had the wit to see that an exclusively religious method of dealing with the missionary problem in India could only lead to narrow and unsatisfactory results. It was his idea that the religion of India must be undermined by general European culture, and the results of his activity, though sadly incommensurate with his zeal and sacrifice, were such as to justify him in his belief. At first, however, his new method met with decided opposition from his ecclesiastical superiors and employers in Scotland, and he was obliged to return there and argue his case before them. He did this with so much eloquence that it may be doubted whether Scotland has had since Chalmers a preacher of so much power as Dr. Duff could easily have developed if all his strength had gone in this direction.

Returning to India he resumed his work, not without serious resistance, but with a manful front for every antagonist. One of the most interesting episodes in the book is that relating to Rammohun Roy, the extent of whose divergence from the creed of Dr. Duff his biographer obscures as much as possible. He is fully persuaded that if Dr. Duff could have met Rammohun Roy when he was younger he could have made him into a Bengalee Luther. As it was, he was only a Bengalee Erasmus. Dr. Duff's visit to America and his labors in southeast Africa are of less interest than his work in India. His dislike of Bishop Colenso is undisguised. The best commentary on this is, perhaps, the Bishop's attitude during the recent troubles in Zululand. The two steel portraits by Jeens are exceedingly interesting, representing, as they do, the young and the old man. Dr. Taylor's introduction is superfluous. It is simply intended to recommend the book to Dr. Taylor's admirers.

A Brief History of Roman Literature, for Schools and Colleges. Translated and edited from the German of Hermann Bender, by E. P. Crowell

and H. P. Richardson, Professors of Latin in Amherst College. (Boston: Ginn & Heath. Pp. 152.)—This is a very excellent compendium of the history of Roman literature, well suited to the wants of those teachers who wish a mere outline as a basis of study or lectures. Nor is it merely a dry outline. By judicious selection of facts, and particularly by dismissing the least important authors with a mere mention—and some of them with no mention at all—the author has found it possible to treat the great authors with a certain breadth and fulness. Horace, for example, receives five pages, and Cicero twelve. What is of more importance (the history of literature being too often regarded as nothing but a history of *authors*), the properly historical chapters are admirable, containing in a very small space a good sketch of the growth of the Roman mind in its relations to literature. There is a good index and a very useful chronological table of Roman authors (classified) at the end of the book. The translators also have added a number of references to English and American books.

Stimmungsbilder aus dem Vermächtniss einer alten Frau. Von der Verfasserin der 'Memoiren einer Idealistin.' (Leipzig. 1879. New York: L. W. Schmidt.)—The authoress of this little volume, an enthusiastic advocate of woman's rights, gives in a series of prettily-written essays her views on the position of women in society, in politics, as mothers, etc. She says nothing particularly new or striking; on the contrary, her article on the education of children is a rather weak and diluted synopsis of Rousseau's 'Émile,' and her essay on the political rights of women an exaggerated expression of Stuart Mill's ideas. Though undoubtedly a kindly-disposed, warm-hearted, and well-read woman, she nevertheless takes a rather gloomy, not to say pessimistic, view of things in general. She cites, of course, Goethe's well-known declaration, that he had hardly been happy for four weeks during his life. In an unguarded moment of accidental despondency the happiest, most favored of all public men, who, during a life of eighty-three years of unparalleled success in his career, hardly ever experienced the bitterness of a disappointment, uttered these entirely untrue words, which have been quoted, or rather misquoted, hundreds of times by persons of unsound digestion or suffering from a temporary and petty affliction. There is a very pure and kindly motherly spirit in these essays; they are addressed to women, and will no doubt afford a certain amount of superficial instruction and light entertainment to some readers.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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OFFICE OF THE COMMISSIONERS OF LINCOLN PARK,

ROOM 34, ASHLAND BLOCK,
CHICAGO, April 12, 1880.

Notice is hereby given that at a meeting of the Commissioners of Lincoln Park, held at their office in the city of Chicago on the 3d day of April, 1880, fifty of the Lincoln Park Bonds, numbered as below, were selected by lot for retirement, and the principal and interest of the said designated bonds will be paid at the American Exchange National Bank in New York City on the first day of April, A.D. 1881.

The bonds so designated are numbers 1, 34, 36, 38, 46, 65, 69, 75, 80, 102, 112, 158, 177, 195, 238, 242, 256, 263, 286, 298, 420, 455, 466, 481, 524, 528, 537, 548, 565, 579, 594, 616, 635, 647, 660, 673, 675, 692, 702, 713, 714, 739, 774, 794, 800, 809, 819, 821, 847, 867.

THE COMMISSIONERS OF LINCOLN PARK.
E. S. TAYLOR, Secretary.

OREGON RAILWAY & NAVIGATION COMPANY.

Sealed proposals will be received at the office of the Farmers' Loan & Trust Company, No. 26 Exchange Place, for the sale to the Trustees of Thirty Bonds of the Oregon Railway & Navigation Company, for the Sinking Fund, as provided in the mortgage to the undersigned securing the same.

Proposals should be directed to R. G. Rolston, President, No. 26 Exchange Place, and must be presented before 12 o'clock M. on the 1st proximo.

THE FARMERS' LOAN & TRUST CO., Trustees.
By R. G. ROLSTON, President.

NEW YORK, April 15, 1880.

OREGON RAILWAY & NAVIGATION COMPANY,

20 NASSAU STREET, NEW YORK, April 13, 1880.

The Board of Directors have declared a quarterly dividend of two (2) per cent., payable May 1, at the Farmers' Loan & Trust Co. The transfer-books close April 20 and reopen May 5.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 29, 1880.

The Week.

THE Republican Conventions of Virginia and Georgia last week proved very turbulent bodies, and held several excited sessions. In Virginia there was no question as to the preference of the convention for the candidacy of General Grant, and the delegation to Chicago was pledged to support him, without protest. But the overtures of the Mahone Repudiationists gave rise to a warm contest over the matter of appointing Presidential electors; those who favored a coalition with the "Readjusters" advocating deferring the choice of these, while the "Straight-outs" vigorously opposed any postponement and all affiliation with the Mahone faction. The two parties were very evenly divided, and the opponents of coalition were successful only after a long and heated discussion, and by a vote of 69 to 61. It is now alleged on the one side that Mahone will support Grant in any event, for the sake of getting a share of the Federal patronage, and on the other that the Republicans have thrown away an excellent chance of carrying Virginia, and giving its final quietus to the already beaten Bourbon Democracy of the State. It is not unaffecting to observe the chastened satisfaction with which the New York *Times* and other advocates of true Republican principles as against the policy of the moment contemplate this sacrifice.

The *Times* draws a vivid and pathetic picture of the Georgia Convention, in which it seems the Grant men were outrageously treated. Owing to their indisposition to submit to being snubbed and cheated, and to the vigorous protest they made, at least one adjournment was rendered necessary, and even subsequent sessions were marked by a disorder which obscured the proceedings so effectually that it would be impossible to get at the truth and right of the matter were it not for the "wholly unprejudiced" account furnished by the *Times*. In the light of this we discover that the people of Georgia, being almost unanimous for Grant, elected a Grant convention, or would have done so if their will had not been thwarted by a fusion of Treasury agents and Blaine "workers"; and that the enemy captured this body in the most barefaced manner after having paved its way by "spending money freely," and "systematic packing," and the use of proxies from Grant counties by the dozen. The result was, that the only deliberation of the convention concerned prospective honors and emoluments, of which, according to one resolution introduced, the negroes were to be considered entitled to one-half, and, according to another amending it, to three-quarters, and that the Chicago delegation chosen stands eight each for Blaine and Sherman, and six for Grant. The Oregon delegation, also chosen last week, is reported to be in favor of Blaine.

The speech of Senator Jacobs at Albany the other day is one of those public utterances which are called "significant." Coming on the heels of the Syracuse Convention, the action of which is popularly supposed to have increased the probability of Tilden's nomination at Cincinnati, and over whose deliberations Mr. Jacobs presided, its announcement that the Democrats proposed to nominate the strongest man they had, whether he should prove to be Tilden or not, naturally created surprise in some quarters and consternation in others. The Albany *Argus* made a comic attempt at an official explanation, viz., that the remark was intended in a Pickwickian sense; some of the Grant journals are equally anxious that it may not be taken seriously. Several circumstances render this difficult, however. Jacobs is one of the shrewdest and most cautious of that class of men who pursue political intrigue as an art; he has hitherto been a firm supporter of Tilden, and, like the rest of the Kings County Democrats, has vigorously opposed Kelly and Tammany. Moreover, the Brooklyn *Eagle* has betaken itself to elaborate expositions of the unwisdom of nominating Tilden, having, after an offensive and defensive alliance rarely equalled for duration and intimacy, suddenly broken with "Boss" McLaughlin, one of Tilden's stoutest henchmen. All this may mean either an anti-Tilden revolt much better engineered than Kelly's blundering opposition, or, which seems far more likely, a semi-official notification that the "cruel old spider of Cipher Ailey" means so to arrange matters that he shall be consulted instead of combated at Cincinnati.

The present House of Representatives has three times within the space of two months been made the victim of deliberate imposition on the part of its own members, so that the existence of a mania may fairly be suspected. Mr. Acklen, of Louisiana, first showed symptoms of it in February, when he presented and got printed a report purporting to come from the Committee on Foreign Affairs, but in reality an unauthorized concoction of his own; and that he has not recovered is proved by his introduction last week of a bill having no relation to the report which was supposed to accompany and justify it, and which on investigation turned out to be a plagiarism from Chief-Justice Marshall in a famous case to be found in the law-books. In March Mr. Townshend, of Illinois, was smitten, and secured a reference for a bill to amend the tariff with only sectional indications in its title, by which the House was quite thrown off its guard, as the honorable member expected it would be. Finally, the contagion reached the delegate from Wyoming Territory, Mr. Stephen W. Downey, who on Monday, April 12, introduced a bill "providing for certain paintings on the walls of the National Capitol"—namely, to commemorate "the birth, life, death, and resurrection of our Saviour Jesus Christ, as told in the four Gospels of Matthew, Mark, Luke, and John," and on the following day was accorded permission to print his "argument" in favor of the bill. A week ago this argument appeared, covering the first fifteen pages of the *Congressional Record*, and copyrighted by the author, with "all rights reserved"—the rights of the House of Representatives excepted. It consisted of a poem entitled "The Immortals," in Wyoming blank-verse, interspersed with metrical quotations from Dante, Tennyson, "The Rock of Ages," etc., and adorned with a pictorial emblem. The mischief having been done in this case, the House was powerless to repair it except in the bound volume of the *Record*; and it can only hope that Mr. Downey's successor, however great his impudence or conceit, will in vain attempt to improve upon this pious fraud.

The Geneva Award Bill was amended on Wednesday week in the Senate in such a way as to make Mr. Thurman decline to father it any longer. The claims of the insurance companies were rejected on motion of Mr. Hoar. At length on motion of Mr. Eaton, who regards the award as a national one, and wants the balance applied to the sinking fund for paying off the national debt, the bill was indefinitely postponed by what was virtually a party vote, the Republicans in the negative. The Senate has also passed the Army Bill with its rider, rejecting several amendments which will be heard of when the Democratic "record" is overhauled during the fall campaign; and it has begun in earnest the discussion of Kellogg's title to his seat. The House, after a futile resistance from the Republican side, has passed the Special Deficiency Bill with its rider as returned from the Senate. On Thursday, the ever-recurring question of centralization came up in connection with the bill to regulate immigration, which naturally has the support of the New York delegation, but is opposed by many Republicans on grounds the force of which can hardly be gainsaid. The head-money formerly exacted of the steamship companies by the Emigration Commissioners of this State was cut off by a decision of the U. S. Supreme Court declaring the impost unconstitutional,

The bill under debate aims to secure an annual appropriation from the Treasury (not only for New York but for all the seaboard States), to be used in meeting the expenses of the State machinery already established. The need of such machinery cannot be questioned, if only as a measure of national defence against improper immigration; but the bill appears to be seriously defective.

There would be little more to be said on the subject of the Geneva Award if the public had before it any report of the proceedings at Geneva, and had not forgotten the circumstances under which the award was made. This enables the war-premium men as well as others to indulge in the most extraordinary perversions of the history of the case, and to propose with impunity modes of dealing with the money which would astound people of ordinary morality if it were a transaction between individuals. The New York *Herald* of April 17, for example, had an article on the subject, in which all the fundamental facts of the arbitration were misstated with the utmost calm. The Geneva Commission, for instance, did *not* "award the United States a sum *en bloc* as a compensation for damages inflicted by three rebel cruisers." It awarded it to the United States for individuals and corporations by name and date. Secretary Fish did by agents or counsel "take precautions against any committal of the United States as to the disposition of the sum," but no such precaution or committal was of the smallest consequence. A litigant's instructions to his attorney do not bind the court or justify a refusal to obey its judgment after accepting money under it. Moreover, our Government *did* "appear at Geneva as agent or trustee of private claimants for damages," and, more than this, its offer to appear in another character—that is, as a claimant on its own account—was disallowed by the arbitrators. There is in the Treasury a large sum of money obtained by its proving as such agent or trustee the claims of insurance companies, *and which but for the proof of such claims would not have been paid by Great Britain.* It is now, however, boldly maintained in Congress that the insurance companies suffered no loss and were not entitled to anything—or, in other words, that the claim made for them at Geneva was a tissue of false pretences.

Mayor Kalloch's son, on Friday last, went to the office of De Young, the man who shot his father, and, in a fit of filial piety, shot and killed De Young. "Intense excitement," of course, immediately "prevailed." The assassin was conveyed to jail, where he is strongly guarded, and the Kearneyites also placed a guard round the Mayor. De Young was out on bail, and was to be tried on the 3d of May for his attempt on Kalloch senior. That Kalloch senior should be a minister of the Gospel is comic enough, but the joke is improved by the fact that Kalloch junior is a minister too. A conversation between the father and a reporter on the son's conduct has not been surpassed in recent literature. He said of the murder that in a short time "the whole thing will blow over," and he also remarked, with a noble optimism which ought to make him a "star contributor" to Colonel Forney's *Progress*, that it was "one of the inevitable evils which are not unmixed with good." The clergyman in him evidently triumphed over the parent, for he remarked with professional anxiety that he feared his son "might have some trouble with the Church," who would "have to try him for shedding blood"; but he "was not without hope that their action would not cut off the young man's usefulness in his calling as a minister of the Gospel." The son is the father's "assistant pastor." The proximate cause of his attack on De Young was the preparation by the latter of a little biography of his parent, a seemingly harmless if not complimentary work; but in our day and generation nothing makes some prominent men so furious as the production of their memoirs by a close and conscientious observer and investigator.

The charge made against Governor Cornell of having renominated Smyth for the Superintendency of Insurance with the view of giving him an opportunity to extort money from the insurance companies for the campaign funds of the Machine, derived only too much support from Smyth's antecedents in the same office. His last exploit, however, almost amounts to confirmation. Since his resignation, and pending the appointment of his successor, he, on the 19th of April, called on three of the leading insurance companies in this city to submit to an examination of their securities—a piece of work which to be done properly would take some months, and which, if there were any good reasons for doing it now, would properly fall to his successor, who was to come into office on April 30. That he had no *bonâ-fide* examination in view, however, and was simply in pursuit of money, he revealed in the most impudent manner, by requesting the companies to retain as counsel a firm in this city of which General Chester A. Arthur is head, and a certain William Laimbeer and one G. H. Henry as "valuators," and declared that the report of these gentlemen would be accepted by him "as correct." General Arthur's position in Machine politics is, of course, well known, though it must be added that his friends allege that he was not aware of this use of his name. Laimbeer is one of Smyth's henchmen, and figured in connection with the broken Third-Avenue Savings-Bank, and Henry is an active local "worker." What the money raised in this way might have amounted to may be inferred from the fact that Mr. "Tom" Murphy, another Machine worker and "valuator," charged last year, in a bill which the State Comptroller refused to pass, for similar work on a scale which would have given Laimbeer $186,000 for "valuing" the assets of the Mutual Life Insurance Company alone. What General Arthur's firm would have received as "counsel" would probably have been settled by private arrangement. Altogether the scheme, if carried out, would have furnished nearly enough to pay the expense of the great impending attempts to save the American people from "the uncertainties of government." The production of the correspondence, by order of the Legislature at Albany, has naturally produced a great sensation. What a picture it affords of the kind of régime in State and National politics a third term would be!

The Pennsylvania bribers have at last been called up for judgment, and, after hearing a severe lecture from the Court, have been sentenced to a fine and to be imprisoned for one year in solitary and separate confinement with hard labor. No such severe penalty has ever before befallen leading politicians for the over-zealous pursuit of their calling, and they are doubtless astounded by it. Kemble's case is a peculiarly hard one, as he is one of the best "workers" in the State, and has probably been as much moved by the horrid disorders in the South as anybody in the whole country. To be shut up, too, on the eve of a Presidential election is a peculiarly bitter thing.

The Whittaker case has made little progress during the week, but the testimony of experts as to handwriting exculpates the victim, while other testimony given under oath increases the probability that the real authors of the outrage will be found, if anywhere, among his fellow-cadets. A resident of the neighborhood has reported what a cavalryman at the Point told his father since the trial began, namely, that Cadet Burnett (one of the first on the scene after Whittaker was discovered, and who endeavored, when on the stand, to imitate the tying upon himself) had remarked "in the spring" that "if Whittaker didn't leave shortly, a job would be put up on him and he would have to leave." The effort to trace the identity of the three cadets who were said to have been at Ryan's the night of the outrage has only succeeded in revealing the fact that the discipline at West Point is no stricter than of old, and that cadets go frequently to Highland Falls for convivial purposes, in spite of Ryan's absolute denial. He was, in fact, flatly contradicted by his wife, and has since been arrested for perjury.

The officers at West Point have not only shown themselves very sensitive to public opinion about the way they have conducted the trial, but have had several sharp encounters with Mr. Townsend,

whom the Secretary of War has employed as assistant counsel to the U. S. District-Attorney, and who, if not treated with too much courtesy on his first presenting himself, has in turn not been careful to respect the feelings of the Academy. It is an anomaly, certainly, for a Government institution conducting an internal investigation under its own rules, to be subjected to the surveillance of the Government itself, under circumstances distinctly implying distrust. That, of course, is the real meaning of Mr. Townsend's appointment. We do not say that the Court has not invited this treatment by its attitude towards Whittaker, and its unwarranted presumption of a higher standard of honor and humanity among the cadets than really exists, when (as appeared in the evidence last week) an Indiana cadet actually resented Whittaker's falling in next to him. Still, Mr. Townsend ought to refrain from addressing himself to the reporters, as he has a great temptation and apparently no disinclination to do. Let us have all the light we can on this brutal affair, but let it be borne in mind that the object of the enquiry is not, whatever the result may be, to put the Academy, any more than Whittaker, on trial. The real defendants are the persons, as yet unknown, who bound and mutilated the unfortunate cadet.

In Wall Street the money market became "easy" during the week in spite of the stock speculators, and the reserve of the banks increased so as to show a surplus of more than $2,000,000. The market for bills on London became strong late in the week, and rates were advanced. The discount rate in London advanced to 2¾, or within ¼ of the nominal rate of the Bank of England. The Stock Exchange markets were dull, and the tone of speculation changed from day to day, with the result at the end of the week of lower prices. Outside of Wall Street all kinds of speculation are undergoing liquidation, but the substantial interests of the country are prospering. Immigration is increasing at a rate which has no parallel in recent years, and the figures for April bid fair to exceed those of any month on record; during the first three weeks of the month the arrivals at the port of New York were 33,852, and the arrivals at other ports were proportionately large. Importations of foreign goods continue heavy; the official figures for the whole United States for the first eight months of the fiscal year show a gain of $110,000,000 over the previous year. Of this increase 46 per cent. was of articles which pay no duty but which are used in domestic manufactures. Railroad traffic continues very large, and the net receipts of the leading roads show a handsome gain over last year, while many new or reorganized roads which were then earning little or nothing are now netting comfortable returns for shareholders.

The new English Ministry would apparently have been promptly organized but for the difficulty of satisfying the radical wing of the Liberals, led by Mr. Chamberlain and Sir Charles Dilke, which was averse to any office that did not carry a seat in the Cabinet with it. It is separated rather by temper than by aims from the Whig wing of the party led by Lord Hartington, and is now known as the Birmingham School. There is a distinct flavor of republicanism about it and a certain indifference to traditions which the Whigs hold very sacred, and a strong leaning towards American methods of party discipline and organization. It has introduced the caucus into some of the large towns, and makes a profession of openness to new ideas and practices to a degree hitherto unknown in English politics. It has furnished the Tories, too, with materials for most of their arguments as to the destructive tendencies of the Liberal party, and is very restive under leadership of any kind. It has apparently been satisfied with the Under-Secretaryship of Foreign Affairs for Sir Charles Dilke, and the Presidency of the Board of Trade for Mr. Chamberlain. The acceptance of the Premiership by Mr. Gladstone is generally received with great relief, and was, in fact, in spite of his bygone declarations that he would hold office no more, a necessary consequence of the active part he has taken in the canvass, and the large degree in which he has contributed to the overthrow of the late Ministry. After his recent performances in this field his remaining outside the Ministry would not simply have been a great anomaly but a distinct menace to the permanence of any ministerial combination. Lord Granville is to be Foreign Secretary, Sir William Harcourt Home Secretary, and Lord Hartington Secretary for India.

The way the English newspapers which have for the last three years been predicting the most dreadful consequences from the return of the Liberals to power now accept the situation, shows that the art of "wheeling into line" is making good progress in England. There has been no election since the Reform Bill of 1832 in which such awful things were predicted, by the party in power, as likely to result from their defeat. In fact, most of the ministerial papers, and particularly the *Pall Mall Gazette*, came fully up to the American standard in this field of activity. They do not take the defeat quite so well as an American "organ" takes it. The American paper never can quite conceal the joke which underlies its most dismal forebodings if things go the wrong way "at this momentous crisis," and generally manages to smile and go cheerfully into some other sensation the day after election. The English editor takes a more solemn view of himself, and does not cheer up for a few weeks, but this time he has been very quick in laying aside his mourning. The Beaconsfield editor already shows signs of being proud of Mr. Gladstone, and makes no attempt to conceal his continued belief in the durability of the Empire.

Some of the collateral effects of the Liberal victory already begin to show themselves. Of course Lord Lytton has sent in his resignation. Some of the Tory papers lament this as a sign that hereafter the Governor-Generals of India will go out with every change of Ministry. But, unfortunately, Lord Lytton was not a mere Governor-General. He was sent out as the exponent of the "imperial policy," and made himself active and obnoxious, and, as the Liberals believe, mischievous, as its propagandist. In other words, he made himself as far as he could part and parcel of the Ministry at home. Sir Henry Layard and Sir Henry Elliot come home for similar reasons. The change of Ministry ought not to affect them, but they both sent home loud-mouthed support of the Beaconsfield Turkomania and Russophobia, which Sir Henry Layard aggravated by an attack on Mr. Gladstone, whose political career he evidently thought had closed. The Prince of Wales, too, it is said, has called on Mr. Gladstone to congratulate him, although the Court inflicted on him the ostentatious and, we believe, unprecedented slight of not inviting him to the Duke of Connaught's wedding. It now remains to be seen whether Dean Stanley will persist in setting up the Prince Imperial's monument in Westminster Abbey. That scheme, too, though doubtless not of ministerial prompting, was the product of the "imperialist" atmosphere which Beaconsfield managed to diffuse through London society, and which made the Prince, in spite of the French people's emphatic repudiation of his house, seem a gallant young man contending for his rights, instead of what he really was—an adventurer seeking to excite civil commotion in a peaceful state for his private advantage.

General Stewart has entered Ghazni after a sharp fight with a body of eight thousand Afghans outside the walls, in which they seem, by a series of desperate onsets, to have penetrated the British line at more than one point, but only to be cut up by the cavalry and mowed down by the Martini-Henry rifle. Their loss, in proportion to that which they inflicted, is reported as enormous. The city was found entirely deserted, and the fortifications in a wretched condition. The boy Musa Khan, Yakub Khan's son and heir, was carried off, but it is supposed that he can be recovered. It is now freely predicted that this fight ends the Afghan struggle, but the same thing was said after the fight at Shirpur last winter. The Afghan forces are easily dispersed, but they also reassemble easily.

THE MACHINE AND THE THIRD TERM.

"I AM not now, nor have I ever been, a candidate for a renomination. I would not accept a nomination if it were tendered unless it should come under such circumstances as to make it an imperative duty—circumstances not likely to arise."—*President Grant's Letter to General Harry White, of Pa., May* 29, 1875.

"With the present term of Congress my official life terminates. It is not probable that public affairs will ever again receive attention from me further than as a citizen of the republic always taking a deep interest in the honor, integrity, and prosperity of the whole land."—*President Grant's Annual Message to Congress, December* 5, 1876.

If we suppose that the foregoing utterances were sincere at the time they were delivered, we cannot help being puzzled at the present aspect of our national politics. In saying that he would not accept a nomination except under circumstances making it an imperative duty, of course General Grant reserved some latitude of judgment as to the nature of those circumstances; but no one would infer that the possibility of getting the nomination by hook or by crook was one such circumstance. To say "I would not accept the nomination unless I could get it," would be both superfluous and foolish; yet that appears, in the light of recent events, to be the correct interpretation of the letter to General Harry White. The great emergency having been dissipated by General Grant himself in his Cairo speech, and yet again in his Bloomington speech, where he said: "The Union flag floated over us everywhere [at the South], and the eyes of the people in those States are as familiar with its colors as yours, and look upon it as guaranteeing to them all the rights and privileges of a free people without regard to race, color, or previous condition of servitude," there is no circumstance imperatively requiring him to accept a renomination unless ability to get it be counted as such.

If there be any other crisis making it an imperative duty for him to accept a renomination, it must be something which does not appear upon the surface. The clatter of tongues and the turmoil of State and county conventions show that there is a crisis of some kind, even if not a public one. The party does not get into a white heat about nothing. It is all very well to say that the Democrats are a vicious, unprincipled set, but this is no answer to the question why General Grant should be renominated, or why the novelty of a third term should be imported into our system of government. Blaine, Sherman, or Edmunds can be relied on to keep the Democrats out of office as well as Grant. Therefore the particular danger does not arise from the machinations of Tilden or those of Kelly, but has its seat in the internal workings of the Republican party itself. Even the common politician's last word, that his candidate can get more votes than any other candidate, fails when applied to General Grant, because everybody knows that he caused the Republican party to lose a national supremacy of sixteen years' duration. Moreover, nobody is so obtuse as to believe, or so brazen as to pretend, that the third-term argument will *gain* any votes to the party, while most people agree that it will cause the loss of some, irrespective of the merits or demerits of the person thus handicapped.

We are bound to presume, nevertheless, that there is a reason why it is an imperative duty on the part of General Grant to accept a renomination if he can get it. It is now too late for him to decline with grace or dignity; nearly one-half the States have elected delegates for or against him; and in only two State conventions has the issue been anything else than Grant and anti-Grant. The "circumstances not likely to arise" when he wrote his letter to General Harry White have somehow arisen, though it is not easy to discover them. The improbable contingency of his ever again giving attention to public affairs except as a citizen, which he took pains to impress upon his fellow-citizens in his last annual message, has become a reality, but its nature and complexion can only be guessed at, and may well excite the curiosity of the American people, if not of the civilized world. To solve the riddle we must ask who are the persons and what are the influences potent in the Grant movement, and what they expect to acquire as the result of it.

The first and most notable object that strikes the view in such an enquiry is the influence which wrested the State Convention of Pennsylvania out of the hands of the Blaine men, who undoubtedly had it on any fair computation. This was the work of the Machine, and it is quite unnecessary to tell what the Machine is, though its pedigree can be traced back to the Grant Administration without difficulty. It has become one of the most important, perhaps the most important, of all our institutions. In a country so much given to party spirit as ours has always been, popular sovereignty resides in the primary meeting and the nominating convention, if anywhere, and the Machine has seized upon the primary meeting and the nominating convention wherever possible. This is what the Machine is for—it has no other *raison d'être*. As against the mass of individual voters who fancy that they have something to say, and some influence to exert upon public affairs, it has the same efficiency that a well-paid battalion of police has against a crowd in the street. It may fairly be said that in neither Pennsylvania nor New York, the only Northern States that have yet pronounced for General Grant in their conventions, would he have had any chance whatever but for the Machine. This is not the same thing as saying that none but the office-holders and those whose interests are allied with theirs desire his nomination, but the fact remains that without these he would have had less than a majority in either State, and hence would have been out of the field before now. If he gains a majority in Illinois it will be due, in like manner, to the energy and successful working of the Machine.

In another paragraph of his letter to General Harry White, General Grant said that it was impossible for any President to renominate himself. This is quite true, but it is also probable that a President plus a Machine could nominate or renominate anybody, and could do so as many times as the people would ratify the nomination at the polls. In other words, if the Machine can renominate General Grant now, with a President who is indifferent, much more can it renominate him four years hence if he shall then think that "circumstances make it an imperative duty." Here, we apprehend, lies the real danger of introducing a third term into our political system. The individual voter is more and more divorced from any real share in the government of the country in proportion as the Machine becomes more compact, better disciplined, more obedient to a central power. Being reduced to a political cipher, the individual voter will gradually lose his interest in public affairs, and dry rot will set in. Historical examples of this kind of political decadence are not wanting, the misery of which is that at no particular time does the danger seem very pressing, though all the time it is becoming more difficult to recover the lost ground. It is not likely that any of us will live to see the day when the Democratic party will be any more acceptable to the average Republican voter than it is now. It may be more or less acceptable to the Independents and the class known as the "floating vote," but to the steady-going Republican, whose choice before the nomination is "for the nominee," and to the judicious-minded Republican, whose preference as "between two evils" is always for his own party candidate against anybody whom the other side can nominate, it will always be too utterly abandoned and depraved and loathsome to admit of any doubt as to the duty of the hour. Consequently, if any resistance is to be made by this class of voters to continuous Presidential terms, amounting to a settled regency, the time to make it is now, before the Chicago Convention. Those whom party ties hold more loosely will carry their resistance to what they believe to be a danger to republican institutions into the election, but the strict party man should bestir himself to-day, and if he should go as far as the St. Louis Convention he would do no harm, even from his own limited outlook.

We conclude that the "circumstances not likely to arise" which would make it an imperative duty on the part of General Grant to accept a renomination, are none other than the necessities of the Machine, and the Senatorial Group, and the local Bosses who flourished during his last term. Diligent scrutiny fails to reveal

any other crisis, and it is for the people to judge whether this is an emergency in which they have any concern, or whether, on the contrary, it is not one which they have the greatest interest in confronting and grappling, with a view to preserving their own initiative in shaping the destinies of the country. This initiative begins in the primary meeting, and with the great majority ends there. Boss government aims at seizing it—has already seized it in our two largest cities and in many of the smaller ones. The third term is intended to make the seizure complete and co-extensive with the Union. If it has any other logical aim it would be well for some of its advocates to point it out.

RUSSIA AS VIEWED BY LIBERALS AND TORIES.

ONE of the most interesting questions suggested by the victory of the English Liberals and the impending change of Ministry concerns the relations of England and Russia Under the Beaconsfield administration these have been as bad as could be desired. Ill-feeling between the two countries being essential to the Tory programme, it has been encouraged by all manner of expedients; and it may justly be said that if war, which has been an easy possibility at any time during the past three years, and seemed really inevitable during one long crisis. had actually broken out, the leading cause would have been not that Russia actually threatened any English interest, or that many rational Englishmen even believed she did, but that a reckless national hatred, aroused and kept alive by the basest arts of the demagogue, threatened to become too powerful for control. An actual trial of arms did not enter, perhaps, into Beaconsfield's plans. War was, nevertheless, very near in those critical months when the Russians lay before Constantinople and the English fleet was at anchor in the Sea of Marmora. The Tories were playing a desperate game. A single rash step would have precipitated a conflict. Yet, while the demonstration of the ironclads seemed to accomplish its purpose of keeping the enemy out of Constantinople, the truth is that the conflict was averted chiefly by the prudence and forbearance of Russia, and that the object of her fear, if she was influenced by such a feeling, was not England, but Austria. This will appear when the secrets of that period are thrown open to the world. The Russophobists were not satisfied, however, with this apparent victory nor with the cheap paper triumphs of Berlin, but persisted in a policy of suspicion, hate, and menace. The speeches of the Ministers, the articles of the Tory press, the measures of the Government assumed the desirability of continued hostility between London and St. Petersburg, and were well adapted for the purpose.

All this will now be changed. The Liberal leaders, like their party, have far less original sympathy with the institutions and methods of Russia than their Tory rivals, but they recognize in the enfranchisement of the Balkan Slavs a cause which may be good in spite of bad advocates, and are unwilling to see its interests sacrificed by England to an absurd national antipathy. They are determined that Greece shall not be abandoned in the flippant and heartless style of Lord Beaconsfield. They have no disposition to call the news of an alliance between the two great military empires of Central Europe "glad tidings of great joy." And in respect to Russia herself, seeing no reason for cultivating systematic enmity toward her, but believing rather that even her friendship ought not to be wantonly thrown away, they will try her measures and policy by the same impartial tests which they apply to other Powers, will not hasten to put a bad construction on every step she takes, and will sincerely endeavor to cultivate good relations with a Power which has no very serious antipathy to England, and heartily desires a good understanding with her.

A natural consequence of this improved policy, or rather a feature of it, ought to be a sincere effort to become better acquainted with Russia, and to diffuse such acquaintance among the mass of the English people. The chief ally of Beaconsfield was the popular ignorance of the "traditional foe," an ignorance shared indeed by the whole world, though deliberately fostered only by the Tories. But it is gratifying to observe that the desire to know more about Russia and the Russians is daily becoming stronger. Attention has hitherto been directed toward that country and people only on certain rare occasions, created by grave political events, such as violent movements of reform or reaction within the Empire itself, or European convulsions in which the Empire has been a prominent factor. As is natural, too, the knowledge acquired at such long intervals and during such brief periods was fragmentary, superficial, and untrustworthy. The figures of Peter the Great and Catherine II. were sufficiently picturesque to excite curiosity, and yet not real enough to prevent the rise and circulation of innumerable myths and legends which long passed for historical facts. The partition of Poland was a transaction in which Russia, for no other apparent reason than her obscurity, was made to seem far more guilty than either of her two partners. The Napoleonic wars in which the Russians for the first time came into direct contact with the Western Powers, and especially the campaign of 1812, gave us the jingling epigram of Bonaparte, with the alternative for Europe of becoming either Republican or Cossack, and the familiar history of the Count Ségur, long the standard work on the subject. The great events of the two last reigns, however, have at length lifted the country from the darkness of fable and superstition into the light of historical truth and exact knowledge. In this, the positive school of Russian students, several names are deservedly prominent. Mr. Thomas Mitchel, an English consular officer, had the advantage of being born in Russia, of living there many years, and of having official facilities for investigation. Although he knows the people and their language thoroughly, he has written little except Murray's admirable 'Guide,' and sporadic newspaper contributions; but the archives of the British Foreign Office, if thrown open to the public, would afford abundant evidence of his zeal, his industry, and, above all, his information. Our own countryman, Mr. Eugene Schuyler, is another pioneer in this field of research. In the language, the literature, the history, the politics, the society of Russia, he is alike well informed, and great expectations may justly be entertained of his life of 'Peter the Great.' Without aspiring to the character of a scientific treatise, it will not be satisfied with repeating the Czar's adventures in England as a ship-carpenter, or other idle stories or legends of the nursery. Of Mr. Wallace's elaborate work little needs to be said except that in the opinion of some critics it is even surpassed by the treatise of a French author, M. Rambaud. The Germans have, of course, the largest number of books on the subject, and the greatest mass of material, collected with their usual industry and arranged with their usual slovenliness. There are, besides, the purely literary authors like Turgeneff and Ralston, who have thrown floods of light on various phases of Russian life.

Mr. Wallace is threatened with a host of imitators, even among his own countrymen. Last summer a number of literary M.Ps. visited Russia, a practice which cannot be too highly commended. The privations of such a trip are, indeed, somewhat greater than in Switzerland or Italy, for the landscapes are dreary, the distances are great, official formalities are vexatious, and the language is a perpetual obstacle, especially to the student and enquirer; but, on the other hand, the railway accommodations are comfortable, the hotels of the first class are reasonably good, the people are hospitable and obliging. The more intelligent Russians are singularly anxious to facilitate the efforts of a stranger who seems to come with the honest intention of learning the truth about them and their institutions. Mr. Wallace testifies to this fact; it is, we are sure, the experience of every candid traveller. In short, the experience of every tourist who visits Russia in the right spirit is that the people court investigation, and are convinced that it will tend to expose the many misapprehensions and misrepresentations under which they suffer. The officials are not always to be trusted, though they are more easily accessible than those of England or Germany, and not more untruthful than those of Austria. But the officials and people alike will not give an enthusiastic welcome to English travellers who begin by denouncing the iniquities of the

and, and evince a desire only to confirm the bad preconceptions which they bring with them.

In addition to this negative source of error—the failure to visit the Russians at home or in a spirit of unprejudiced enquiry—there is a second and positive one. Too many people form their opinions of that nation from the itinerant specimens which they find in other parts of Europe. Now, the European or cosmopolitan Russian—the Russian of diplomacy, of the baths and the gaming-places, of Paris, Constantinople, Baden-Baden, and Monaco—is a person essentially different from the landlord, or the official, or the general whom one meets in the country itself. Whatever vices the latter may have the former is pretty sure to carry with him. He is by nature ignorant, narrow-minded, vain, and ambitious, is fond of display and coarse in his tastes. But while these faults in the home Russian are relieved by courage, good-nature, and hospitality, they are corrupted abroad by the exigencies of a different society, and by the addition of a new class of social and personal vices, into arrogance, duplicity, and a sort of wanton cynicism. The amiable chauvinism of Moscow becomes at Constantinople the restless foe of European peace. A dissolute noble on his estate is noxious only to his own narrow circle, but at the German bath his profligacy, though a little more refined, is also more extravagant in its form and more subtle in its influences. Ladies are fond of chattering politics at St. Petersburg, but only for home effect, while their sisters at the leading capitals or the fashionable resorts adopt the bolder tone of women of the world, develop a surpassing love of intrigue, and found popular salons which are avoided by decent women, but are frequented by throngs of needy and unscrupulous adventurers. These metamorphosed Russians—the intriguing diplomatists, the spendthrifts and gamblers, the political prostitutes of both sexes—are to most observers, and especially to the English, the types of the people and the authors of their policy. Nothing could be more unjust to the Russians. Nothing could be more reckless for England herself than to make her national prejudices and her foreign policy depend on the impression created by such idle adventurers.

When the English enquirer turns his back on such characters, and penetrates into the heart of Russia and Russian society, he will be surprised to find that the Anglophobists are much fewer in number than the Russophobists in England, and far less violent in their appetites. He will testify, if he be a faithful witness, that there is little deep-seated animosity towards the English. He will hear plenty of declamation against Germany, and even Austria. The manifest destiny of Russia in the East will not want noisy expounders. That the nation is offended at England for the malignant hostility of her course during the past years will not surprise, nor ought it to provoke, him. But he will not find England regarded as the eternal foe, with whom a conflict is inevitable. He will learn, on the contrary, that the Russians rather deplore the unfriendly sentiments of England, would prefer to live in peace and harmony with her, and direct their arrows against enemies nearer their borders, more keenly hated, and more justly feared. When this truth shall be accepted in England the complete folly of Lord Beaconsfield will become fairly apparent.

BISMARCK AND THE FEDERAL COUNCIL.

BERLIN, April 13, 1880.

AS you have been informed by telegraph of the immediate cause of Bismarck's resignation and of its non-acceptance, I need not dwell on the facts and will only give a few comments. The Berlin, and in general the German, people have become accustomed to Bismarck's whims. He is a man who likes to surprise the world by bold and unexpected measures. On former occasions he had announced his resignation as imminent in order to achieve some advantage over his adversaries, or the fact was only published after he had gained his point. This time, however, he reached his end by almost clandestinely inserting in his semi-official paper—the *Norddeutsche Zeitung*—a statement that he had sent in his resignation, in the same paragraph and even in the same line with indifferent news. Here everybody knew beforehand that the Emperor would not accept it. The papers and their readers, deputies and diplomatists, therefore, only debated the real reasons which had led the Chancellor to take this grave step. "What is he driving at? whom does he want to attack? is it a matter of home or of foreign policy? will old William surrender at once? how long will the comedy last?"—these and other more or less incredulous and irreverent questions were raised and answered by the public at large. In less than twenty-four hours all these doubts were answered by a very sensible letter from the Emperor to his Chancellor, requesting him to propose his measures for curing the defects of the order of business in the Federal Council (Bundesrath). As this solution of the so-called crisis had been anticipated, it made little or no impression on the public mind here, which only regards the surface and cannot appreciate the deeper meaning of the Chancellor's action.

In marked contrast to this indifference at home stands the excitement with which the news of Bismarck's resignation was received everywhere beyond the boundaries of the German Empire. In Vienna and St. Petersburg, in Paris and London, the impression was overwhelming. The telegraph worked day and night, stocks went up and down, and diplomatic circles were as agitated as if an unexpected disaster were threatening. If any further proof had been required, this general feeling of insecurity and of anxious suspense showed that Bismarck is at present the real centre of European politics, and that the mere possibility of losing him suddenly has a pernicious effect on the whole state of public affairs. This is an honorable though involuntary, if not reluctant, acknowledgment of the powerful and beneficent rôle which Bismarck plays in all questions of European politics. The idea first gained ground that he had been led to his resignation by motives emanating from our foreign policy, and especially from Germany's relations to Russia. It was for this reason especially that the political world had apprehended some grave crisis, if not a war. But, whatever may be said to the contrary, Germany does not want war, she even cannot afford it; and it can but be repeated over and over again that Bismarck is anxious to secure peace. His attitude towards Russia rather proves than refutes this assertion, and herein lies the secret of his strength with the people. In order to arrive at a just appreciation of the relations of Germany and Russia you must never lose sight of the fact that since the beginning of the century, if not since the days of Frederic the Great, Prussia, and with her Germany, have been, as it were, in a state of vassalage to Russia; that the Czar Nicholas considered himself the arbiter of German destinies, and was even respected as such by Frederic William IV., the smaller princes, and the so-called *Junker* (gentry). Even the present rulers of Russia, with perhaps the sole exception of the Emperor Alexander, still flatter themselves with the idea of patronizing Germany, and of using her as a tool for their own ends. As soon as they understand that we are fully their equals—and Bismarck is teaching this lesson most impressively to Gortchakoff and others—and give up forming alliances for the purpose of overturning the hard-won Empire, Russia will never have to complain of Germany.

While in this respect almost all the Germans side with Bismarck they differ from him widely in his home policy. By every party except the Conservatives he is distrusted, and is only supported by his former political friends, as, for instance, the National Liberals, in the hope that they may recover a part, at least, of their former influence. His old political enemies are, of course, not reconciled with him. Everywhere a feeling of uncertainty and insecurity prevails. Agitation for radical reform is kindled and stifled, important measures are recommended and put aside, hopes are awakened and not realized. Even the present Conservative majority of the Reichstag grumbles and is divided against itself; it does not know whither it will be driven by the autocratic will of the imperious Chancellor. The so-called tariff reform does not at all prove a success. Instead of being relieved, the poor man has been saddled with heavier duties and taxes. The most important of them, the tobacco duties, have scarcely begun to yield a larger income, but already—just six months after its introduction—the much-dreaded spectre of the tobacco monopoly appears in the background. Although it will cost more than two hundred millions of dollars to buy off the private factories and to indemnify the several parties interested in the tobacco trade, although it will ruin the economic condition of about a million of people and nearly destroy the commerce of so important and patriotic a city as Bremen, Bismarck threatens in his organs to impose this suicidal measure if his other calls on the people's purse be not readily complied with. Prominent among others there is an impost on beer and beer-brewing, but not on whiskey (*Schnapps*), because the latter is chiefly manufactured by the large land-

owners, whose interest forbids a tax and whose votes cannot be dispensed with. Besides, there is a new duty to be laid on receipts, checks, and transactions at the exchange, such as transfers of stock. The Reichstag is not willing to pass these bills, as it is not yet apparent how much the new protective duties will yield. After the defeat, therefore, Bismarck will probably come forward with his tobacco monopoly and again raise the cabinet question—or, rather, as he has no cabinet, but mere clerks, again send in his resignation—in order to enforce his measure.

The motives for his last letter to the Emperor, in fact, lie deeper than the reasons alleged for them. On former occasions the Chancellor never gave vent to his feelings when the Federal Council voted against him—as, for instance, when the seat of the Supreme Court was fixed at Leipzig instead of Berlin. Besides, the Federal Council has exercised a constitutional right which under certain circumstances may be inconvenient and inopportune, but as long as the Constitution is in force must be acknowledged. It is an injustice that thirty votes, representing seven and a half millions of inhabitants, can overcome twenty-eight votes, representing thirty-four millions; but the Constitution ordains the representation of the several states. It is an anomaly that Prussia with twenty-six millions has only seventeen votes out of fifty-eight, and that the fourteen votes of Bavaria, Saxony, Würtemberg, and Baden can hinder any law; but Bismarck himself is the principal author of the Constitution. In the method of representation by proxies some amendment may be made in order to prevent the repetition of absurdities like the voting of the delegate of Brunswick, who cast ten votes for ten small principalities against Prussia and Bavaria; but the matter is of small account, and at all events not worth a crisis. I need not enter into any more particulars on the subject, as you and your readers, who live under a federal government, fully appreciate the delicate complications and niceties of public law which emanate from that form of government. You know from a long practical experience how often questions simple and plain in themselves become intricate by their connection with so artificial a political system as a federal constitution. There would be only one way of getting over this difficulty—viz., the suppression of the small principalities and the creation of one united empire with a single government (*Einheits-Staat*); but our small principalities will no more readily voluntarily abdicate and make room for Prussia than Delaware, Rhode Island, and other small States will give up their equal representation in your Senate. A real German unity will never be reached by a vote or other peaceful means; it can only be enforced by a revolution or a war. Bismarck knows very well why in this instance he does not appeal to the "last reason of kings," and must therefore leave the present state of things undisturbed.

At present he hates the small principalities more relentlessly than his Ultramontane adversaries; but his hate centres upon Russia. Passionate and suspicious as he is, he sees Russian propaganda everywhere. There is something quixotic in his temper, but the Chancellor is fearfully in earnest. In his morbid nervousness he looks out for his real foe, on whom to discharge his anger; whenever he strikes, the blow will hit. Now he considers the small principalities as the satrapies of Russia on German soil, and the court of Stuttgart as their headquarters, supported by ladies of royal blood. Accordingly he looked at the vote of the Federal Council, which was without any political bearing, as the result of a conspiracy between Würtemberg and the smaller states to sap the foundation of the Empire, and resented it as a personal insult. When he was informed of the vote he was quite wild from excitement and wrote his letter to the Emperor. Under these circumstances it was to be expected that the Federal Council would at the earliest opportunity change their first vote in favor of putting the stamp duty on post-office receipts also. They did so yesterday. Thus the crisis, of course, has passed, but its effect on the independence and influence of the Federal Council is deep and pernicious. Bismarck will not tolerate an independent individual or corporation besides himself. ? ?

STUDIES ON HYPNOTISM.

BRESLAU, March 25.

I CAME here from Berlin a week ago expressly to see the curious hypnotic experiments of Professor Heidenhain, whose results, published since those of Professor Weinhold mentioned in my last communication,* have excited great interest not only among physiologists but in the public at large. Beginning early in January, Herr Hansen, the Danish "magnetizer," gave a series of public exhibitions here, which lasted several weeks and were very largely attended. Well-known citizens, old and young, who came upon the platform, after looking fixedly at a bright glass button which they themselves held some eight inches from and above their eyes, became insensible to pins thrust into their hands, imitated unconsciously and involuntarily every motion and sound made before them, and in short performed very many strange and absurd antics, of which, on waking, they were sometimes entirely unconscious and incredulous. These performances became not unnaturally the sensation of the hour, and the half-cultured, among whom the traveller recognizes certain unmistakable traces of that peculiarly weird Slavic mysticism so conspicuous a few hundred miles farther east, seemed actually growing credulous towards many forms of half-forgotten superstition, so that the city fathers thought science ought to have something to say about it, and rather naïvely invited Professor Heidenhain to press forward with the experiments he had already begun, and to follow Hansen upon the same platform, repeating and explaining in a rational way the experiments of the latter. Heidenhain's success has certainly been remarkable. He now declares that he has repeated every one of Hansen's performances. Many of his colleagues in the medical faculty are pushing on special investigation in the same line; and in hospitals, laboratories, and private parlors all over Germany many conformable experiments have been made.

Meanwhile Du Bois-Reymond in Berlin, who, by a strange coincidence, since about the time of his famous agnostic declaration some years ago respecting psychic and cerebral functions ("ignoramus ignorabimus") has done extremely little experimental work, insists that the whole thing is "only a psychosis"; and the younger men around him even venture to hint vaguely that Heidenhain is the victim of imposture; that he began the experiments because since his important work on secretion he has seemed to lack original themes for investigation, and that he is surrounded in Breslau society by bright but utterly uncritical men, and even women, whose *penchant* it is to read the voluminous French and German literature on animal magnetism, and to believe in occult and imponderable forces. Others fear that such experiments are injurious to persons hypnotized, and compare them with vivisections and other alleged cruelties of medical men. The validity of these charges can be best judged after a bold statement of the facts described by Professor Heidenhain,* all of which the writer has himself seen. The professor's brother, a tall, athletic, duelling medical student, the picture of health and said to be a scholar of much promise, has been hypnotized on an average two or three times a day for two months, and scoffs at the idea of being the worse for it. The writer was invited to stroke the ball of this student's left thumb with his own forefinger as lightly as possible and always in the same direction. Very soon the student's thumb, then the hand, then the arm and shoulder, were in a state of violent tetanic cramp, which passed down the right arm, then down the left, then the right leg, and then extended to the muscles of the jaw, and to those of the neck. The whole body was rigid and trembling, and the power of speech was gone. Directed by the professor, I struck the left arm smartly with the open palm of my hand, and the cramp instantly vanished, his brother started as from a sleep, looked confusedly around him a moment, then seemed to recover consciousness, and, remarking that he had had rather a strong dose, walked across the room and drank a glass of beer. The whole performance lasted less than a minute. A colonel brought in several stupid but burly soldiers from the barracks, who spoke only Polish, and, as far as could be made out afterwards, had never heard of such performances. Each one was given a loud-ticking watch to hold to his ear and told to listen intently, while the colonel threatened them savagely if they fell asleep. In five minutes two of them were in a profound cataleptic sleep, insensitive to pain, and on being wakened ten minutes later declared they had not slept. Slight, constant, and uniform or repeated irritation affecting the ear, eye, or skin, "passes" with the hand, the warmth of which is often effective at a distance, a tuning-fork, a watch, a distinct fixation point, with thoughts occupied only by the object felt, seen, or heard, seem to be the conditions of this state. Gentle rubbing forward and backward upon the top and front of the head causes the sleep, which is often too deep for the most striking results, to become lighter, and in some subjects a constant touch on the back of the neck between the first and second vertebræ makes them perfect imitative machines. Every motion, look, word, inflexion of the person on whom the attention is fixed, is exactly imitated; a long English sentence, *e.g.*, with extreme

* See the *Nation*, No. 762.

* 'Der sogenannte thierische Magnetismus: Physiologische Beobachtungen von Dr. Rudolf Heidenhain, ord. Prof. der Physiol. und Director des physiologischen Instituts zu Breslau.' Dritte vermehrte Auflage. Leipzig, 1880.

and grotesque inflexions, was repeated almost perfectly in every detail by an old workman in the hospital. The instant the finger is removed from the neck the repetition stops, often in the middle of a word.

Nor is this the strangest. With a number of his subjects Professor Heidenhain and his colleagues are able to hypnotize one-half of the brain and body, the other half remaining normal. One half the face smiles, and the other remains in the familiar immobile, waxy, cataleptic state. One arm and leg can be moved at will, the other not; one eye sees distinctly, and the other imperfectly or not at all. When the right side is hypnotized, aphasia is produced, but *not*, or only exceptionally, when the left side is affected. This is, of course, in accordance with pathological observations which locate the speech-centre in or near the left cerebral convolution, and with the anatomical fact that most of the so-called pyramidal or volitional fibres cross soon after leaving the brain. If the person thus affected be told to make some simple motion with the finger of the normal side—*e. g.*, to rotate the thumb about the other, and to continue the motion without cessation or interruption while observing another rotate his own thumb now in one, now in the other direction, a task easy enough in the normal condition—the half-hypnotized person, though believing himself in the full possession of his faculties, finds this impossible. He *must* stop every time that the experimenter changes, and generally reverse the motion for an instant, in spite of all his efforts to the contrary; but is immediately able to correct the error and go on as directed. This is almost invariably observed, and is explained by supposing that one-half of the brain, being reduced to the condition of an imitating automaton, is mechanically compelled by the retinal impressions to repeat the motion, and that the normal half must arrest this impulse by a special act of volition later.

Even one eye alone may be hypnotized, in which case color-blindness is caused. Prof. Cohn has made these phenomena an object of special investigation, and has used not only Seebeck's worsted patterns, but Hirschberg's ingenious method of detecting simulants by the crossing of perpendicular colored lines seen stereoscopically, and even Stilling's yet more confusing tables for detecting and measuring the degree of color-blindness—but without discovering any traces of feigning. An hypnotized eye which has gazed for a moment at brilliant-colored figures which seem only variously shaded grey, when the colors are removed and the eye suddenly awakened, sees the complementary after-image of the colors which it has never perceived. The fact that atropine removes this induced color-blindness—or makes it impossible, may perhaps indicate that it is in some way connected with the cramp of the ciliary muscle. The facts thus far observed in this line are generally thought to be irreconcilable with Helmholtz's theory of three fundamental colors, but to be more or less explicable upon the hypothesis of Hering.

With earlier hypnotizers, "mesmerizers," or "magnetizers" these experiments were successful, almost without exception, with women only. Professor Heidenhain's observations have been entirely on men, and have succeeded with about one student in twelve. With all, the first time is the hardest, and while many grow so sensitive that a very slight influence makes them immediately unconscious, others after a while grow unsusceptible again, and finally lose entirely the power of being affected. Some acquire the faculty of hypnotizing themselves, and others, when told to remember that at a certain hour they are requested or influenced to sleep, do so without any of the ordinary means, and without even the presence of another person. Hallucinations are readily caused if a few verbal hints are given. With some subjects fibrilar twitches in various muscles, accompanied by other symptoms of increased excitability of the spinal and medullary centres, follow the experiments, which in such cases are always discontinued. Rheumatic patients often make movements with their limbs which seem impossible in their ordinary state. Far-sighted persons always see much nearer than usual. The handwriting in this condition is extremely bad, and some patients, under certain conditions, begin at once to write backward.

These phenomena are all thought to be explicable on the familiar physiological hypothesis of reflex action and inhibition. Farther and needed experiments are now being made to determine whether blood-vessels in the affected parts are expanded or, as is less probable, contracted. Not only are thermal changes in the face, hands, etc., marked and invariable, but as a rule, with many exceptions, anæmic persons seem most easily affected. The idea is commonly expressed that a new method of localizing the functions of the brain may be developed from the effects of varying local irritation. This is as yet, however, only conjecture.

By these experiments trance and mediumship are brought into the hospitals and laboratory, and, instead of the venerable hypothesis of possession by incorporate spirits, we have abnormal distribution of the nervous centres of circulation, with their well-known results. It is most noteworthy that while a few orthodox stalwarts feel compelled to seek refutations of materialism and evidence for personal immortality in reputed facts of spiritualism, and a few broken-down or utterly naïve and uncritical or previously discredited professors in Germany have imported an hypothesis of spiritual intercourse and agency as remote and utterly unsuggested even by the facts they allege as it is foreign to healthy brains and senses, another German professor, aided by many colleagues of his faculty and working by legitimate methods, has dealt the most deadly blow which modern spiritualism has yet received.

Correspondence.

THE PRESENT CRISIS IN VIRGINIA POLITICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the decade and a half preceding the war the Democratic party in Virginia boldly cut the Gordian knot that many wise heads and brave hands had, as I think, intentionally failed to loosen, and established universal suffrage, and, though dominating thereby for a time, yet did so at the ultimate expense of the influence exerted by intellect, virtue and experience. Before the evil effects of such a policy could, however, be felt by natural development, the war came upon us, which, in a few words, resulted in the complete overthrow of the structure of tradition and virtuous wisdom which made the government of ante-bellum Virginia an honorable testimony and exponent of our republican institutions.

The Democratic party thus laying the warp of misfortune for us, the weaving in of the woof fell to the Republican party, which took up the thread where it had been dropped. There was engrafted into our political system a mass of negro voters who, being deplorably ignorant, were through ignorance voluble, and through volubility extremely dangerous. The Republican party was a political Messiah to the negroes, and a political fetishism was established, most disastrous to the material welfare of both whites and blacks. After some years of disorganization and confusion the possession of our State government was obtained by men mostly ignorant of the art of government, and not over-scrupulous as to the means which some used and others countenanced them in so doing. The systematic fraud by which the Conservative party gained absolute domination in Virginia was not only wrong in the abstract, but also in that it tended in the end, which has now come, to develop to an alarming extent the power of bad men to rule by bad means. This power necessarily arises from any policy, of suffrage or other, which brings into action the communistic elements of the populace. That element only needs to appreciate its power to assert its rule, and it has become aware of it in Virginia.

The Conservative party has for ten years held complete sway in Virginia, and its history may be told in a few words. It has either not had wisdom enough to originate good measures, or not virtue enough to legislate good laws, or not boldness enough to enforce and execute them if made. During the period in question, when, though the organization of the Republican party was almost broken up, yet the negroes rarely united with the Conservatives upon any question, the dangerous element of the people grew larger and more restless. Finally, there was only need of a hand to gather and marshal its forces and a head to guide them for that element to take a definite shape. In 1879 the commune ruled Virginia, for the head and hand needed were found. An ambitious man, himself "one of the people," shrewdly divined the course of events, and boldly conceived, and more boldly executed, the idea of taking advantage of the tide. Nothing could surpass the astuteness with which Mahone laid hold of the debt question then before the people, and upon which philippics most seductive to the popular ear could be pronounced, against the oppression of the poor, the tyranny of capital, and the rascality of brokers and speculators, particularly of the McCulloch syndicate.

There is, nevertheless, a large and respectable element, large enough probably to be essential to the power of the so-called "Party of the People," which, I believe, is honest in its action, and which co-operates with the Readjusters from a variety of causes too numerous to recite, but mostly arising from imposed-upon credulity or the antagonistic policy of the Conservative party. To determine how long this union of bad and good will last is beyond my ken, but I am confident of ultimate reaction,

and in the meantime we should have the kind charity and encouraging sympathy of our fellow-countrymen.

And now, sir, a few lines upon the Presidential election, and I am done. The "Independent Electoral Ticket" movement, started by Mahone, contemplates the union of Readjusters and Republicans upon a mixed ticket. This movement is essentially a Grant scheme. Mahone readily comprehends that the election of Grant will greatly aid and promote his cause in Virginia, for that election would result in the defeat and probably the downfall of his most formidable enemies. The prospects are that this Independent movement will be effectually established, and every indication leads me to believe that it will carry the State. That such is possible is plain, not only because many of our Conservative voters are for Grant in spite of newspapers and Virginia Congressmen, but also from the fact that last year Mahone carried this State against wealth, talent, pulpit, bar, State officers executive and judicial, and last, but not least, almost the entire press. That such is probable may be inferred from the disruptured, broken, panic-stricken organization of the Conservative-Democratic party of this State. Grant carried Virginia in 1872 with a more formidable opposition than that of to-day, and Mahone was against him. This year, if he secures the nomination, he will probably have Mahone's support, and Mahone at the head of a victorious party.

In the face of these things, with full knowledge of the aggressive activity of their opponents, the Democrats are acting with a surprising apathy. What the result will be no man can with any certainty predict. I, "being neither a prophet nor the son of a prophet," do not pretend to do so. The foregoing remarks are only offered as individual opinions resulting from close personal observation.—Respectfully,

A Reader of The Nation.

Virginia, April 15, 1880.

NOT GRANT, BUT ALSO NOT BLAINE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The opposition to the nomination of General Grant is becoming so general, and so effectively organized, that it is high time to consider its secondary results upon the prospects of other candidates, and to call attention to the part which Mr. Blaine's friends are taking in it.

Most Independent Republicans, at least in Massachusetts, are opposed to Mr. Blaine's nomination at least as heartily as to General Grant's. They believe that the principles to which they are trying to hold the Republican party condemn both, and that it will be small gain if General Grant is defeated at the price of accepting a candidate whose political morality is so indisputably of the character which it is their purpose to rebuke. Yet the opposition to General Grant has been taken up, organized and appropriated by Mr. Blaine's friends to such an extent that it may soon become impossible to turn its front against the latter.

Every effort is made to shape the expression of that opposition in such a way as to leave it harmless against Blaine. The abstract objection to a third term is made especially prominent, and the "capacity-to-be-elected" argument emphasized, while any downright demand for a pure candidate or for civil-service reform, and every specific objection to machine politicians, is hushed up. It becomes hard to tell of much of the strongest antagonism to the third term whether it means anything else than less love for Cæsar because more for Blaine. And it is this doubt which is now making many Independent Republicans hesitate to participate in ex-Senator Henderson's plan for a St. Louis Convention, to which you allude with some commendation in your last issue. Is it certain that this cannot become a demonstration for Blaine? The invitations contain nothing to forbid this; the great purpose is to protest against a third term, and there is nothing to indicate the wishes or intentions of the promoters in regard to the Blaine movement, though there is certainly nothing to indicate any sympathy with it, and very likely none exists. Still it would be well if some one would authoritatively settle this uncertainty. Furthermore, we hope that the managers have taken more precautions against capture, and have their convention better under control, than their circular invitations indicate. Are there to be any credentials required from delegates, is there any arrangement for representation, any scrutiny of members—in short, anything to prevent the convention being captured by any half-dozen men who may chance to combine and attend for that purpose, or being turned into a bear-garden by a howling mob from the streets of St. Louis?

We should like to have the plan fully opened to the public, for if safely arranged it may give the opportunity for efficient action. Meantime will not your paper turn so much of its criticism toward Blaine as to avoid giving him aid and comfort by an exclusive attack upon Grant?

J. B. W.

Cambridge, April 25, 1880.

SERVETUS AND HARVEY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Dr. Tollin, whose article on Servetus in No. 254 of the *Deutsche Zeit- und Streit-Fragen* you notice in your issue for April 8, 1880, has before stirred the ashes of Servetus in order to cloud the claims of Harvey, who discovered the circular motion of the blood. In 'Die Entdeckung des Blutkreislaufs durch Michael Servet (1511–1553), von Henri Tollin in Magdeburg, in Sammlung physiologischer Abhandlungen herausgegeben von W. Preyer: Jena, 1876,' one finds Servetus spoken of as the "author to whom physiology owes the discovery of the circulation of the blood"; and again, it is said that "Michael Servetus, the discoverer of the circulation, had no predecessor." Then, as now, Dr. Tollin only reiterated a claim which had been more than once invalidated. Dr. R. Willis shows in his preface to the English edition of Harvey's works, which he edited for the Sydenham Society, that Servetus knew only the pulmonary circulation. Dr. S. Gamgee, of Birmingham, says in the London *Lancet* for January 20, 1877:

"The 'Christianismi Restitutio,' in which Servetus's exposition of the pulmonary circulation occurs, is a strange admixture of ingenious speculations and manifest absurdities, embodying a few physiological truths in a maze of anatomical errors. He speaks of the brain as a cushion or bed for the vessels of the animal spirit; of the nerves as a third class of vessels continued from the arteries; and of the ventricles of the brain communicating with the nasal fossæ through the ethmoidal foramina. Well enough may Professor Preyer head a note 'unintelligible' appended to one of a series of conjectures which elicit from Servetus's most recent eulogist the exclamation, 'Everywhere physiological fantasies in service of the Bible.' The attempt to reconcile the mystery of the Trinity with physical science was, as it ever must be, utterly hopeless, and in making it the daring Spaniard wrecked his reputation and his life."

The party of Calvin did their best to burn at once Servetus and all his writings; but at least one copy of his 'Christianismi Restitutio,' though it was badly smoked, was saved. From it P. Flourens, of the French Academy and Perpetual Secretary of the Academy of Sciences, Institute of France, reprinted, in the appendix of his 'Histoire de la Découverte de la Circulation du Sang' (2d ed., Paris, 1857), the physiological utterances of Servetus:

"It is certain," says Flourens, pp. 149–50, "that Servetus discovered the pulmonary circulation; but it is equally certain that the nonsensical book in which that great discovery is set forth was burned almost as soon as it was printed. Servetus influenced none of his successors. It is said that Servetus may have gained something from Nemesius, Bishop of Emesa [and one finds in 1879 John A. Weisse, M.D., in his 'Origin, Progress, and Destiny of the English Language,' bringing forward the name of Nemesius, a Syrian bishop of the fifth century, as a possible prompter of Harvey and as the author of 'a treatise containing the elements of modern physical and metaphysical science treated in a masterly manner']; this is a mistake. Servetus not only influenced no one, but no one influenced him. Nemesius says not a word of the pulmonary circulation so clearly explained by Servetus; he treats of the pulse, of animal heat, of the vital spirit; and he treats of it all just as Galen had done. He follows him in everything. The chief merit of Servetus is that he did not follow Galen; he contradicted him. 'If one compares,' says he with just confidence, 'these things with what Galen wrote in his books vi. and vii. of 'De Usu Partium,' he will fully comprehend that Galen did not perceive this truth.'"

In the list of those whose admirers have made them *ex-post-facto* claimants of Harvey's honors are found, besides those of Nemesius and Servetus, the names of Realdo Colombo, of Padua, anatomist; Andrea Cesalpino, of Arezzo, "anatomist, physiologist, botanist, mineralogist, doctrinal controversialist, and practising physician"; Fabrizio, of Acquapendente, Harvey's teacher of anatomy at Padua; Eustachio Rudio, compiling professor and contemporary with Fabrizio at Padua; Sarpi, of Venice, ecclesiastic; Carlo Ruini, senator and veterinarian, of Bologna; and England's omniscient dramatist, William Shakspere. It has also been suggested that Leonardo da Vinci may have understood the circulation of the blood, he was so good an anatomist. Doubtless, the inexpugnable fact that Harvey published and died before they were born has alone kept the names of Goethe and Edison out of the list of Harvey's helpers. A little accurate knowledge as to what the circular motion of the blood is, how it was discovered, and by whom demonstrated would have saved many a discoverer of mare's nests from proclaiming himself such in print. Such knowledge may be found in Flourens; in Willis's

preface to the Sydenham Society's edition of Harvey's works; in a series of articles written for the London *Lancet*, in 1876-7, by Dr. S. Gamgee, on "Harvey and Caesalpinus"; in Huxley's article, and also his address, on Harvey, published in America in the *Popular Science Monthly* in 1878; in an article on "William Harvey," in Dr. B. W. Richardson's 'Ministry of Health,' published by D. Appleton & Co., 1879; and, above all, in Harvey's 'Exercitatio de Motu Cordis et Sanguinis,' originally published in 1628, of which a Latin edition, revised by Drs. Lawrence and Akenside, was published for the College of Physicians in 1766. A translation of the 'Exercitatio' was made by Dr. R. Willis for the English edition of Harvey's works published by the Sydenham Society in 1847.

If one wishes first-hand, practical knowledge of the motion of the heart and blood he may find it by studying a frog according to the directions given under the title "The Frog," in Huxley and Martin's 'Elementary Biology'; and in the chapter on the Circulation in Foster and Balfour's 'Practical Physiology.' H.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, BALTIMORE, April 15, 1880.

CLEW TO THE FIFTEEN PUZZLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If the very general, although slightly contemptuous, interest which the public takes in the Fifteen Puzzle chances temporarily to commend it to recognition in your columns, you may see fit to publish the following announcement that a method of always solving the puzzle has been discovered, less questionable than that described in the New York *Herald*, and available for any one who is able to discern the pitfalls in a common game of checkers.

The *Herald's* rule may be re-stated as follows: Holding the box just as you happen to have taken it, arrange in order the blocks numbered from 1 to 13 inclusive. This can always be done. The remaining two blocks will then either be also in order, in which case the work is finished, or they will be reversed. In the latter case rotate the box in any way so as to bring a different side of it uppermost, and rearrange—*i.e.*, place number 1 at the new left-hand upper corner, etc., and the 15 and 14 will have mysteriously exchanged places so as to produce the desired uniformity. That the chances of the necessity for this rotation are exactly even follows from President Barnard's statement that all possible arrangements are reducible to one or the other of the two types.

There would be no objection to the legality of the quarter revolution, in the plan just described, provided it were performed at the beginning and not at the end. If performed at the end, the objections to it are three in number: 1st, the recumbency of the "gems"; 2d, the lateness of the rotation, looking like an afterthought following visible failure; and 3d, inconsistency with the decision as to the position of the box involved in the original adjustment of the verticalness of the blocks. It will be seen that all these objections are avoided in the method about to be indicated.

Insist at the outset that the box be emptied and the gems inserted with absolute promiscuousness, which can only be secured by the performer's closing his eyes so as not to know which side of any figure is placed uppermost, but only that the flat side is down. Then the chances will be that the gems will be about equally divided between the four possible postures, one-quarter being upright, one-quarter recumbent to the right, one-quarter upside down, etc., so that there will be no antecedent presumption as to which side of the box is top. Next the performer must decide by inspecting the gems, according to a clew which will hereafter be stated, which side of the box he wants uppermost, and turn it so at once. The arrangement is thus assured. The erect position of the blocks may be attended to at any time after this inspection and decision—the earlier the better; although even if left till the close there will be no uniform prostration, as in the old method, and the inconsistency will be avoided of first setting them erect in one position and afterwards turning them all over and erecting them differently, after the discomfiture of reaching the ill-omened 13—15—14.

The philosophy of the clew depends on the law already proved in print, that every time you interchange the places of any two gems—*e.g.*, the 1 and 2—you alter the status of the entire position with reference to the twofold classification alluded to. Two such interchanges balance each other; *e.g.*, if you pick up and exchange not only the 1 and 2 but also the 9 and 10, you produce a position which could have been reached by legitimate lateral shifting. So any even number of interchanges could be made without doing either harm or good; whereas an odd number of them always renders a soluble position insoluble, or an insoluble one soluble. Now, every conceivable collocation of the gems differs from the uniform arrangement by either an even or an odd number of supposable interchanges. The clew consists in an easy way of counting this number of interchanges, which turns out to be surprisingly small, its maximum being fourteen when all the gems happened to be originally misplaced, thirteen when one of the gems was dropped where it belonged, and so on.

In order to execute this count one must first imagine the block numbered 1, wherever located, to be brought home by being interchanged with that which fills the place of 1 (unless, of course, 1 happens to be at home, of which there is one chance in fifteen). This counts one inversion, and would indicate insolubility (*i.e.*, the need of turning the box), if it were the only interchange needed (*i.e.*, if the other thirteen gems were originally in place). Secondly, imagine the block just displaced by 1 to be put into its own place, thereby forcing the incumbent of that place into the place first occupied by 1. This counts as the second inversion and balances the first, and the record of both may be forgotten, remembering only which figures have been replaced. Proceed thus till all are imagined in place. If the number of inversions required be even, the position in which the box is held will serve. If the number of inversions required be odd, turn the box and then adjust the figures into an upright posture. By turning the box before doing this its legality cannot reasonably be disputed.

In practice several ways will be invented of abridging this effort of imagining. Thus, it often happens that some single inversion will restore to place two gems at once. This will reduce the maximum by one, while if it never happens, the maximum itself will be the critical number sought. Moreover, it is not necessary to rotate the whole box; the rotation of two gems will suffice to reverse the classification, that of the 6 and 9, because by turning these upside down their places are virtually interchanged. The chances are three out of four that one or the other of these two blocks will be originally recumbent, and the performer will be expected to place it upright, and in so doing he can create it a 6 or a 9 as he has decided expedient by the clew, since all the difference lies in one such reversal. If the blocks used are round ones, this transformation of 6 into 9 is further facilitated.

Those who possess a heliotype or other copy of Albert Dürer's "Melencolia," will be interested to observe in it the sixteen puzzle arranged to count thirty-four.—Yours, G. W. WARREN.

FARMINGTON, CONN., April 20, 1880.

Notes.

THE interesting volume of 'Card Essays, Clay's Decisions and Card-Table Talk,' by "Cavendish," which we reviewed at length not long ago (*Nation*, No. 766), has been reprinted in the "Leisure-Hour Series" of Henry Holt & Co., who have added, as is their wont, an ample topical index, nowhere more necessary than in a book like this, made up of separate essays on different but closely allied topics and abounding in good stories neatly told. All interested in the bibliography of playing-cards should mark the list on pp. 79, 80.——E. P. Dutton & Co. have issued a new edition of Miss Mary L. Booth's 'History of the City of New York,' which first appeared about a dozen years ago. A few pages have been added to bring it up to date. It is distinctly a popular chronicle of events great and small, in which there is neither place nor space for general views.——The Harvard *Library Bulletin* No. 18 begins a Bibliography of Fossil Insects by Samuel H. Scudder.——The second annual report of the Providence Public Library is full of useful suggestions to all who have charge of similar institutions. We will mention particularly the practice of marking on the margins of bibliographical reference works the numbers of such as are to be found in the library; and the steps taken to co-operate with teachers in guiding the reading of pupils in the common schools.——The significant feature of No. 74 of the Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society, Worcester, Mass., is Prof. Philip Valentini's essay on the MS. known as the "Katunes of Maya History."——Mr. Charles S. Sargent, of Brookline, Mass., Harvard Professor of Arboriculture, has published, in his capacity of Special Agent of the approaching U. S. Census, a 'Catalogue of the Forest Trees of North America,' preliminary to one which will be added to the Census Report on the Forest Wealth of the United States. He desires information concerning (1) the extreme geographical range of any species, (2, 3) the most favorable region and elevation and geological formation for its multiplication and perfection, (4) its exceptionally large dimensions (5) its common or local name addi-

tional to those here catalogued, (6) its uses, however trivial, (7) its products. The Catalogue is adapted for annotations.——The editor of the *Sanitary Engineer* will gladly receive gifts of books, periodicals, etc., intended for the library of the Journeymen Plumbers' Mutual Benefit Society of this city.——Great distress for food prevails in Armenia on account of the operations of the late war. Messrs. Phelps, Stokes & Co., Bankers, 45 Wall Street, will take charge of any contributions that may be made for the sufferers, using the telegraph as a means of immediate transmission to Constantinople.——In response to a request for the address of the National Republican League of Philadelphia we herewith repeat it: No. 913 Walnut Street.— In marked contrast with the compilation of stale misstatements and exploded legends about Molière which appeared in the *Cornhill Magazine* a few months ago is an admirable essay in the April number on "Molière's Acting Manager"—the Lagrange whose register is the most precious of the possessions of the Comédie-Française, saving only the memory of its founder. It is a graceful sketch of the first of "juvenile leads," of *jeunes premiers*, and is well worthy of consideration by all who are interested in Molière and the stage under Louis XIV.——A volume of German plays arranged for children is offered by Bartholomäus, Erfurt. The title is 'Die Deutsche Jugendschaubühne.' ——A new work on the American Constitution has been published by Brockhaus. Its author is a Prussian jurist, Eugen Schlief, and its study is recommended to German lawyers on account of the numerous analogies between the public law of this country and that of Germany.—— A monograph on the Venus of Milo has just been published by Winter, at Heidelberg. It is from the pen of Baron Göler von Ravensburg, who, having collected all the evidence about the history of the statue, seems to have no doubt that it is a Venus, and not a Victory.——*Polybiblion* states that a luxurious limited edition has been printed, by M. Armand Baschet, of a hitherto inedited and unknown MS. *mémoire* of Cardinal Richelieu's, written in 1607 or 1610, while he was still Bishop of Luçon, but meditating an appearance at court, against which event he lays down the "traductions et maximes que je me suis données pour me conduire à la Cour." In the same periodical we find mention of a slender *Catalogue raisonné* of M. A.-F. Didot's collection of portraits of the French school, which commends itself to lovers of engraving, and also by its notes to all students of the history of printing.——Messrs. Prang & Co., the Boston publishers, announce through the American Art Gallery of this city the offer of $2,000 in prizes for four original designs for Christmas cards painted in water-color or oil. The amount is to be divided into four prizes, as follows: $1,000, $500, $300, and $200 for the first, second, third, and fourth best designs, respectively. Messrs. Samuel Colman, E. C. Moore (the head of the Messrs. Tiffany's silver department), and R. M. Hunt will act as judges, and there will be a public exhibition of the designs. The conditions of competition may be learned from Mr. R. E. Moore, 6 East Twenty-third Street.——Mr. John Fiske, who sails this week for England, will deliver his new lectures on "American Political Ideas" at the Royal Institution in May. Early in June he is to deliver his lectures on "America's Place in History" at the Philosophical Institution in Edinburgh, and they will be repeated later in the same month in Paris, by invitation of MM. Renan, Taine, and others.——Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce that they will issue on May 1 a new monthly periodical of literary news and criticism, to be called the *Dial*.

—Congress has recently ordered the publication of vol. xiv. of the quarto series of the Hayden Survey publications, being the "Final Reports on Zoölogy." This consists of the 'History of North American Mammals,' upon which Dr. Elliott Coues has been engaged for several years. The edition ordered is 5,000 copies, with the necessary illustrations. The work will probably make a volume of some 1,000 pages, fully illustrated with wood engravings in the text and a series of chromolithographic plates. Much of the MS. is ready for the printer, and the appearance of the work will probably not be delayed longer than is required to execute the illustrations, many of which are already on hand. There has been no systematic treatise on this subject since 1857. The third instalment of Dr. Coues's 'Bibliography of Ornithology' is about issuing from the press, in the Proceedings of the National Museum for 1879. The fourth batch of titles, more extensive than the former three combined, is about half printed, forming No. 4 of Vol. v. of the Bulletin of the Hayden Survey.

—Mr. J. O. Halliwell-Phillipps writes to the *Athenæum* of April 10 that he contemplates beginning a series of folio volumes in which he will fully investigate "the truth or probability of every recorded incident in the personal and literary history" of Shakspere, besides introducing "a vast mass of correlative information, the accumulation of many years' researches; the whole to be copiously illustrated with wood-engravings and fac-similes." The work will not be published by subscription, but for the very limited impression intended he invites what we may call informal expressions of interest in order to judge if the undertaking will be sustained. The following other announcements occur in the same paper: a new work by Mr. Darwin on 'The Circumnutation of Plants'; 'The Life and Correspondence of David Livingstone,' by Prof. Blaikie; 'Madame de Staël,' by Dr. A. Stevens; 'Christian Institutions: Essays on Ecclesiastical Subjects,' by Dean Stanley; 'Siberia in Europe,' by Henry Seebohm; 'Journal of a Naturalist and Botanist in New Guinea,' by Mr. Burridge, of Trinity College, Dublin; 'A Ride from Fez to the Algerian Frontier,' by Capt. Colville; 'Col. Grodekoff's Ride from Samarcand to Herat'; and 'Rambles among the Hills,' walks from Petersfield to Beachy Head, by Louis J. Jennings. The widow of the late Mr. MacGahan, a Russian lady, has translated Poe's stories and poems into her native language, and the work will shortly appear in three volumes.

—A waggish reporter of the Nashville *American* lately brought that paper intelligence from the Tennessee Bureau of Agriculture, Statistics, and Mines, to the effect that "the editor of the *Nation*, published in New York," had just written to the Bureau "with a view to establishing a sheep ranch on the mountains." We have in consequence been made the recipients of several interested and disinterested communications, for which we are under obligations that we can hardly express.

—At the last meeting of the National Academy of Sciences, held in Washington, April 20–23, Major J. W. Powell and Prof. W. H. Brewer were elected members. As their election raised the membership to one hundred no others were admitted. The Academy then considered and passed the amendment respecting elections which provides that in case the election of any candidate would raise the number above one hundred a four-fifths vote will be requisite to elect. This will have practically the effect of restricting membership to the number stated. There was a fair attendance at the meeting, and the usual number of papers were read. Prof. W. B. Rogers, the newly-elected president, occupied the chair. Prof. Newcomb's memorial of Prof. Henry was not read by himself, owing to his absence on account of sickness.

—Mr. Stedman's study of Poe in the May *Scribner's*, like his estimate of Bayard Taylor in a previous number, shows a critical faculty of a high order. In the present instance it is put to a severer test because of the extremes of admiration and detraction to which Poe's memory, as well as his life, has been exposed. Mr. Stedman imports no new bitterness into the controversy. His charity, added to his tact in applying the tests of genius, will betray the worshipper into feelings of gratitude for what is, after all, a reinforcement of the saner judgment of Poe's rank in literature. This judgment is strengthened, to our mind, by some of Mr. Stedman's examples of what he deems most admirable in Poe's prose and verse—unconscious concessions, we are sure, to a lower standard than that which controls the article taken as a whole. Mr. John Burroughs continues his "Notes of a Walker" with his usual acceptability, dividing his attention between the botanical anachronisms of the New England poets and the peripatetic habits of our common, though not indigenous, weeds. The modern method of "overlaying" is graphically explained by Mr. De Vinne in his second paper on the "Growth of Wood-Cut Printing"; we only wish he had chosen for the purpose a better and more interesting engraving. The illustrated articles include "The Younger Painters of America," namely, the members of the Society of American Artists; Mr. Schuyler's "Peter the Great," "The New York Seventh," and the "Dominion of Canada." We must also allude to the full-page portrait engraved by Cole, after a daguerreotype of Poe taken late in life; perhaps no better will ever be made. It serves as a frontispiece to the number.

—A writer on "The Present Crisis in San Francisco" in the *Californian* for May draws a depressing picture of the state of public and private affairs there. In 1879, he says, the banking capital and deposits of the city were reduced twenty-three millions of dollars; loans on mortgages fell from twenty-four millions in 1877 to fifteen millions in 1878, and to nine and a half millions in 1879. Capitalists as well as capital are coming East in disgust. "No new enterprises are being undertaken. Old ones are winding up or curtailing their business." Ten banks have failed or been discontinued. Money is more abundant than ever for loans on positive security, but the slightest risk frightens it. Real estate everywhere is unsalable. There is little or no building. There is an army of "unemployed" who "parade the streets by hundreds demanding

work or bread." The hatred of the poor for the well-to-do is intense and universal, and is returned in kind and with the interest of fear. "We hear of military companies, perhaps regiments, organized and drilling to fight for they know not what." The causes of this "epileptic condition" are, in the writer's view, far from superficial and obvious. The talk about Kearneyism is vague, he thinks; "Kearney is but the exponent of a state of public feeling, the outcropping of the ledge that has for years been crystallizing beneath the surface." The notion that if he and a few of his followers were quieted agitation would cease, is characterized as shallow and mistaken, and those who hold it as forgetful of the fact that the new constitution "proclaims to the world that unlimited freedom of acquisition is here recognized as an evil, to be curbed by the strong arm of the law." The effect upon capital is natural. Moreover, mining stocks have shrunk prodigiously. The Chinese have monopolized "all branches of labor by which the poor could live." The railroads have bound commerce with bands of iron; and they are by no means the only "grinding monopoly." Among the people there is no traditionary conservatism—"no leading citizen of California was born in the State"; there is no feeling of State or city pride, no leisure class, a great isolation among the individuals of the higher social class, a great indifference to politics and public measures, and "a great difficulty in the formation of public opinion on any subject." To crown all, the press is ignorant and dishonest. The only consolation is that the very chaos that reigns is a source of security against riot and serious public disturbance. "Who is there to fight against?" asks the writer. Apropos of the press, we have received the first number of the *American Patriot*, bearing date of San Francisco, April 15, and having for a motto: "Put none but Americans on Guard—George Washington," which advocates a Know-Nothing party and the election of Grant, is very severe upon "the infernal hell-hounds whom Europe sends to our Sand-lots," and enquires how long "the United States is to continue to be the world's charnel-house."

—By way of popular initiative in the much-talked-of reform in English spelling the *Home Journal* adopted last September five simple rules: 1. To drop *ue* at the end of words like "pedagogue" where the preceding vowel is short, and retain it in those like "rogue" where the vowel is long. 2. To drop the final *e* in words like "hypocrite" with a preceding short vowel, and retain it in words like "polite." 3. To drop the final *te* in words like cigarette. 4. To drop the final *me* in words like "programme." 5. To change *ph* for *f* in words like "alphabet." A postscript added "no change in proper names," British prejudice in favor of Cholmondeley being respected, perhaps. The issue of April 14 chronicles the success of the experiment. No one "from Maine to California," it says, has written to "stop my paper" or "stop that new spelling." Indeed, Prof. C. H. Hitchcock writes, "I have cut out the *Home Journal's* rules and keep them by me with the purpose of following them in all communications which I write," and a page of the number is devoted to a broadside of commendation more or less thoroughgoing, and suggestions of further changes from different educators of prominence; Western professors generally evincing enthusiasm, we observe, and a more guarded approval coming from Eastern colleges. The tone of the latter is illustrated by the note from Dr. Holmes, who promises to fall into line "when the London *Times* gives in." Professor Raymond, of Williams, author of 'Ideals Made Real,' urges the reform as an aid to the spread of intelligence in the masses. Dr. S. Wells Williams, Professor of Chinese at Yale, argues that an improved orthography will aid "millions on millions of Asiatics who are now learning the language, and are to learn it in the future, as the storehouse of the best literature in every branch of human knowledge which they can reach"; and various men of weight dwell upon the economy of time and money that will ensue. Some one has calculated that the silent letters cost the country annually more than the interest on the national debt; but in these economic questions it may be said that no money is lost till the calculation is made. The longest letter is from President Barnard, of Columbia, written with extreme attention to phonetic spelling, the effect of which will be to recall Yellowplush to the flippant. The evil possibilities of English orthography are shown by twenty-two different ways of spelling "The Home Journal" justified by existing idiosyncrasies. But the objection to every editor laying down rules of his own for the reformed orthography seems to us so irresistible that we are amazed that none of the *Home Journal's* correspondents pointed it out.

—In a long article in *Nature* of March 18, 1880, entitled "The Barometric See-saw between Russia and India in the Sun-spot Cycle," a certain phenomenon is still regarded as mysterious which was explained in the *Nation* so long ago as June 19, 1873. This phenomenon is the coincidence of high pressure with high temperature. It is becoming well known that every ten years occurs a period of a year or two during which few or no spots are observed upon the sun, and that these years are characterized by higher pressure and less frequent rain. The article states that "this condition of excessive pressure lasted not less than two years in the Indian region, having set in between May and August, 1876, and continued to between May and August, 1878, after which the pressure was as persistently below the average as it had exceeded it during the period in question. It included two years of serious failure of the rains. This condition of excessive pressure prevailed over not only the Indo-Malayan region but also the greater part if not the whole of Asia, probably the whole of Australia, and the South Indian Ocean." Now, that the effacement from the sun's disc of dark spots should produce increase of solar radiation, and consequently of heat, is natural; and that this increase of heat should enlarge the capacity of the atmosphere for moisture, and therefore hinder precipitation, is also obvious. But that the same cause should increase the pressure measured by the barometer is a surprise to those who have made the mistake of assuming that a high thermometer produces a low pressure. And the scope of these observations is as wide as is the theory which they corroborate (the theory stated in No. 416 of the *Nation*), for the continent of Asia comprises the bulk of the land part of the globe, so that, since observations taken on shipboard are worse than worthless as data for general comparison, what is true of Asia may be attributed to the whole world. Attention is thus called to the combination of high thermometer with high barometer as something as universal as unexpected. But it need not have been unexpected. The reason why heat usually coincides with low pressure throughout the forward half of cyclonic areas is one which is very limited in both time and place. The heat and lightness are symptomatic of an ascending current caused by a corresponding descending current not far off, in which both temperature and pressure reverse those of the cyclone and so completely compensate for them that the entire group has no effect upon the world-average; a cyclone is narrow in proportion to its intensity, being often occasioned by a conical mountain or circular island, and may therefore be discarded from wide investigations. Yet its brevity makes it easy to observe, and accounts for the prevalence of the false hypothesis that cold raises the barometer. The reverse is the fact, as was stated and explained in these columns, as above said, seven years ago.

—We will repeat the part that applies. The total weight of the earth's atmosphere is always the same; and therefore the aggregate of all barometric records would be equally invariable if the barometer were, what its name indicates, a measurer of weight simply; but the fact is that it measures also another phenomenon utterly different from weight, viz, the tension or elasticity of the air; and this last factor is not at all invariable, for it conforms sensitively to the solar radiation, increasing while radiation increases—*i. e.*, while the increase of temperature is gaining in velocity as well as in amount—diminishing as soon as the increase of temperature slackens in velocity. It is, therefore, only as concerns a local disturbance that the thirty-inch column of mercury is a weight-measurer (barometer); for wider observation it ought rather to be called a tension-measurer (tathometer ?), or even a prophetic thermometer, since the most rapid increase of heat precedes the greatest amount of heat; hence, the familiar forenoon barometric maximum, and hence, also, the reason that the decennial excess of pressure coincides with the causative period of sun-spot minimum, rather than with the period of excessive heat, which lags behind the same minimum because time is required for this excess to produce its effects upon the absorbent portion of the earth's surface, which is also its largest portion. The reasons for the apparent "see-saw" at St. Petersburg (and also in France, as mentioned in a supplementary note), which forms the caption of the article in *Nature*, were given in the *Nation* for December 26, 1872.

—The April number of *Le Livre* gives the total proceeds of the sale of the first part of the Comte de Béhague's library as $126,962 (the second part began to be sold on Monday the 19th inst.) The highest price obtained for any single volume was $3,220, a rare Elzevir of 1651, bound by Trautz-Bauzonnet. Mention is made, in the Notes, of a newly-patented adjustable pasteboard envelope for books, bound or unbound, which one desires to read out of doors or while journeying. This contrivance may be had of M. C.-E. Marc, rue de l'Échiquier. The most interesting announcement, however, is that a photographic atelier has just been installed in the National Library as a permanent adjunct of the institution. Its occupation will consist in reproducing unique works now

withheld from general circulation and liable to injury even from careful use. Unhappily the number of copies will be limited, and the plates (*clichés*) will be destroyed. None of the impressions will be for sale, but a few *épreuves* may be sent to provincial libraries or museums. If the French were more accustomed to international co-operation in such matters, we are sure a more generous policy would have been initiated. All the great libraries of the world would be glad to contribute to the support of the atelier in return for the privilege of sharing in the reproductions. Besides, what an opportunity is now afforded for that international cataloguing by title-page fac-similes proposed by Mr. Henry Stevens. Some of our libraries have found their account in having binderies of their own as a part of their regular service. The photographer, we are sure, will not long be thought dispensable. One of his functions might be the furnishing of negatives of portraits, maps, etc., from works not easily accessible, and of course at the expense of the applicant.

—A Pesth correspondent of the *Deutsches Montagsblatt* has had a glimpse at Kossuth's memoirs, which were to have appeared in April, but which may not now come out till June. They are to be published in Hungarian, German, and English ; and the translations, especially the German, are the cause of the delay. When it became known that the author had permitted himself to speak of the reigning family in highly uncomplimentary terms, the German publisher was given to understand that if the work appeared as written its circulation would be forbidden. In consequence of this a thorough revision was necessary. Except to the writer's countrymen and to students of European diplomacy the memoirs seem to offer little of interest, for they do not deal with the period of Kossuth's practical activity, but only with his years of exile and conspiracy, beginning with 1859. The first volume describes the doings of the Hungarian exiles before the peace of Villa Franca, narrating in detail the author's intercourse with Prince Napoleon and the late Emperor, and the steps taken to prepare a rising in Hungary while the Austrians were busy in Italy, the fear of which, as is well known, was the cause of the readiness with which Francis Joseph accepted the French terms of peace. The second volume is devoted to the events which occurred between the peace and the meeting of the Hungarian parliament in 1861, especially to an abortive treaty between the exiles and Cavour. The third volume is concerned with the Eastern Question, and is said to contain some interesting disclosures about the Crimean war.

—In a leading article of the *Rassegna Settimanale*, for March 28, we find the following picture of the present condition of parliamentary government in Italy. Referring to the two political parties, it says:

"The country is beginning to put little faith in either, and, what is worse, in the very institutions themselves, of which it will judge by their fruits. It does not feel that it is really represented by the Government, in its strength any more than in the consciousness of its wants; it does not feel itself guided or supported; knowing its own malady, it sees no one in the Government (and we say *government* in the broadest sense of the word) who can point out the efficacious remedy; it sees a confused parliamentary scrimmage consisting either in the clashing of sordid personal interests or in empty contests that have nothing to do with the reality of things, and that lose themselves in pedantic futilities passing under the name of political questions. And outside of all this is the desolating reality of local misgovernment; the collapse of all the better elements of the bureaucratic machine; the growth of parliamentarism with all its following of patronage and corruption; the neglect of the nation's most vital public interests, which are deferred to foolish personal or party questions; the oppression of class by class; the squandering of the patrimony of the poor; the disproportion of taxes bearing upon the less well-to-do classes; the inequality, in fact, of the various ranks of citizens before the law and justice; the increase of crime; the absence of protection to women and children in mines and workshops ; and the crowds of peasants driven to distant lands by usury and oppression. Such is the sad reality which the country presents to our gaze; but the great political parties and Italian statesmen have something else to do than to occupy themselves with such questions at present."

SAYCE ON THE SCIENCE OF LANGUAGE.*

PROFESSOR SAYCE is most widely and favorably known as an Assyrian scholar, being ranked by common consent among the foremost of those who are devoting themselves to the study of the cuneiform writing and the languages and literatures recorded in it. But his interests and sympathies are limited to no single department of philology; he is a frequent and acceptable correspondent of the leading English literary journals; his name is prominent on the list of friends of the spelling reform, and he occupies the chair of comparative philology at Oxford during the absorption of Prof. Max Müller in the task of editing and publishing translations of the 'Sacred Books of the East.' He has already produced (in 1874) a brief treatise on linguistics, entitled 'Principles of Comparative Philology'; the present is a much more ambitious work, of over 800 octavo pages. Coming as this does after so many predecessors, of more or less merit, we are entitled to expect a good deal from it. Twenty or thirty years ago any one of wide reading and some pretension to learning might have felt justified in stringing together his loose observations on language for the benefit of persons less instructed; now that can no longer be tolerated: we require clearness and consistency of views, distinctness of statement, coherence of argument, and absence of fantastic and futile explanations of familiar facts, as well as additions to knowledge on the various subjects treated.

One cannot, however, turn over Mr. Sayce's volumes even in the most cursory manner without lighting here and there upon sentences or paragraphs which seem to disregard all these reasonable requirements, and which provoke a smile, if nothing worse. Thus, for example, in the chapter on "Phonology and Sematology" (i. 226–263) we are told that when audible vibrations succeed one another at irregular intervals "we have what is called a noise—a source of constant delight to the savage and the infant, but exceedingly painful to the sensitive ear." Again: "It needs but a short experience to discover the numberless varieties of voice that may exist, and it is not uncommon for a blind man by this means not only to distinguish the age and sex of those he meets, but even to recognize his friends." Are we all blind, then? or has the author dimly floating before his mind what he has heard or read of the blind man's acuteness of *touch?* Pitch, we are told, may be detected even in a whispered vowel; any one can readily convince himself of the contrary. The *a* in *father* is called "obscure," and said to constrain the position of the tongue more than any other vowel; though it is almost immediately added that *i* and *u* require a stronger effort of articulation. A vowel is thus lucidly defined: it "is the quality or timbre of voice as modified by the tongue and lips, and consists of the forms assumed by the vibrating air as it passes through the windpipe and vocal chords." The difference between an "affricative" like *pf* and a true aspirate like *p'h* is explained to be that in the former a spirant is preceded by an explosive, while in the latter the spirant follows the explosive (i. 270)! "If we try to converse while walking uphill we shall find that the nasals are longest heard." On one page "the laws of phonology are as undeviating in their action as the laws of physical science"; on another, the occurrence of phonetic changes "is more or less sporadic and arbitrary—that is to say, they may act upon one word and not upon its neighbor." The phonograph is highly praised as having "contributed some facts of importance to phonetic science; thus, we find that all sounds may be reproduced backwards by simply beginning with the last forms indented on the tin-foil, *sociability*, for example, becoming *ytilibaishos*"—and, we may add, *ăb* becoming *bă;* all honor to the phonograph! *Silly* "is simply the German *selig*, 'blessed,' and such is still its meaning in Spenser's *silly sheep*"—and this blundering discovery, which might have been corrected out of any dictionary, is regarded by the author with so much complacency that he repeats it in two or three other places.

We have plucked these flowers, in passing, from a single bed, and there are a plenty more like them for others to gather. In the next locality the varying position of the genitive—before its governing noun in Aryan, after it in Semitic—is thus accounted for: "The Aryan, the inventor of induction and the scientific method, fixes his first attention on the phenomenon and traces it up to its source; the Semite, on the other hand, makes the first cause his starting point, and derives therefrom with easy assurance all the varying phenomena that surround him." With equally startling profundity, the absence of compound words in Semitic is traced to the fact that "with the Semite the universe is an undivided whole, not a compound resolvable into its parts" (ii. 176). But the distinction of the *ego* and *non-ego* is our author's favorite metaphysical criterion in language, and is applied by him to explain a great variety of things. Thus, grammatical gender arises because "the primitive Aryan had not yet distinguished the object thought of from the subject that thought of it," and so endowed the universe with his own sexuality (i. 406). It would seem, however, to follow from this that by the he-Aryan everything should have been regarded as masculine, and by the she-Aryan as feminine; if he, for example, used both genders, he must have recognized at least two subjects, himself and his wife. Further, he added a neuter gender to his masculine and feminine when he "awoke to the consciousness that he was essentially different from the objects

* 'Introduction to the Science of Language. By A. H. Sayce, Deputy Professor of Comparative Philology in the University of Oxford.' In two volumes. Crown 8vo, pp. viii.–441, 421. London: C. Kegan Paul & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1880.

about him [and his wife]"; whence we must conclude that the "Semites and some other races," who remained contented with only two genders, never gained such consciousness, and also that it has been lost by the modern Frenchman. An additional result was the formation of the passive voice, and of a nominative to the first personal pronoun (both of which, as it happens, the Semites have also perversely acquired); for *ego* is far later than *me*, and marks the epoch when the "me" became an "I." As if the recognition of individuality were any less involved in *me* than in *I!* Yet further, the conception of duality is attained by means of the mind's coming "to distinguish between itself and that which is outside itself; to realize, in fact, that it has an individual existence distinct from that of some one else"; whence the priority (in our author's opinion) of the dual number everywhere to the plural, and the circumstance that some races can count two but not three. Once more, the Romans said *curro*, without a distinct expression of the personal actor, such as is made in our *I am running*, because they had no clear idea of any distinction between themselves and the objects around them (i. 122); and yet they had three genders!

It is needless to point out how empty, as well as confused, all this is. The modern philosopher, not the primitive man, is the one to feel embarrassed about the distinction of himself from the universe. Language is the expression of the homely common-sense of mankind, not of the absolute verity of things. Every act of nomenclature, from the beginning down, implies a recognition of the actuality and separateness of existences. Even a dog over a bone has an apprehension of *meum* and *tuum* clear enough to found at least a dual number on, if not also an *I* and *thou*. The mule, when he lets fly his heels, manages always to hit some fellow-being, and is said by those who know him best to betray a malicious enjoyment of the difference of kicker and kickee. That the language-makers did not realize all that was involved in the distinction of subject and object is true enough, but neither do the language-users now. The plain man, of every race, doubts the multiplicity of beings just as little as he doubts his own being; the developed sage attains to an apprehension of duality by discovering that the whole external universe is only a reflection in the mirror of self; and when he comes to perceive that he has no assurance of any reality in the object of this reflection, he has thrown off the shackles of numbers and persons, and is ready for his *nirvâna*. So long, however, as he lingers in existence, he has to submit to say *we* and *you* and *they;* the common-sense of humanity as embodied in language is too strong for him to resist.

The most peculiar and conspicuous doctrine put forward in this work by Professor Sayce, perhaps, is that of the primitiveness of the sentence as distinguished from the word: the initial germs of speech, he asserts, were sentences; a sentence is not everywhere made up by putting words together, but words are the *disjecta membra* of sentences that have gone to pieces. Not that he holds the doctrine clearly and consistently, making it the basis of his history of language; that is not his way: he rather puts it forward persistently, every here and there, denouncing at the same time the opposing view, of the originality of roots, now prevailingly held by students of language. And then in other passages he seems to be himself a pronounced radicarian: he declares that roots are the barrier beyond which lies inarticulate speech, regards words as derived from radicals, holds it to be true that articulate language begins with roots, calls it a primary law that language is based on roots, believes roots the best representatives we can obtain of the vocabulary of primitive man, and so on; even the Hindu grammarians (from whom he most erroneously conceives the doctrine of roots to be servilely borrowed) could hardly go further than this. Indeed, we have found it wholly impossible to arrive at any distinct understanding of what he really believes: what, to his mind, is the difference between a root, a word, and a sentence. When treating of the origin of language out of gestures and imitative and exclamatory utterances, he points out (i. 111) that thus "in course of time a collection of words would be formed, each of which represented what we now call a sentence." This is precisely the true view; the first speech-products of men were the equivalents of the later sentences, because they were used to signify what we now signify more completely by sentences; but they were words, because they were unitary utterances, not divisible into parts of which one could be used alone to intimate one thing and another to intimate another; and they were roots, because they contained no expression of grammatical relation—for that, although Mr. Sayce cannot be made to see it, is all that is meant by a root. They were sentences in the same way as a clap of the hands or the exclamation *hi!* is a sentence, and a gesture of beckoning is another; for these mean 'I want you to pay attention to me,' and 'I want you to come straight here'; but between and in the transformation of the former of these modes of expression into the latter lies the whole historical development of speech. But Mr. Sayce proceeds immediately to draw the inference that "language begins with sentences, not with single words"; and he adds that "the latter exist only for the lexicographer, and even the lexicographer has to turn them into sentences by affixing a definition if he would render them intelligible." It appears, then, for example, that *ale* is the fiction of a dictionary-maker; but "*a-l-e*, malt liquor" is a sentence, and intelligible! And on the next page we are told that to break up a sentence like *don't do that* into the four words *do-not-do-that* is grammarian's work, and analogous to analyzing a word into the several sounds that compose it; that is, we may add, to take an arrow apart into shaft and plume and flint-head is, as regards the history of the implement, a process of the same character as analyzing the flint into its chemical constituents. The illustration, moreover, would seem to show that our author does not regard sentences as having even yet really fallen apart into words. He talks elsewhere of "sentence-words," a conveniently indefinite compromise, and ventures only to assert (ii. 13) that in primitive language they were at least dissyllabic; so that their dissection into words cannot have been a very fertile process of production. As he holds that roots also were in general dissyllabic, the question comes up again what he can possibly mean by root and word and sentence-word and sentence. If he had ever asked himself that question and answered it, he would hardly be able to maintain (as he does in sundry places: *e.g.*, ii. 216) that the polysynthetic American-Indian sentence is the nearest surviving approach to the structure of primitive speech.

We will only add further, as having a possible bearing on this doctrine, that our author has discovered, he does not tell us how, a most important fact in the history of language: it "was not created until the several types of race had been fully fixed and determined," and man "had passed from the merely gregarious stage of existence into that of settled communities" (ii. 318–324). He holds (apparently following Müller) that the earth had become pretty fully peopled with mutes, when at last, the fulness of time being come, perhaps at a given signal, they all began to speak, in "dialects," and the dialects began to combine into languages. Perhaps, as they had been holding in so long, it was natural that they should burst out into sentences—a fully-equipped Minerva starting at once from each brain.

We have done this work no injustice as a whole by the extracts we have made from it. It is all of a piece. If its mutually hostile half-views were allowed to cancel one another, its whole foundation of linguistic philosophy would drop out from under it. We know not where to point out in it any doctrine that is clearly apprehended, distinctly put forth, and consistently maintained. Such a work stands in no definable relation to a science of language, even as "introduction."

The index, for which the author acknowledges his indebtedness to a 'prentice hand, is made without the faintest conception of what an index should be, and is unusable for any good purpose.

DOBSON'S VIGNETTES IN RHYME.*

MR. DOBSON has made up this American edition of his verses mainly from his 'Vignettes in Rhyme,' published in 1873, and his 'Proverbs in Porcelain,' which appeared three years ago. They are, most of them, still fresh in the memory of those who then made their acquaintance—for to know Mr. Dobson's verses is to be impressed by their quality—but an American volume will undoubtedly introduce him to many new admirers. The book is dedicated to Dr. Holmes, "a couple of words" from whom once made the author "very proud and happy," and is prefaced with an introduction by Mr. Stedman, which, we should think, would have a similar effect. This latter is very prettily written, and the attentive reader will find it considerably more than a graceful literary compliment full of tact and courtesy—if not a close or comprehensive criticism, at least a suggestive characterization with which as a guide no person of perception can go wrong. Mr. Dobson, indeed, is a very plain case; it is impossible not to recognize his qualities readily, and they are so distinct that, if Mr. Stedman be exact in saying that "it is hard to define his limitations, for he has not yet gone beyond them," it is still possible to divine what these must be. It is perhaps Mr. Dobson's chief merit that he carefully avoids demonstration of them.

In this respect he is, in fact, almost unique among those of his contemporaries who write English verse. He is his own academy, as it were, and subscribes as carefully to the canons which he has apparently accepted

* 'Vignettes in Rhyme, and Other Verses. By Austin Dobson.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1880.

for himself as if these were imposed by some high court of literature of recognized authority. The lack of any such tribunal in literary matters, or, which is much the same thing, the absence of an educated and fastidious public opinion, has been a subject of congratulation rather than regret to many Anglo-Saxon writers. "We manage these things better in England," said Macaulay, speaking of the whimsical length to which separating the romance and the philosophy of history had been carried in France—that is to say, let them manage themselves. And whatever the effect upon English prose of allowing it to take care of itself, it has generally been admitted that English poetry would never have been the noble, the unrivalled, thing it is if the genius which has produced it were not allowed, as the most insistent advocate of academic influence puts it, "entire independence of all authority, prescription, and routine—the fullest room to expand as it will." At the same time, when we happen upon an English poet who, in spite of the extreme tolerance exercised by his public towards the freaks and extravagances not only of genius but of the most moderate talent, exhibits the reserve, the measure, the order which are in general the product of exterior influences, there are few of us probably who do not greet them with equal satisfaction and surprise. Mr. Dobson's verse is of this sort, and it not only in itself displays a fine regard for form, but discloses in him a mental attitude that at once bespeaks confidence in its sanity and intelligence. One feels sure that he will attempt nothing he cannot do well, and has a sense of security like that stimulated by the performance of a very skilful pianist. It is this, perhaps, that mainly distinguishes him from the various versifiers with whom it has been usual to associate him. You may be certain beforehand of being interested in whatever he writes to a degree not quite attainable in the instances, say, of Mr. Gosse or Mr. Locker. Indeed it is this superiority which entitles him to consideration among indisputably greater poets than himself—poets of passion like Mr. Swinburne, or of exalted sentiment like Mrs. Browning. It is quite impossible to fancy him either so uncertain about the one thing it behoves him to do with his might as to divide his force between poetry and wall-paper designs like Mr. Morris, or poetry and painting like Mr. Rossetti. And the cause of this impression is undoubtedly the strict obedience which his effort pays to his genius. His work is as natural an outgrowth as that of Lamb.

This is perhaps the more remarkable in view of the range and flexibility of his expression; it is rarely that facility of workmanship fails to lead a clever man beyond the just confines of his appointed work. But Mr. Dobson is rendered impervious to temptation of this sort by the sincere and loving respect he has for his real function. This, we take it, is to dignify as well as decorate the trifles light as air which a delicate and poetic sensibility discerns in what to grosser perceptions is paltry or prosaic. As one remembers how the Syracusan artist from generation to generation rested content with minute and scarcely visible variations in refining upon a numismatic design centuries old, it is possible to see how distinct this is from dilettanteism, and how genuine a thing fastidiousness in fine-art may be.

> "All passes. ART alone
> Enduring stays to us;
> The Bust outlasts the throne,
> The Coin, Tiberius,"

Mr. Dobson sings in imitation of Gautier; and if the fine-art of the Victorian age should prove enduring, it will owe its permanence in due proportion to such unaffected daintiness as Mr. Dobson's as well as to the monuments of greater masters. How unaffected and simple this easily satirized quality may be, a score of poems in this volume testify. They are all pervaded by a freshness that is almost breezy. In none of them do we meet anything that touches sentimentality; indeed, in this respect they have an almost tonic property. The things that strike him as fit subjects for his caressing elaboration are common characters, ordinary incidents, homely dramas, a love-letter, a lovers' quarrel, a beloved curé's morning walk down his village street, "An Old Fish-pond," "At the Convent Gate," "My Landlady," "Before Sedan," and so on; not unlike the subjects that Thackeray's nice sense of the literary proprieties celebrated in his 'Ballads.' To his keen scent for the aroma of old-fashioned elegance with the result of an exquisite rehabilitation, as it were, of eighteenth-century courtliness and quaintness Mr. Stedman has called attention in his introduction, having evident sympathy for "a feeling of to-day that dallies with the fragments of the past," as he puts it. And the reader will find a pretty and real consistency between the genuine feeling with which such pure matters of taste as bric-à-brac and toilets are treated, and the taste on the other hand which elevates the treatment of more homely themes; it indicates a poise of mind and a just balance of artistic temperament better, perhaps, than any other of Mr. Dobson's characteristics can. As to the workmanship in which these qualities are disclosed, it follows naturally that it is of an instinctive propriety, and that between the form and the thought there is that interdependence concerning which no laws can be laid down and no instructions given, but which is always quite as unmistakable as if it were more definite and not the less delightful for being in a sort impalpable. That deft touch beneath which the object or the idea seems to unfold and expand of itself, Mr. Dobson was born to; indeed, if we were to indicate the most individual trait of his handiwork, his technique, we should point to the admirable combination of ease and elaboration in virtue of which his verse seems to have been conceived as it was written. For the technical erudition which it displays, and which it nevertheless carries with a grace unknown to pedantry, we confess to an unprofessional disregard. It is pleasant to see "a fine poet at play," as Mr. Stedman says; but his remark that for Mr. Dobson's popularization of old French stanzaic and rhythmic forms he is not "sure whether to thank him or to condole with him," is a qualification with which we quite agree. In general it is not a poet's "experiments" that we like best in his work; however successful they may be, one reflects that a good deal of poetic force is expended in refitting the foreign garb, and that we can afford to lose none of it if the poet be really competent for the task.

Nothing in what we have said, it should be borne in mind, implies that Mr. Dobson can be called other than distinctly a minor poet. Indeed, the traits which are noticeable in him involve this inevitably. He has not only "not yet gone beyond his limitations," but the adaptedness of his work to his genius and, as we say, his uncompelled restriction of himself, are so evident that the natural induction is trustworthy; no one, it may almost be said, can do a thing as well as Mr. Dobson does the "thing" he has spontaneously chosen, and do so well anything else. Upon the plane next above that of his poetry a whirl of emotions, a drama of ideas, is going on of which he takes no note. It would be difficult to imagine Burns writing *vers de société*. Thackeray's ballads are excellent, not only in humor and sentiment, but in skill and fancy; but there is something amateurish and playful about them, as if even the gravest were not quite serious intellectually. Mr. Dobson is *par excellence* the writer of *vers de société;* Thackeray would cheerfully have "knocked under" to him; and better, probably, than another he appreciates that for his dainty Muse heroics of any kind are unmeet offerings. "Marrow" and "pith" and "significance" are unfamiliar terms in the domain over which she presides, as they are the unfailing elements of great poetry—so unfailing that many English-speaking people, at all events, are accustomed to measure *all* poetry by their presence or absence, real or fancied. To demonstrate that there is such a thing as minor poetry, that it has to do with very real and genuine, if not very profound or passionate, emotions, and that its art has possibilities of exquisiteness as truly inartificial as the grand style itself, and to do this as blithely and winningly as Mr. Dobson does it, is a service which we are inclined to regard as just now a substantial one—quite as substantial as the popularization of exotic versification.

FREEMAN'S HISTORICAL ESSAYS.*

MR. FREEMAN is the historian of continuity in history. He has made it his business for years to teach that there is unity in all history, that every age is connected with all ages before it by an uninterrupted line of filiation. This lesson he has taught so well that it will never need to be taught again; and if we look back twenty years to the manner in which history was regarded before he began to be listened to, we must confess that probably no writer has ever worked so great a change as he in the historical theories of a generation. The theory of *cataclysms* in history will probably never again regain its old influence.

And nevertheless one cannot but think that, like all ardent reformers, he has pushed his theory to an extreme. Cataclysms in geology were disposed of by Sir Charles Lyell; but, nevertheless, we are told that the theory of gradual changes is found not to work in all points. Just so in history. Nobody will ever again pretend that English history—as a different thing from Anglo Saxon history—begins with the Norman Conquest. So far we all accept Mr. Freeman's teachings; but very few have been willing to go with him to the point of utterly discarding the term Anglo-Saxon, as if the Norman Conquest were no more of an epoch than the Revolution of 1688. Again, take the assertion that ancient and

* 'Historical Essays By Edward A. Freeman, M.A., Hon. D.C.L. and LL.D., late fellow of Trinity College, Oxford; honorary member of the Imperial University of St. Petersburg.' Third series. 8vo, pp. 476. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.

modern history only form at bottom one sequence : it is very true, as shown on page 240 of these essays, that any particular date we may select to divide these periods must be arbitrary and misleading; but, after all, how every other ground of distinction fades into insignificance by the side of that fact which is the most fundamental one of modern history —Christianity; or that other most fundamental one of mediæval history —the unity of the Church. The Byzantine Empire, with Byzantine civilization, was a piece of antiquity projected down into modern times; but, being Christian, it was not a piece of pure antiquity. Mr. Freeman says, in his graphic way: "The knights who fought at Wakefield and Towton might, if they had pleased, have fought, like the Warangians, two centuries and a half earlier, for the throne of Constantine and Augustus." But why would they have fought? For their common Christianity. In virtue of this, they belonged alike to the fifteenth century. The knights of Wakefield and Towton would not have fought for the throne of Constantine and Augustus—"What was Hecuba to them or they to Hecuba?"—nor for the administrative system and theory of empire that had come down from old Rome; but for the cross of Christ and the church of St. Sophia, in virtue of which the Constantinopolitans were as much moderns as themselves. So with that most remarkable and significant example of continuity in history, the Roman Empire; it was not, after all, the Roman Empire of Augustus and Trajan, it was the *Holy* Roman Empire, and in that word there lies a world of difference.

This disposition to overestimate the unity of history is well illustrated on page 296, where Mr. Freeman protests, in its name, against the destruction of the mediæval tower at the Propylæa of Athens, in the interest of classical associations—this tower "proclaimed to all men," he says, "that Athens was not wiped out of the history of mankind when she yielded to Philip or to Antipatros." Mr. Finlay has done a good work in teaching us this truth, and Mr. Freeman in emphasizing it; but, after all, are not the two hundred and fifty years from Solon to Demosthenes worth all the rest of Athenian history? What history is worth to us is found in just that year or act or character or century in which a nation or a man does something which mankind does not suffer to be forgotten. As to this particular case of the destruction of the mediæval tower, we express no opinion; but we are very sure that all the real dukes of Athens in history can be well spared for Shakspere's fictitious one.

All this has nothing to do with Mr. Freeman's new series of essays; and we are glad enough, however we may take exceptions to the overstraining of the theory, to have so excellent a connecting link between ancient and modern history, so eloquent a teacher of the unity of history, as this book. For that is its special purpose. Mr. Freeman's first series treated of modern, or rather the later mediæval, history; the second went back to classical times; the present series, we read in the preface, "is meant to illustrate some periods of history which lie between the periods which were illustrated in the two earlier series." And perhaps in no portion of his varied labors has he touched upon points so generally unfamiliar as in this volume. Almost every one of these essays opened, when it first appeared, a view which was on the whole novel and almost paradoxical to the reading public. It is not that the facts and points of view were in themselves new, but they were new to his readers—nay, new to students of history as a class, whose attention had for the most part been confined to classical antiquity and the nations of Western Europe. When, therefore, Mr. Freeman began to talk of the Illyrian emperors and the Byzantine Empire, it came as a new revelation to readers of Gibbon that there was anything worth studying and admiring in those degenerate times. The articles upon Treves, Ravenna, Palermo, and the Southern Slavs had very much the same novelty and surprise.

The articles in this volume fall into two groups—Mr. Freeman says three, but the third group consists of only two essays, and two do not make a group anywhere but in a college-yard; we prefer, therefore, to regard the two Sicilian essays as additions. They are as interesting and suggestive as any ; intended, he says, to insist "on the true historic character of Sicily, first, as what its geographical position made it—the general meeting-place of all the nations round the Mediterranean; secondly, as, in its later shape, one of the states which were carved out of the Eastern Roman Empire. The history of Sicily is wholly misunderstood if it is taken, as it often is, for merely part of the history of Italy" (p. vi.) Nothing in this volume is better worth reading than the essay on "The Normans at Palermo."

"The first group deals with the Roman power in the West, and with some of its chief seats in the intermediate time above defined. . . . The second group deals with the history of Southeastern Europe, and with the Greek lands as a part of Southeastern Europe." The first group contains four essays, the second five. They are not all reprinted just as they first appeared. Nothing is more characteristic of Mr. Freeman's method than the way in which he has revised, rewritten, and combined these essays—however recent in composition—in order to adapt them to changed times. The essay on "Race and Language" is made up of two articles from the *Contemporary* and *Fortnightly Reviews;* that on "Mediæval and Modern Greece" of three articles from the *Edinburgh, National,* and *British Reviews.* "There was," he says, "necessarily a great deal of repetition and a great deal of temporary matter. On the other hand, each essay contained some matter which I looked on as worth preserving. . . . Purely temporary matter I have tried to get rid of; but the history of the year 1878 is not necessarily temporary matter, any more than the history of any earlier year"—a good remark.

One of the most striking passages in the book is in the essay upon "The Byzantine Empire," where, after noting the familiar fact that the Roman Empire had no fixed rule of succession, Mr. Freeman undertakes to show why it could not have one. We do not feel sure that his explanation is correct, but it is well worth citing: "As late as the legislation of Justinian the legal theory still was that the Roman people, by a special act in each case, transferred to each succeeding emperor the powers which were inherent in the people itself. With such a theory as this there could be no legal hereditary succession. There could not even be any regular law of election; for election supposes a recognized office to which somebody or other must be chosen; it does not apply to an extraordinary office created in each case by a special legislative act" (p. 263). We are inclined to think that the reason why there could be no fixed rule of succession is not to be found in the fact that there was "no recognized office"—the prevailing theory as to the Roman Empire regards it as a definite change in the constitution, the establishment of a new magistracy with more exalted powers—but in the fact that this new office was a *tyranny*, in the Greek sense of the term. A republican magistracy has a rule of election; a monarchy, with roots in the past, has a safe rule of hereditary succession; but a government founded by force is upheld only by force, and at any moment it is at the mercy of the strongest.

We are glad to see the doctrine asserted (p. 430) of the essentially independent development of the Greek religion; although here, again, Mr. Freeman goes further than we can follow him. "The Greek might adopt some Phœnician ideas—some would have us believe that he adopted some Phœnician deities—but the Greek and Phœnician creeds could never be really fused together, as one Aryan creed could be fused with another. Zeus and Jupiter, originally one, could be fused together again; neither could be worshipped with the rites of Baal or Moloch." This is excellent; but—to say nothing of the established identity of Melikertes and Herakles, for instance, with Phœnician deities—Mr. Freeman forgets here the important fact that, in the Empire, the Roman religion was completely transfused with Asiatic superstitions; and not merely the worship of Cybele, Isis, and Mithras, with all their oriental rites, but Jupiter himself was amalgamated with oriental deities and worshipped with their ceremonial.

Mr. Freeman says "the Southern *Slaves*" (rather than *Slavs*), and defends the spelling on three grounds: "First, no English word ends in *v*. Secondly, we form the names of other nations in the same way : we say a *Swede*, a *Dane*, and a *Pole*, not a *Swed*, a *Dan*, or a *Pol*. Thirdly, it is important to bear in mind the history of the word—the fact that *Slave*, in the sense of δοῦλος, is simply the same word with the national name" (p. 381). For all that we prefer the other spelling, if only to avoid ambiguity—"the Southern Slaves" has an ambiguous sound, especially to an American ear. As to his arguments, we have at least the town of *Kiev; Yaroslav, Tambov*, and similar Russian names, are also becoming familiar, and many Hebrew grammars in English use *Tav* and *Vav* instead of the un-Hebrew *Tau* and *Vau*, or *Waw*. *Slav* is, we suppose, pronounced with the Continental sound of the vowel, which is not the case with *Swede, Dane*, and *Pole*. The third consideration cannot outweigh that of ambiguity, and at any rate the etymology is shown clearly enough with either spelling. "Slaves" is, besides, offensive to the eye of the Slav, and in hasty newspaper printing very frequently changed into *slaves*, to the confusion of the reader.

Camps and Tramps in the Adirondacks, and Grayling Fishing in Northern Michigan. By A. Judd Northrup. (Syracuse, N. Y.: Davis, Bardeen & Co.)—The beauties, sports, and perils of the Adirondacks have been so often set forth by enterprising amateurs in the past few years that a book on the subject to be successful must depend on something

entirely outside the recital of tame facts. Since the Rev. Mr. Murray and his friends have exterminated the deer by the sportsmanlike amusement of illegal night-hunting, and the few trout left by the pickerel are relentlessly harried by and for the tourist, in and out of season, the contemplation of natural scenery is almost the only resource of the traveller in these wilds, and a truthful account of exploits with rod and gun could not be made of thrilling interest. Mr. Judd takes us through different parts of the Adirondacks in company with various citizens of Syracuse, whose real names and avocations he reveals in the preface. The conversations of this party while in camp indicate the same spirit of recklessness and hilarity which always seems to pervade such places. For instance, the "Neophyte," the "Professor," and the "Captain," after supping sumptuously on broiled trout, will talk for two pages about the incidents of going to bed in a sportsmanlike way, and nearly the same space is occupied in giving the information that a cigar and a nap followed a "noonday lunch." The book is evidently truthful as to the fish and game killed on the different expeditions. There were but two deer shot by night-hunting, and only one story of trout-fishing (that on page 249) would Murray have deemed worthy of record. The large hotel of "Pol" (short for Apollos, and not "Paul," Smith, as Mr. Judd has it), on the St. Regis, receives an all too-flattering notice for those who remember "Pol" when he lived in the little log-house in the woods; the meal he then gave for twenty-five cents contained more good substantial food than he now furnishes in a week at his present vast and comfortless establishment.

The "Grayling Fishing" is given as a supplemental chapter, and contains a very good description of the head-waters of the Au Sable River, which Mr. Judd descended hardly far enough to get into the good fishing. He notes the fact of grayling being so stay-at-home in their habits that when cleared out of one pool it is a long time before they are replaced by new-comers. This peculiarity, together with their great freedom in taking bait or fly when in the humor, Mr. Judd considers unfavorable to their long survival in the few streams they are known to inhabit. The first twenty-five miles of the Au Sable from Hartwick's is now nearly fished out, though five or six years since there were taken from one small pool within that distance, and in less than half an hour, eighteen grayling averaging over half a pound each. The hints Mr. Judd gives about other accessible grayling rivers in Michigan are trustworthy, as well as his descriptions of the habits of the fish and their way of taking. The book ends with a spirited description of a storm on Lake Huron, during which "the angry orb wrapped himself in tinted clouds which he dyed in blood," and "winds shrieked and howled among the ropes and chains like affrighted spirits of evil." The gallant *Marine City*, however, weathered the tempest and arrived safely at Detroit, where Mr. Judd takes leave of her and of his readers.

The Nineteenth Century: A History. By Robert Mackenzie. (London and New York: T. Nelson & Sons. 1880. 8vo, pp. 463.)—This is the work of a Liberal Englishman, anxious to tell of the advance of the race, and chiefly of Great Britain, in order to encourage his countrymen to persevere in the path of freedom and reform. He deprecates war and condemns the "imperial" policy of the present and past, though he is not indifferent to the glorious achievements of British soldiers even when their cause was not strictly just. He delights in the achievements of peaceful industry, in the acts of wise philanthropy, and, above all, in the grand attempts of the century at righting wrongs and carrying out enfranchisement. His liberalism borders on optimism, and the tone of his narratives is charitable—as to individuals—even when he paints the darkest sides of former oppression or still lingering remnants of barbarism. These pictures, however, are painted in the darkest colors, and never relieved by the softening light of opposite traits; and exaggeration in expressions is often added to the total absence of extenuation. Thus, we read about the politico-social conditions at the beginning of the century: "Slavery still existed throughout the world to an enormous extent. The great mass of the Russian peasants were serfs. There were nine million slaves [*sic*] in Hungary. The peasantry of Austria and Prussia were nearly all slaves [*sic*]. America had put down the slave-trade, but she still owned slaves, and had not begun [*sic*] to question the propriety of doing so." And this is preceded and followed by sketches of English life as dismal as the following:

"Women and children worked in coal-pits. They dragged about little wagons by a chain fastened around the waist, they crawling like brutes on hands and feet in the darkness of the mine. Children of six were habitually employed. Their hours of labor were fourteen to sixteen daily. The horrors among which they lived induced disease and early death. Law did not seem to reach the depths of a coal-pit, and the hapless children were often mutilated, and occasionally killed, with perfect impunity by the brutalized miners among whom they labored. There was no machinery to drag the coals to the surface, and women climbed long wooden stairs with baskets of coal upon their backs."

Substantially, however, our author's delineations are correct, and as his intentions are laudable, and his expositions instructive, we are not inclined to quarrel with him about precision and strict impartiality. We must also add that his style is plain and pleasant throughout, and the choice of his main topics very appropriate to the plan of the whole. The first book treats of the opening of the century, Napoleon Bonaparte and the Congress of Vienna; the second of the social condition of Great Britain, the Reform Bill, "the redress of wrongs," Chartism, English wars, the victories of peace, Christian missions, charities, the Anglo-Indian Empire, and the British colonies; and the third and last of France, Prussia, Austria, Italy, Russia, Turkey, the United States, the Papacy, and the general progress of liberty in Europe. There is unity in all this, agreeably to the correctly chosen title, 'The Nineteenth Century: *a* History.' Were the title 'History of the Nineteenth Century,' nothing would be more imperfect and defective than this book; for not only are literature, philosophy, and similar topics wholly left out, but even the political history of the century is only given in certain outlines, and entire countries are completely, or almost completely, ignored.

This feature is aggravated by the author's peculiar way of narrating history without biographical features, and almost without names, personal or geographical. Thus, Spain is only incidentally mentioned in some scattered lines, and no such names as Charles IV., Ferdinand VII., Christine, Isabella, Amadeo, Alfonso, Don Carlos, Espartero, Cabrera, Narvaez, O'Donnell, Prim, or Castelar can be discovered in the whole book. The insurrections in the Spanish colonies are not related. The same is the case with Portugal and her former dependencies, such figures as Dom Miguel and the Pedros being as completely forgotten as the Carloses, Hidalgo, or Bolivar. Sweden and Belgium do not exist for the book. The history of Eastern Europe is told without a mention of a single sultan, of Ali Pasha, Mehemet Ali, or Ibrahim Pasha; of Kutuzoff, Diebitsch, or Skobeleff; of Beust, Deák, or Andrássy; or of any Greek or Pole or Turk, Osman Pasha alone excepted. The sieges of Saragossa, Cadiz, Missolonghi, Varna, Warsaw, Antwerp, Buda, Comorn, and Silistria are all alike passed over in silence. And yet the author has not wasted his space, and there are few paragraphs in his book the contents of which are not interesting; only the selection of topics is limited, and the attention bestowed upon them very unequal: some descriptions are full and graphic, others meagre and pale. There are events told as briefly and in such chronological disorder as the following:

"We bombarded Acre to restore the dominion of Turkey over Syria. We sharply chastised the Algerines for their practice of piracy. . . . Three times we fought with China. Once we bombarded a considerable Japanese town. We had four wars with the Kaffirs. We had a toy war with Persia. We subdued the natives of New Zealand. We waged with the Abyssinians in a doubtful quarrel a war composed of one battle, and memorable chiefly for its enormous cost. We fought victoriously against the Ashantees. Finally, we were dragged by the unwarrantable measures of one of our public servants into a war with the Zulus, of the origin and early conduct of which we have the deepest reason to feel ashamed."

No name of a commander here, none of a battle-field, no date. Nor are the author's dates always correct, in spite of their paucity. The French States-General did not meet on "May 2, 1789" (p. 18), but on May 5; Robespierre was not guillotined on "July 27, 1794" (p. 29), but on July 28; the peace of Amiens was not concluded in "1801" (p. 37), but in 1802; the Vienna insurrection in which Latour was murdered did not break out on "Oct. 4, 1848" (p. 343), but on Oct. 6; the battle of Novara was not fought on "March 24, 1849" (p. 358), but on March 23; that of Solferino not on June "25," 1859 (p. 363), but on June 24; the emancipation of the Russian serfs was not decreed on "Feb. 19, 1861" (p. 383), but on March 3 (Feb. 19, O. S.); King William was not crowned as German emperor in "Dec., 1870" (p. 308), but on Jan. 18, 1871. Among other inaccuracies we have noticed the mention of a "king of Austria" (p. 65); of twenty-two Swiss cantons (p. 66) at a time when there were not yet so many; of the duchy of Warsaw as a grand duchy (p. 67); and of the mob of Paris waging "for days incessant war with the troops" under Louis XVIII. (p. 257), which is an anachronism.

Needlework. By Elizabeth Glaister, author of 'Art Embroidery,' etc. With Illustrations. (London: Macmillan & Co. 1880.)—There are

more useful hints in this little book than in most of its kind: many of the remarks upon color, stitches, and material are good and suggestive. But it expresses with innocent unconsciousness views which it would be hard to deal with seriously but for the fact that they are very much in vogue. We are told, to be sure, that "honesty, industry, and economy, . . . patience, judgment, learning, and taste, are all required of those who would weave Penelope's web," and that if the embroidery is the product of your own thought, it will give it an air of originality that can never be attained through the intelligence of others. But the first, at least, of the requisite virtues would seem to be a little inconvenient to one who should follow Mrs. Glaister's recommendations. One of the advantages of decorative needlework, the author says, is that in no other art is it so easy to profit by the genius of others, and she dilates on the many sources from which a design may be culled—from picture galleries, old manuscripts, Moorish vases, metal-work, heraldry, etc. "Convey, the wise it call."

The general remarks as to the kind of design to be used for particular objects, such as curtains, etc., seem valuable. The descriptions are less so. The following design for a bed-quilt, for instance, leaves little here below untouched: "We have seen one on which sunflowers and poppies, peacocks and owls, the rising sun, the moon and stars, with other appropriate suggestions of day and night, labor and rest, are composed into a beautiful design, and bordered with verses from the morning and the evening hymn."

Players of a Century: A Record of the Albany Stage, including notices of prominent actors who have appeared in America. By H. P. Phelps. (Albany: Joseph McDonough. 1880. 8vo, pp. 424.)—The local history of the theatre in the United States is slowly getting itself written. What Mr. Ireland has done admirably and at length for New York, and what Mr. Clapp and Mr. Blake have more briefly attempted for Boston and Providence, Mr. Phelps has here accomplished for the Albany stage. We believe that Mr. Gabriel Harrison, the author of the 'Life of John Howard Payne,' has in MS. a history of the Brooklyn stage; and the earlier days of the drama in Philadelphia are recorded in the lives of W. B. Wood and F. C. Wemyss, although the second city of the Union in point of size has not as yet seen the history of its stage set forth in order and at length in a volume devoted to this special service.

Seven years ago Mr. Henry D. Stone published in Albany a book of "Personal Recollections of the Drama" which, although written in a fragmentary manner, contained many useful facts and many amusing anecdotes. This book has been of service to Mr. Phelps, as the latter frankly acknowledges in his preface. The author of 'Players of a Century' seems to be familiar with the many but little-known books about the American stage, and his history will bear comparison with either Mr. Clapp's or Mr. Blake's, but from the slighter importance of its subject it is obviously inferior in interest to Mr. Ireland's valuable volumes. Much of Mr. Phelps's matter has already been contributed to the Sunday edition of the Albany *Argus* from week to week during the past year. It now appears revised and enlarged in the present edition, wisely limited to two hundred and fifty copies. The revision is careful. After a leisurely perusal of the volume we note only the misprinting in the earlier pages of the names of the authors of the 'Heir-at-Law' and the 'School of Reform' as Coleman and Moreton—with a superfluous *e* in both cases. The index, an indispensable adjunct in all books of this class, seems, so far as we have been able to test it, well made and sufficient. The printing of the date of each chapter in the running head-line would have been an advantage; to have to look back sometimes seven or eight pages to find out the year is always a loss of time.

From any book of this type it is possible to glean curious incidents and anecdotes, and Mr. Phelps's book is no exception to the rule. We are told, for instance, that in February, 1865, there was acted in Albany "the 'Siege of Troy' (first time in America), dramatized from the 'Iliad' by Geo. Middleton." We learn also that one of the earliest dramatizations of "Uncle Tom's Cabin" was made by Mr. A. B. Street, the poet; and the programme is given (p. 215) of a performance in which, as often before, the "Tartuffe" of Molière was brought to the front as a battering-ram. Between 1839 and 1863 one of the theatres of Albany was occupied as a church; on the occasion of the final performance of the former year the evicted manager announced, with evident satire, "Last night of the ALBANY THEATRE previous to being converted into a CHURCH. This evening, will be presented the startling comedy of the HYPOCRITE'!!!"

Fine Arts.

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF DESIGN.—FIFTY-FIFTH ANNUAL EXHIBITION.—II.

THE unimpressiveness of the exhibition is due, even more than to the dispiriting array which we considered a fortnight ago and which forms the mass of the display, to the circumstance that the pictures by the younger painters are both fewer in number and in the main less striking than usual. Mr. Chase, Mr. Duveneck, Mr. Eakins, and Mr. Shirlaw send nothing, and Mr. Eaton is represented by an old and not too interesting work. Since the Academy exhibition will long remain the principal art event of each year, in popular esteem certainly, such an attitude on the part of the new society as this may fairly be taken to indicate, is, perhaps, to be deprecated; for a long time yet it will be wise to attempt to redeem rather than to rival the Academy; if the impression left by an exhibition which is in certain cardinal regards homogeneous is valuable, as no doubt it is, the advantage of the comparison which the juxtaposition of the art of the Academy and that of the "new men" affords is not to be overlooked. The present exhibition, however, does afford such an opportunity to a considerable extent, and in spite of the absentees there is for this purpose an instructive showing of interesting work. Mr. Thayer's portrait in the west room, Mr. Maynard's, Mr. Vinton's, and Mr. Weir's in the south room; Mr. Weir's again in the east room, Mr. Fuller's "Quadroon," Mr. Flagg's well-to-do French farmer, Mr. Witt's heads and a few others, arrest the wandering attention at once.

The first mentioned is to our mind the "gem," as it is called, of the exhibition. It portrays the head and shoulders of a young girl, with brown hair, grey-blue eyes, and fair complexion, clad in light summer attire, the white waist disclosing the neck and arms under a thin haze of muslin, caught together at the bosom with a bunch of daisies for sole ornament. It is a portrait of simplicity itself, the suggestion of the face and figure being carried out in the details with a consistency which one scarcely knows whether to call a caressing subtlety or an almost objective directness. Its merits as portraiture are not less evident than its pictorial excellence; it is as clear that it is a "likeness" of uncommon fidelity as that it is an agreeable picture; that is to say, it has that distinct individuality which a professed portrait is only likely to attain when the person painted is really characterized. This adds to its attractiveness very appreciably and yet very delicately; one feels so strongly that there is no hint of factitiousness about its charm as to be sure that any trace of predetermined prettiness in it would throw the whole thing out of key, and its pervasive simplicity be speedily sacrificed. Every one who knows how far rarer simplicity is in art than even the sincerity which is, nevertheless, essential to it, will perceive the distinction of Mr. Thayer's success in this portrait, the rendering of which not only betrays a singularly sympathetic feeling for the elusive charm of the subject but exhibits a pictorial refinement, credit for which may be divided between the sitter and the painter; it would have been lacking, no doubt, if the painter had had a model of inferior sweetness and grace, and at the same time we know no other artist whose interpretation of these qualities would seem quite so spontaneous. There is, it should be said, nothing oversweet, or, indeed, sensuous about the picture; the face is far from regular, the forehead high and the cheeks colorless; and the figure is of an almost reedlike slightness. Neither is there anything conventional, as if to suggest an ideal of purity. The impression it makes is almost a moral one; there is a suggestion of something high and quite distinct from sensible beauty—at all events, something curiously elevating—and yet the moment one thinks of this its pictorial charm recurs and protests that both in idea and aspect it is too thoroughly simple to be morally otherwise than meaningless. It is, moreover, one of the few pictures here which both stimulates and satisfies the imagination; one may be sure of finding its suggestiveness a constant quality, and its charm not the less real because it is elusive. If in treatment it seems weak, the flesh over pale, the color a trifle muddy, and the modelling not very sculptural, it still remains a question whether a more vigorous technique might not have proved insidiously hostile to the extreme delicacy of what the painter had here to express.

Mr. Fuller's "Quadroon" hangs opposite, and, though it is possibly the largest canvas that he has exhibited in New York, its interest is more obvious and transient than that of any of his work that we have seen, except his head in the east room and the spectral portrait in the recent

Broadway exhibition. Mr. Fuller paints nothing that is not agreeable in many ways. He is certainly to be called "original" with emphasis; and though occasionally his marked individuality shades into eccentricity, and though in general nothing is less agreeable than eccentricity, even in his most mannered works there is sensible a maturity that is inconsistent with wilfulness, and a dignity incompatible with whim. What may be said, however, is that he appears a little too content with the modulations of the single melody he is so fond of, and a little uncurious of the possibilities of painting that lie outside the circle of his cherished but unchanging palette. And if this seems like an unwarrantable demand that he should be something other than he is, it is to be admitted that his unconcern is not of a lotus-eating kind, and that his resources are in almost every way remarkable except in point of range. Color, for example, is an unfailing characteristic of his canvases; associated in a very just way with other pictorial elements, such as atmosphere and light in landscape, and expression and grace in figure-painting, but still conspicuously insisted on and adding a decorative richness that would in itself go far to atone for the absence of other qualities. It does, indeed, constitute the main attraction of this "Quadroon," which in other respects is conventional enough; formal in composition, indefinite in some details where structural distinctness would have been agreeable, and rather characterless in sentiment; and it constitutes the sole attraction of the head in the east room. Color, however, delightful as it is, and little likely to be overdone under American skies, counts quite as largely when instead of being the end of painting its infinite advantages as material are considered. Mr. Bunce's moonlit Venetian scene in the east room is quite as fine in color as Mr. Fuller's contributions, and in poetic suggestiveness is as much finer as Mr. Fuller's own better work, such as "The Turkey Pasture," is. It is the best thing Mr. Bunce has exhibited here, avoiding conventionality with a success which generally eludes the painter of Venice, and yet managing to preserve and even heighten the artificial romantic charm by a frank treatment in which Venice as Venice seems to have been forgotten and only nature itself kept in mind. In other words, Mr. Bunce has here contrived to paint the lagoons as simply and directly as if he were painting the East River, and we have accordingly his notion of them rather than Ziem's, for instance. That alone would not compel one's interest, of course; Mr. C. C. Coleman has an ultra-realistic Venetian canvas in the north room which illustrates how needful it is that a painter's conception should be something more than merely his own property. Mr. Bunce's picture is admirable not only because it is unconventional, but because it is of very positive attractiveness. It is, moreover, excellently painted, and in securing the advantages of impasto has been cleverly careful to avoid obtruding pigment.

Mr. Porter's large portrait in the south room will also occur to many people in speaking of the decorative use of color. It asserts its claims to such consideration, certainly, with great aggressiveness, but to recognize them with any heartiness would be to depreciate decorative painting, which we cannot help thinking Mr. Porter does quite as much to vulgarize as to adorn. This is, of course, quite aside from the spiritual and mental qualities of his work; in this portrait these are trivial, and the sacrifice of them to mere millinery is complete. But the millinery itself, exquisitely rendered as its textures are, and cleverly disposed as it is in line and mass, has an air of artificiality, of display, of regardlessness, so to speak, that cheapens its decorative quality; its richness has something flash about it, and to a susceptibility of delicate fibre it will seem a little too gross to be impressive. It is a great pity; there is so little color in the exhibition. Besides what we have mentioned, Mr. Reinhart's landscape in the north room is the only canvas of any importance that occurs to us in which color is insisted on with any emphasis. In almost every respect Mr. Maynard's "A Mexican Portrait," which hangs near by, is far more pleasing than Mr. Porter's. But for the singular mistake of the background into which the reddish-yellow hair of the girl blends indistinguishably, and which gives a dull tone to the whole canvas, it would be one of the most effective things here; it is difficult to see how a painter of so much feeling and skill as it displays could have painted the awkward and wooden family interior in the corridor, but we suspect a weakness of the critical faculty in Mr. Maynard which would explain the shortcomings of the one as well as the blemishes of the other. The portraits by Mr. Vinton, Mr. Weir, and Mr. Volk are admirably conceived, and there is excellent painting in all of them, the head of the first, the hands in Mr. Weir's, and the drawing of Mr. Volk's drapery being really striking. The best work of the exhibition is in portraiture. In landscape there is almost nothing noteworthy, though we may mention a hillside with cattle by Thos. Allen, a new name to us, which has the charm of naïveté, and is warm and sunny, and several Corot-like green-and-gray studies by Mr. Murphy—unconsciously Corot-like, however, and having none of the disagreeable look of intentional imitation. The hanging committee apparently neglected to make this distinction, and treated them with some contempt, which was also the fate of a small landscape by Mr. Thayer that may be good or bad for aught any one whose "vision's limited" knows. In genre Mr. Sartain's solid work makes the most enduring impression, perhaps. Except a vigorous and masculine though not over-refined statuette by Mr. Bartlett, of Boston, and a medallion and two busts by Mr. Warner, the sculpture is of no moment. Even these are placed in unnecessary obscurity, which nevertheless does not entirely conceal the noble and exquisite handiwork of Mr. Warner; although one can see but one side of it, it is possible to discern in the marble bust that just and subtle compromise between characterization and ideality which defines his position as easily the first portrait sculptor that we have.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 6, 1880.

The Week.

WE are still without a word of information from the friends of General Grant as to what he will do to secure his inauguration, in case he is not satisfied with the manner in which Congress counts the electoral vote. That he will do *something* very summary and effective we have been frequently assured, but there is a very extraordinary reluctance to describe it. We have already mentioned that one paper declared he would summon 500,000 veteran soldiers to assist him in revising the count, but this has been denied by others, who say that he will not revise the count, but will so frighten the Democrats beforehand that there will be no need to revise it—*i.e.*, that they will count him in somehow. How he will frighten them, however, does not appear. There are no precedents to throw any light on the matter. Mr. Tilden was not satisfied with the count and said he was cheated, but the counters were not frightened by this in the least, and his opponent got and kept the place. It is high time that the whole programme should be laid before the public. The Philadelphia *Bulletin* apparently knows what it is, but will not tell.

The *Herald* of Saturday published an "interview" with Senator Conkling of a rather extraordinary description, for it appears that in this instance the Senator sought the interviewer and not the interviewer the Senator. The correspondent (Mr. Nordhoff) writes that the report of the interview was sent to him by Mr. Conkling with a request that if published it should be given without any alteration or suppression whatever. The substance of it is, 1st, that Mr. Conkling is entirely confident that General Grant will be nominated at Chicago and triumphantly elected in November; 2d, that the opposition to his nomination, having taken the menacing attitude of a "bolt," ought to be crushed out, because any party which allows itself to be swerved by the threats of deserters is doomed to early death and ought to die. Probably the interview will have a contrary effect from that intended by its author. It is not Mr. Conkling's habit to cry out when he is not hurt. When things are going in a way to suit him his cave does not resound; his bearing is that of self-satisfied and awful calm. If he has found it necessary to rush suddenly into print by the back door the henchmen will probably interpret his action as a sign of trouble, of which, in fact, there are other scraps of evidence in Pennsylvania and Illinois as well as in New York. As regards the threatened bolt against General Grant and the proper course to be pursued in consequence of it, Mr. Conkling will not persuade any considerable number of henchmen that the Chicago Convention is called together in order to put up a candidate so obnoxious that he will split the party. The common belief in the political quarter to which his remarks are addressed is, that conventions assemble to nominate the man upon whom the largest number of voters are likely to unite; and that it is the steady pursuit of this policy rather than the opposite which conduces to party longevity.

An interview with Senator Carpenter touching the Grant movement, reported by the New York *Times*, is very entertaining reading. He bases his opinion that the Wisconsin delegation will support Grant not on any information received, but on his "estimate of the intelligence of the people," which is probably a much more convenient source of knowledge. We need hardly say that he also thinks that "in no campaign since the war" has it been "more absolutely essential to the welfare of the country that the Republican party should succeed than it is at present." In fact, Republican success grows "more absolutely essential" every year. The opposition to a third term he considers "a sickly sentimentality, howling in . . . the interest of candidates who have not had a first term." As to the prospect of success in case of Grant's nomination, the Senator relies mainly "on an overruling Providence, even in politics." That he was likely to take a religious view of the matter was clearly indicated at the close of his speech in the Fitz-John Porter case, when he demanded Grant's election in order to secure "discrimination between vice and virtue." There has been a too general belief that Senator Carpenter wanted Grant back in power in order to restore the reign of the old "Senatorial Group," of which he was himself a prominent member, and that he really did not "rely on an overruling Providence in politics" to any great extent, nor greatly care to have "discrimination between vice and virtue" made part of the work of the President. This conversation, therefore, not only shows how greatly a statesman may in these days be misjudged, but what a remarkable moral growth has been going on in the Group during their chief's absence in Europe.

Postmaster-General Key has resigned his seat in the Cabinet in order to accept a United States judgeship, but it is said, as if by authority, that the President will appoint no successor until after the Chicago Convention. The reasons alleged for this delay are Mr. Hayes's desire to avoid the appearance of favoring any one of the rival Republican candidates for President, in case his appointee should be a friend of one of them; and his purpose after the Convention "to give the position to some one identified with the interests of the Republican nominee." The mixture of delicacy and confused perception which these motives betray make it highly probable that they are truthfully ascribed to Mr. Hayes. We say nothing of the propriety of assuming that the new Postmaster-General will probably, as the result of the November elections, be able to hold over the next Administration. But what ought to trouble a civil-service reformer is to point out the connection between a public service like the Post-Office and the "interests" of a politician striving for the Presidency; and to show that scruples about the appearance of "fixing" a department to determine the party nomination, should not be accompanied by scruples about fixing it to determine the election in conformity with the nomination. "Interests" up to the time of the Convention are "claims"—Mr. Blaine's, Mr. Sherman's, or General Grant's; and another name for those "identified" with them is "workers" or "henchmen." We are not aware of any provision for these in the conception of our form of Government, or in those sections of the Constitution which relate to the Executive.

That Mr. Key's so-called assistant, Mr. Tyner, is not promptly promoted to the vacancy will, to those who recall whose "interests" the latter represented three years ago, seem like an indignity to the shade of the late Senator Morton. But perhaps Mr. Tyner is already identified with new and living interests, and only bides his time; and indeed he has but to cast in his lot openly with some one of the Favorite Sons to perfect his title to the succession if fortune smiles on the candidate of his choice. Mr. Hayes has been advised on all hands to put Postmaster James of this city in place of Judge Key, but we suspect that Mr. James is the last man to favor such a transfer. He knows very well that his standing in this community is so strong that it should be morally impossible for a Democratic Administration to remove him. The attempt would doubtless be made, but it would be resisted and might be thwarted. As a Cabinet officer no mercy would be shown him, and his services here or in Washington would count for nothing. He is enough of a Republican politician to be out of place in a Democratic ministry; not enough of one where he is now to warrant even an overwhelmingly victorious Democracy in dismissing him.

The Republicans of Ohio, South Carolina, California, and Arkansas, and the Democrats of Pennsylvania and Connecticut, have

held conventions during the week to select delegates to Chicago and Cincinnati. The Ohio Republicans instructed their delegates-at-large, and requested the district delegates, to support Sherman. The California Convention pledged both district and State delegates to Blaine, as it was, of course, conceded beforehand that it would. Arkansas and South Carolina both gave formal instructions for Grant, though there is a discouraged uncertainty felt in Grant circles, we believe, as to the strict obedience of the delegation from the latter State. In Pennsylvania the Democratic Convention was "captured" by the Randall faction through the efforts of the ever-faithful McMullin, but the majority of the Cincinnati delegation is said to be anti-Tilden; the reverse is reported of Connecticut, where the Convention was by no means harmonious, and in neither State were there instructions given.

The roving political correspondent of the New York *Times*, whose partisanship must give the highest satisfaction to his employers, has undertaken to show that Mr. Sherman's "substantial support" at the Ohio Convention was really a substantial defeat. In the course of his review of the proceedings he remarks:

"A delegate from Hamilton County, who has had the good sense to carefully conceal his identity, offered a resolution reaffirming the anti-third-term resolution passed by the Ohio Convention of 1875. It was laughed out of sight, only three members [of the Platform Committee] giving it their support."

The resolution in question declared that the observance of Washington's example "will be in the future, as it has been in the past, regarded as a fundamental rule in the unwritten law of the Republic." That the mere mention of this only five years after its solemn adoption should excite the risibles, proves afresh that the sense of humor among politicians is developed out of all proportion to the historical sense. The reporter adds his tribute to the transparent absurdity of the incident by expressing his gratification that the idiot whose memory was good for half a decade had the decency "to carefully conceal his identity."

The South Carolina Republicans had almost as lively an experience as that of their Georgia brethren the previous week. The *Times*—which, by the way, the convention publicly thanked for its "fearless exposition" of the Whittaker case—reports the same "infamous trickery" on the part of the anti-Grant forces which the Georgia third-term opponents exhibited, and which the readers of the *Times* know characterizes the opposition to Grant everywhere. As usual, too, it was the Sherman men rather than Blaine's supporters who exhibited the most brazen effrontery, Collector Brayton's "paid satellites" being especially active. Owing to their machinations—although, as the resolutions stated, "from the mountains to the sea-board the Republican pulse beats for Grant and for Grant only"—it turns out that there are four Blaine and four Sherman men in the delegation chosen and but six for Grant; hence the anxiety about the majority voting against its will and in obedience to its instructions. Judging from its abandoned character we should be inclined to doubt it. As an "echo" of the Georgia convention, we observe that a "movement" has been originated, among the opponents of the resolution adopted giving three-fourths of the Federal patronage to colored men, to prevent such a consummation. In South Carolina, too, since the convention there have been signs of discord which nothing but a third term seems likely to check. Apparently in these two States the "color-line" is in danger from the unexpected discovery of white Republicans that they can no longer lead the bulk of the party.

In Maine, although the opinion of the Supreme Court gave the Republican Legislature and Governor a legal footing, some county officers still hold office under certificates issued by the late Governor. An elected county commissioner in Cumberland County, having taken the oath of office before a *dedimus* justice, has brought suit against the Democratic incumbent under the Governor's certificate before a single judge of the Supreme Court and obtained a decision in his favor, but the case goes by appeal before the full bench, and so prolongs still further one aspect of the contest. But the final decision, in view of the expressed opinion of the judges, is no matter of doubt. If their former decision on the statement of facts presented to them by Senators and Representatives was in favor of the elected candidates, despite defects in the returns, it will not be different on the judges' principle of taking notice of notorious facts, whether brought before them judicially or not, after the report of the Hale Investigating Committee so-called. Garcelon retained funds of the State and continued to make payments on account of the late disturbances for three months after the end of his term of office. The statute provision of 1864, by which the Governor was to issue certificates to such persons as might "appear to be elected," was pronounced doubtfully constitutional by the Supreme Court, but still remains a law, barring the commentary of the court upon it, having been referred by the last to the next Legislature.

The Senate has been the more active house of Congress during the week. On Wednesday Mr. Davis, of West Virginia, who for some two years has been alleging suspicious discrepancies in the Treasury accounts and statements, and who was finally allowed the chairmanship of an investigating committee, presented his (majority) report; but it was not read, and he had no definite word to give of his discoveries except that they fully confirmed his original assertions. He had found differences of ninety to a hundred millions of dollars, but he could not say that a hundred cents had wrongfully disappeared from the Treasury. All that transpires is what was known before, that since the Treasury report of 1870–71 there has been a change for the better in the Department's bookkeeping. On Thursday and Friday Mr. Allison's amendment to the bill authorizing a retired list for non-commissioned officers, by which the President is required to appoint two colored cadets annually to West Point, was debated with some animation, General Burnside favoring it even to the point of wishing the Academy abolished if it could not stand the color-test. Mr. Hoar objected to embodying race discriminations in legislation, and Mr. Dawes proposed five instead of two appointments, leaving the President free to make them of any color he pleased. Mr. Conkling seemed inclined to stop making any more white appointments until the black man's past exclusion from West Point had been amply compensated. The Kellogg debate was renewed, and the Indian Bill passed.

The President has vetoed the Deficiency Bill in a short message, in which he bases his objection on the fact that the bill contains a rider to the appropriation which "materially changes, and by implication repeals, important parts of the laws for the regulation of United States elections," and therefore "gives marked and deliberate sanction" to the practice of tacking upon appropriation bills general and permanent legislation, thus inviting "attacks upon the independence and constitutional powers of the Executive by providing an easy and effective way of constraining executive discretion." He acknowledges that the practice has been resorted to by all political parties when clothed with power, but says "it did not prevail until forty years after the adoption of the Constitution, and, it is confidently believed, is condemned by the enlightened judgment of the country," and shows that it is forbidden in State legislation by more than half the State constitutions. This is safe and strong ground. The Republicans in Congress are said to be displeased with the confession that the Republicans have ever done such things. The sensible course for the Democrats now to pursue would seem to be the passage of the Deficiency Bill pure and simple, and the embodiment of the general and permanent legislation in a separate bill. But, if we are to judge by the past, the thing they are most likely to do is to raise the cry that the President is assailing the independence of the legislature, and proceed to disgust and alarm the country by fighting him on this issue. There is hardly anything in this particular field of unwisdom of which they do not seem capable.

There is nothing new in the Whittaker trial. Five experts have been at work trying to discover the authorship of the note of warn-

ing received by Whittaker. Two have declined to frame any definite conclusion, while three are said to have formed positive opinions; but nothing is known as to the person to whom they point, nor is it known whether they agree in pointing to the same person. We have commented elsewhere on some of the features in the proceeding, and have nothing to add except that the indiscretion of the Government in appointing wild counsel to attack their own officers, seems to have been equalled by General Schofield's issuing a general order to the cadets of a congratulatory and sympathetic character, which, if it means anything, means that he thinks that none of them had anything to do with the outrage, which is the very point under judicial investigation. There is greater quiet about the affair among the newspapers, as it seems less promising for political purposes than it did at the outset.

The Wall Street markets were all unsettled during the week by the action of the Albany Legislature, which passed a bill imposing taxes on foreign capital used within the State which, it was estimated, would be equal, with the tax already paid, to about three per cent. per annum. The bill, which was aimed at nearly thirty millions of foreign capital employed in this city, has been vetoed by the Governor. When it was thought, however, that it would be enacted there was great alarm among the foreign bankers, who had made many millions of demand loans—the Bank of Montreal agency alone having had outstanding nine millions of dollars. This money, or a good part of it, was immediately called in by the foreign bankers, and used, to a large extent, in buying bills on London. The result was that the rates for loans here and for bills on London advanced, and a very unsettled feeling prevailed. The speculators at the Stock Exchange made the most of this, and drove down prices in the stock market. Towards the end of the week there were assurances from Albany that the bill would not become a law, when the rates for foreign exchange fell back, as did also the rates for money, but the stock market had become so thoroughly demoralized that the recovery there was fitful and feverish. The general business of the country continues excellent. Immigration was never so large, and railroad earnings continue to be enormous. The New York banks continue to gain currency, and their surplus reserve now amounts to about $3,500,000.

The composition of the English Cabinet has been definitively announced during the week. Gladstone has, as from the first seemed all but inevitable, taken the Premiership. Even if he had not, his reputation as a legislator and financier, the part he has played in the late canvass, and the fact that he has undoubtedly more than any other man the whole body of Liberal voters at his back, would have made his acceptance of the first place imperative. He has settled his differences with the Radicals by giving both Sir Charles Dilke and Mr. Chamberlain seats in the Cabinet, and he will be his own Chancellor of the Exchequer. Lord Hartington takes the Foreign Office, and Sir William Harcourt the Home Office. Lord Selborne, better known perhaps as Sir Roundell Palmer, is the English Chancellor. Mr. W. E. Forster's acceptance of the Secretaryship for Ireland seems to indicate that Irish questions are to occupy a considerable share of the attention of the new Government. Earl Cowper goes to Ireland as Lord Lieutenant, with a very large income and a very mild and conciliatory disposition. The success of the Government in satisfying the Chamberlain Radicals is a serious blow to the Home-Rulers, whose only hope of making any impression on the House lay in occasional co-operation with malcontent Liberals. Probably nobody has been more surprised by all these changes than the Queen, who had apparently surrendered herself in an unusual degree to the Beaconsfield influence, and had probably accepted as absolutely trustworthy his assurances that Gladstone's career was closed.

The Marquis of Ripon, who was one of the negotiators of the Washington Treaty in this country, but retired from public life soon after in consequence of his conversion to Catholicism, goes to India as Governor-General in place of Lord Lytton, who comes home at once. He takes with him Gordon Pasha as private secretary, which is a somewhat significant circumstance. No man living has had a wider experience of Eastern life and politics than Gordon, and he has recently published a letter in which he passes wholesale condemnation on the Treaty of Berlin, which he says has served the purpose of Russia much more effectively than the Treaty of San Stefano would have done, by keeping the Slavic principalities in a disturbed and uncertain condition, and deprived of access to the sea. Afghan affairs since the fall of Ghazni appear to be slowly approaching a solution of some kind. Mohammed Jan is said to have surrendered and brought Musa Khan in with him, but Abderrahman Khan is still at large and has to be reckoned with. It is worth noting that in the recent expeditions of the troops for the chastisement of turbulent tribes villages have not been burnt, or any permanent damage inflicted beyond blowing up the towers of the chiefs.

One of the most startling revelations made by the election is the total lack of influence on the voters of the country at large of the London daily press. Gladstone had every daily paper of note in London except the *Daily News* dead against him. Indeed, most of them treated him as a half-crazy person, and as in some sense a national disgrace, at the very time when he was rousing a confidence and even an enthusiasm among the mass of the voters such as have perhaps been bestowed on no man in England since the younger Pitt. The effect on the London clubs of the discovery that there was in politics another and more powerful England, which they knew nothing about, is said to have been almost comic in its surprise. The chief opponent of Gladstone in the London press was the *Pall Mall Gazette*, and it carried its opposition to such a pitch of fury that his triumph made some kind of smash-up in the organization of the paper inevitable. Accordingly, the public was probably not surprised to hear soon after the election that it had changed hands, and that the new proprietor had called on the editor to change his policy, and that the latter had refused to do so, and had retired bag and baggage, carrying his contributors with him.

The ability of the *Gazette* under its late editor, Mr. James Greenwood, was very great in every department. The editorial writing has never been surpassed anywhere either in finish or fulness of knowledge or dialectical skill, and, considering the violence of its partisanship, the absolute colorlessness which it maintained in its news columns was very remarkable, and made it very valuable. But hatred of Gladstone and Russia, from 1876 on, took with the editor the character of a veritable mania, destroyed his sense of proportion, and seriously damaged his judgment as an observer both of home and foreign politics. At one time he seemed not unlikely to add to this admiration of the Turks, which would, had it lasted, have completed his mental ruin, but he threw this off after the war. He announces his intention of starting a new paper as a sort of continuation of the *Gazette*, but it must needs differ from it greatly, with Gladstone Prime Minister and England undeniably supporting him. The old view that Gladstone is a verbose lunatic engaged in encouraging those incarnate devils, the Russians, to annex Southeastern Europe and reduce England to the position of a third-rate power, cannot be preached any longer and made to pay expenses.

The Italian Ministry have dissolved Parliament and again gone to the country in quest of a working majority, which they have not had, and in the absence of which Parliamentary proceedings have been a mere faction fight. They have published an address in which, after castigating the opposition, they promise an abolition of the grist-tax, which is the most obnoxious of all the burdens imposed since the establishment of the kingdom, and an extension of the suffrage. This last seems absolutely necessary to give any vigor or activity to Italian politics, but it must be confessed that it would be a leap in the dark. The present voters care but little for their political responsibilities, but who knows how the new ones would regard them?

SOME OBSERVATIONS ON THE WHITTAKER CASE.

WE have not discussed the Whittaker case on its merits, and do not propose to do so now, for the simple reason that it is still *sub judice*. The enquiry going on at West Point has for its object to find out whether Whittaker has been guilty of a piece of imposture, or certain of the cadets guilty of an act of great barbarity. As long as it lasts attempts to influence opinion about it, by attacks either on the court, on Whittaker, or on the other cadets, in the columns of newspapers, are indecent and unfair. That some of our daily contemporaries have not taken this view of the matter everybody knows. They have sent reporters to the scene to collect evidence on their own account and in their own way, and these reporters, we happen to know, have been guilty of suppression, of evasion, of false suggestion, and, in some cases, of deliberate manufacture of "damning facts." This would be bad enough, if it had not been followed up by editorial comments containing furious attacks on the government of the Academy, on the Court of Enquiry, and on the whole body of white cadets, ostensibly in the interest of "human rights," but really, as we believe, for the purpose of giving to the Whittaker case enough of the appearance of an old-fashioned "outrage" to make it useful in the coming Presidential canvass. In fact, no incident has of late called forth grosser displays of "journalism." We have ourselves in common with other papers fallen into one error with regard to the proceedings now pending at West Point which we ought to correct. We found fault with the court for apparently starting out with Whittaker's guilt as a working hypothesis, and treating him from the first moment as the person on trial. It seems, however, that the very nature of the procedure made this necessary and regular. The post-surgeon who made the report on his case, after he was found tied in his room, expressed the belief, owing doubtless to the slight nature of his injuries, that he was himself the author of them. Whittaker thereupon very properly demanded a court of enquiry as an officer suffering from a dishonoring imputation. A military court of enquiry, convened under such circumstances, is not a court-martial or a court of law, but resembles a grand jury or a court of honor. Its chief business is to ascertain whether the imputations are well founded, and the person asking for the court is, of course, the first person to be examined, and *his* chief business is to clear himself. It is only, therefore, after he has been pronounced blameless that the question, who committed the wrong if he did not, comes up for investigation.

The conduct of the Government in the matter has been very puzzling. The officers of the Academy are officers in the military service of the Government. They are, from General Schofield down, under the absolute control of the War Department. The cadets are to all intents and purposes a regiment of the regular Army. The Court of Enquiry is in all its doings under the orders of the President. Its members are his agents, and are doing his work. He can supervise or modify or rebuke their mode of proceeding if he thinks proper. These things being true, the appearance on the scene of a civil lawyer, under Government retainer, to watch the case, and assist in its conduct, may be perfectly proper and comprehensible. But the selection for this duty of a very notoriously partisan, political, and indiscreet lawyer, in whose composition the judicial faculty has not the smallest place, and his use of his position to taunt or inveigh against the school, its discipline and morality, and cast imputations on the honor of its governing officers, are things hard to understand, and have a very unpleasant look of a desire, even on the part of the Administration, to make political capital out of the affair.

That it should be possible to make political capital out of it is due to the great and creditable sensitiveness of the Northern public regarding the treatment of negroes by whites everywhere, and especially in places in which the authority of the United States is supreme. It is this sensitiveness, however, which excites and rewards the shameful journalistic excesses which we have mentioned above. It acts as a sort of standing incentive to a certain class of politicians, and to their organs in the press, both to invent outrages on negroes where none is committed, and to exaggerate the numbers and atrocity of those which are committed. This West Point affair promised in the beginning to answer their purpose very well as furnishing a specimen of the kind of thing the Democrats would tolerate or wink at if in power, but the unfortunate revelation that the most prominent of Whittaker's persecutors or despisers in the school have been the sons of Northern Republicans and the nominees of Republican Congressmen, has naturally greatly diminished its importance for political purposes. The fact that Whittaker, however, whether the innocent victim of the recent outrage or not, has been systematically excluded from the society and good-fellowship of his white comrades remains, and it is a very unpleasant fact. No person of ordinary humanity likes to think of a well-behaved lad, who is working hard for his education, passing four years in this sort of crushing isolation, especially in a Government institution. But here again many people in their anger have talked as if West Point were a charitable institution, and as if the mere fact that its students do not pay any part of their own expenses deprives them of the right to choose their own associates and acquaintances which they possess in other colleges. This is, however, a very erroneous view. The West Point student enters the Academy under a contract by which he agrees to give the Government the benefit of the military skill and knowledge which it communicates in return for four years' board and instruction. The advantages are about equal on both sides. He owes it no sacrifice of tastes or habits but what military discipline calls for, and the cadets naturally resent the popular view which the Whittaker case has called out. Moreover, in comparing the position of colored youths at West Point with their position in other colleges, it is often forgotten that the association of the students at the former is much closer than at the latter. The college at West Point takes possession of the cadet's entire day as a soldier doing duty with his regiment. It fixes his dinner-hour, his bed-hour, the clothes he is to wear, and the area he may walk over, and puts him in relation of authority and obedience or close comradeship in the ranks and in the schoolroom from morning till night. The consequence is that a disagreeable comrade is far more disagreeable at West Point than he would be at any other college, and any sign of repugnance to him far more noticeable. There are, say, at Harvard 1,200 white students and 1 colored one. Of these 1,200 1,150 might rigidly abstain from holding any intercourse with the colored student, and the fact would never be noticed by him or anybody else. The large liberty of the place would hide it. So that when we ask a West Point cadet to give up his prejudice about the color or any other peculiarity of another cadet, we ask for more than is asked from the students of Yale, or Harvard, or Columbia.

As to this prejudice against color, we said recently that the cadets brought it from their homes. This was so notorious a fact in our eyes that we hardly expected it to be questioned. It has, however, been questioned by several correspondents, but the facts with which they support their contradiction are just numerous enough to prove the rule. They have seen colored ministers well received at a religious convention, and have known of two or three colored boys being well treated at a university, or have met a highly respectable colored man at a friend's dinner-table. We do not deny these phenomena, and are glad to believe they are on the increase. But we will mention a few things which they have *not* seen at the North, and which tell the whole story. They have never seen, outside of anti-slavery circles, a social gathering composed of persons of any but the lowest class made up of white and colored people indiscriminately. They have never seen a white and a colored family of any but the poorest and most ignorant class living on terms of familiar intercourse—fathers, mothers, and young people of both sexes. They have never seen white worshippers sitting regularly under a colored preacher, or a congregation made up of white and colored people in equal or nearly equal numbers sitting under any preacher. They have rarely seen a white woman marry a black man, or a white man a black woman, in any but the poorest and most ignorant class, with the approbation of her or his

friends. They have never seen colored people admitted to a hotel mainly dependent on white patronage, nor have they often known a man to let a house in a good neighborhood to a colored man, however respectable.

Now, calling attention to these highly significant facts is not, as some good people like to believe, the same thing as approving of them. The inference we draw from them is, that in judging the conduct of the cadets towards their colored comrades we are asking from the lads a display of virtue which we do not expect from their fathers and mothers, and we lash ourselves in our honest indignation into the belief that we can cure this evil at West Point, according to the fashion of the times, simply by more and sterner legislation. Our own notion is, and we submit it with much diffidence, that what West Point needs most of all is assimilation to the other colleges of the country in the mode of feeding its classes. The present system of educating at Government expense such lads as Congressmen send up is valuable to nobody but Congressmen. In saying this we are far from seeking to cast any reflection on the education the school supplies. Judged by its results in the production, from the material sent it in this strange manner, of the men who for the past eighty years have left it to become for long or short periods the officers of the regular Army, we know of no educational institution in the country which can for a moment be compared to it. We know of none which has made on the character of its graduates such a marked impression that they may be said to constitute a class in the community of more than ordinary honor and devotion to their duty, and contentment with the daily work of their hands. But we have little doubt that if, as in other colleges, the students selected themselves—that is, came because they were eager for education and were willing to pay something for it—instead of being picked out by Congressmen, the tone of the Academy on a great variety of subjects would be much more nearly in harmony with public opinion out-of-doors than it now is. We may add that those who at present send colored boys there ought to be careful to select such as will physically and intellectually hold their own, and do their race credit in the eyes of those with whom they have to live, and whose respect will for four years be so necessary to their comfort. Whittaker's readiness to be pummelled without resistance gives him in the eyes of many good people a fresh claim on their sympathy, but boys who are to raise their race in the estimation of Anglo-Saxons must be made of sterner stuff. There never will come a time when a patient, long-suffering soldier will not seem a contemptible object to those who are learning war as a trade; and the colored cadets who will do most good at West Point, and in the long run please the Northern public best, will be those who will not merely earn approbation by their diligence and sweetness of disposition, but be able and willing to thrash any brother undergraduates who act unpleasantly towards them.

THE PENNSYLVANIA PARDONS.

THE case of Kemble and his associates, recently convicted of bribery, or attempted bribery, of the Pennsylvania Legislature, and now released from punishment by the Board of Pardons and the Governor, is closely related to the communistic outbreak of 1877, which had its origin in a reduction of wages believed to be necessary by the employers of labor. Resistance to this reduction was made in several States simultaneously, and everywhere it took the form of seizure of the employers' property by the employees. In some cases the latter dismissed the agents of the former and worked the property on their own account. In others—and this was the case in Pennsylvania, and notably so in Pittsburgh—they possessed themselves of the property, brought all business to a standstill, and eventually, finding themselves in danger of being dislodged by superior force, set fire to everything combustible and burned up some millions of dollars' worth of goods and machinery. A number of lives were lost in the rioting, and the shock was felt from one end of the country to the other. A similar state of things has been chronic in the anthracite region of Pennsylvania for many years, and notwithstanding the execution of a number of murderers in that district the Molly Maguires are by no means extinct.

The losses at Pittsburgh fell primarily upon the Pennsylvania Railroad Company. In order to recoup themselves they had recourse in the first instance to lawsuits against the municipality where the riots took place. This process being too slow and uncertain, they appealed to the Legislature with a bill appropriating a lump sum from the State treasury, and one, it is now alleged, greatly in excess of the losses actually suffered. The bill was, of course, stoutly opposed by the taxpayers of the State. Kemble, formerly treasurer of the State, a bank president and an influential member of the ruling faction in State politics, then appeared upon the scene with a number of minor criminals, and was shortly detected in an attempt to bribe the Legislature to pass the appropriation. Great excitement followed the discovery. The Grand Jury indicted the culprits. The State went to great expense in the employment of counsel to prosecute them. They were finally brought to trial; some of them confessed their guilt; others denied and were convicted; some still remain to be tried. Shortly before the date for pronouncing sentence upon them they forfeited their bail and ran away. Kemble came first to New York on important business, he said, and afterwards retired to a fashionable watering-place to recruit his health. The press argued that it would be impossible for him to remain away—his business in Pennsylvania was too extensive and important—but that he had probably gone for a respite to make arrangements for a pardon. It was hinted that he was the possessor of so many of the secrets of the ruling dynasty in State politics that it would be unsafe even to send him to prison. All this may or may not be true. What is certain is that he and his fellow-culprits came back, were sentenced to a term of confinement in the penitentiary, and were pardoned after a few days' imprisonment. The Board of Pardons and the State Executive made some little apology to the public by quibbling over the phraseology of the sentence of the Court, and assumed the virtue of not remitting the small pecuniary fine and the legal disabilities which formed part of the punishment. The fine was of no importance to any of the culprits, and will probably be paid out of the funds in hand as part of the expenses of bribing the Legislature. As for the disabilities, they will probably be removed in due time if the people of Pennsylvania submit with good grace to what has already been done.

The *Tribune's* Philadelphia correspondent says that public sentiment in that city is not much stirred by these events, and that a good deal of sympathy exists for the convicts on account of the severity of the judge's sentence. No public reception has been tendered to Kemble on his escape from the sheriff's clutches, and we conclude, therefore, that differences of opinion are tolerated regarding the affair. The people of Pennsylvania are not so unlike those of other civilized states that they can fail to appreciate the moral bearings and consequences of the transaction. After some little reflection, they must perceive that there is no lower depth for a community to reach than a general understanding that the laws exist for only one class of offenders—that the benighted delver in a coal-mine must suffer their extreme penalty for his misdeeds, while the rich and influential member of a political "ring" only needs to pay a paltry fine for crimes calculated to poison the whole body politic by corrupting the very source of law. The Pennsylvania Board of Pardons and the Governor of the State won general commendation not long since by the resistance they offered to appeals for pardon for the convicted Molly Maguires. In these cases they exhibited not only the proper firmness as guardians of public order, but a high degree of patience and judicial fairness in their treatment of the several applications presented to them. But when one of their own associates comes before them in felon's garb "the strong lance of justice hurtless breaks," and they stand exposed, no less than Kemble himself, as the counterfeits and base coin of magistracy.

If public opinion in Pennsylvania is disposed to make light of this matter, or is even divided upon it in a very considerable

degree, there is a class in that State, as elsewhere, on whom the lesson of it will not be lost. The men who burned the Pittsburgh shops and depots, the anthracite miners, the iron-workers, the whole body of wage laborers, have been careful observers of the drama from the beginning, waiting to see whether it would end in a solemn vindication of the law or turn out to be a farce. They will infallibly draw the conclusion that there are two sorts of justice in store in Harrisburg, one for them and their kind and another for Kemble and his kind; one for the poor and another for the rich; one for the laborer and another for the capitalist. In times of future trouble, when, perhaps, the torch of the Communist is again seen in Pittsburgh or some other trembling city, what kind of an argument is to be addressed to the mob by Governor Hoyt, Attorney-General Palmer, Counsellor Quay, and their associates? Whatever protection we have, or can have, in this country, is the protection of law, and law is but the expression of public opinion. The mob itself is a part of the public, and it frequently happens that the restraining influence of the law, the conviction that it is right and that it must prevail because it is right, is more effective in quelling turbulence than any display of force that can be made. But to conserve this invaluable influence and restraining power it is necessary that all should see that the law is impartial and that justice holds her scales even. It is of course not the Molly Maguire who must needs quake when a rich convict goes scot free, but "society," which is put in peril; the men who have saved something; the class which stands for civilization and for whatever is of enduring value in the estimation of the world.

Some lame attempts at excuse for the pardons have been made on the ground that the statute against bribery in Pennsylvania is of recent origin, that these are the first convictions, that imprisonment at labor is not warranted by the law, that the bill which Kemble & Co. were trying to carry by bribery through the Legislature was not a very bad bill. One can fancy Mr. Quay and the rest who hold the pardoning power addressing another Pittsburgh mob with this sort of argument. Bribery of the law-making power is one of the things about which civilized mankind long ago came to an agreement, yet there may be a difference of opinion as to the grade it occupies in the list of crimes—whether it is more or less nefarious than larceny, burglary, or arson. There can, however, be no difference of opinion concerning a community or country where bribery of the legislature is treated as an offence punishable only by fine. This is the unhappy plight in which Pennsylvania has been placed by her public authorities. Her courts are yet unsullied, which is, of course, an immense protection, but the same power which makes the Board of Pardons and the Executive makes the courts; and if it finds public opinion docile or torpid under this experiment, it will soon furnish courts of the Kemble pattern also—unless, indeed, the other side of society try their hand at making courts, and by virtue of numbers set up tribunals for the exclusive benefit of the poor man. If it should come to be understood or even suspected that the laws and their execution are for and against classes, cliques, and social divisions, the heterogeneous and unorganized masses will easily find Kearneys to pave the way to constitutions, legislatures, and courts constructed as strictly in their own interest as the Board of Pardons is now in the interest of "respectable" offenders.

THE SPECIFIC ARGUMENT AGAINST A THIRD TERM.

THERE are a good many reasons for fearing that the deep and widespread hostility to a third term, of which there are just now so many manifestations throughout the country, is turning, or is likely to turn, indirectly to the advantage of Mr. Blaine. He is, next to General Grant, undoubtedly the candidate most acceptable to the delegates who have been selected for the Chicago Convention by the machinery of the Republican party. There is much likelihood that, if the managers of the Grant "boom" should find it difficult or impossible to secure the nomination of their candidate, they will "transfer his strength," as the slang phrase is, to Blaine, as the only other candidate who comes near their ideal President. He is already stronger in the Convention than any other candidate but Grant, and he will not need a great deal of "strength," in addition to what he has already, to make him the nominee. Indeed, we do not think it an exaggeration to say that to a large portion of the Republican voters who are just now opposed to Grant solely or mainly through their dislike of a third term, most of the arguments against a third term tell in Blaine's favor. In looking about for an alternative he presents himself to them as the most available of the persons to whom these arguments do not apply. His election would not be that "violation of the unwritten law of the Republic," or that "breach of the tradition of the Fathers," or "the dangerous precedent," of which they hear so much from those who are assailing Grant's candidacy. This is not by any means an unnatural view of the situation for those who hear little or nothing of any objections to General Grant except that he has already had two terms.

We confess, for our own part, that while fully appreciating the force of the argument that Grant ought not to have a third term because it is unwise to give any man a third term, we think it is very feeble indeed compared to the argument that the dangers of a third term are shown by its being claimed for this particular person. Frankly, we do not think that a tendency to give third terms to enlightened civilians who have proved their skill, efficiency, integrity, and judgment in their two previous terms would, of itself, be a very alarming phenomenon. A popular desire to retain for an indefinite period the services in high office of a statesman who had given abundant evidence of his capacity and purity and zeal for the public good, would not be a bad sign in a democracy like ours. In fact, there is perhaps nothing of which our politics just now stands in greater need. So that we do not, on the whole, rate very highly, *per se*, the abstract dictum that nobody should be president of a republic for more than eight years. It is only when we come to clothe it in circumstance and examine its application to a political system like ours, that the objections to it become apparent, and, little as we like to criticise the anti-third-term movement, we cannot help saying that its promoters take too little pains to clothe it with circumstance. In other words, there can be no better illustration of the dangers of allowing the third-term doctrine to establish itself in our politics, than the fact that its benefits should be claimed with great boldness and persistence for a man whose two previous terms have been what General Grant's were. The most effective way by far of meeting the third-termers is by showing what their scheme means in practice. The very first time we hear of the proposed change in the settled usage of the Government, we are asked to make it, not for a master of the political art, who had already satisfied the country of his great capacity, but for a soldier who, suddenly placed in the Presidency in a burst of popular gratitude for great military services, amazed and pained the country during two terms by the scandals and disorders of his Administration, by the low character of the men by whom he surrounded himself, by his cultivated indifference to public opinion, and by the wreck which he brought on his own party. *With* this illustration the opposition to the third term may be made a great instrument of political purification, and may be used to drive all corrupt and incompetent candidates out of the arena. Without this illustration it touches no candidate, however worthless or objectionable, who has not already twice filled the Presidency; and any corrupt organization can not only cheerfully take part in it, but use it to further their own ends.

There is every reason, short of actual experience, for believing that Blaine's administration would in some particulars be as bad as Grant's, and in many others worse. He has given no more proof than Grant of the possession of administrative capacity. He has shown even less interest in or knowledge of any of the great political questions by which the country is now agitated. In fact, his mental grasp of any such questions seems to be far feebler than Grant's. There is in Grant's mind a certain rude and ponderous strength, which only needed a different sort of training to make it an instrument of considerable power for political purposes; while

Blaine's attention seems to be as volatile and superficial as a boy's. As far as regards purity of administration, it is to be said for Grant that he represents corruption *per alium*, which is bad enough, while Blaine would in all probability represent corruption *per se*, which is far worse. "The Grant crowd," as his following is called, were a very low, dishonest, and unsavory set, but they were clumsy, incautious, and coarse in their methods, and were easily found out. Blaine's surrounding would all but certainly be men of the same stamp, as regards dishonesty and as regards the character of their designs on the public treasury and service, but they would be very astute, ingenious, and wary, and, while doing even more mischief, would not contract open alliances with "whisky-thieves" or enter into conspiracies with burglars to break open safes in order to ruin a political enemy. We may be sure, too, that the opposition of Blaine's adherents to any of the schemes of reform, whether in administration or legislation, on which thoughtful men all over the country have set their hearts, and which every sinister interest dreads, would be as determined as, and more efficacious than, that which the "Old Set" and the "Senatorial Group" were able to offer under Grant. In fact, the Machine—using that term to designate all the instrumentalities by which political managers remove the government of the country from the influence of the private morality, the plain common-sense, and the nobler national aspirations and moods of the people—would, in all probability, be more potent under Blaine than under Grant.

For all these reasons we cannot help feeling that, although appeals to the conservative feeling of the people and to the teachings of history and to the German dread of military hero-worship are doubtless very effective, and may be sufficient to prevent Grant's nomination, an argument made up in this way does not cover ground enough. It will do nothing to satisfy those who see in every Presidential election a chance, however small, to raise politics to a higher level, and to improve the arts by which the great places in the public service are sought and won, and will not suffice to prevent a nomination which to most of them would not be one whit better than Grant's. It will have a far wider sweep, and be really much stronger, if it boldly declare that one of the greatest objections to a third term is to be found in the political career of the person for whom it is now demanded, and if it thoroughly exposes the character of the two terms of which repetition is now sought. That the man who filled these two terms, and closed them under a cloud of public reprobation, should be able so far to recover from the effects of this reprobation by three years of foreign travel as to be again presented by his followers for the same office; that he should be brought forward, too, as a savior from some great national danger without feeling the necessity of stating what the danger is, is surely enough to make it plain that, whatever may be said for third terms in the abstract, they are unsuited to our politics.

In making it plain in this way, too, we reach all other candidates who are open to every objection except the third-term objection. Indeed, we doubt much whether the Blaine nomination would not be much more obnoxious as a precedent than Grant's, for it would establish the doctrine that a damaged private reputation ought not to be a disqualification for any office, which is as new as the third-term doctrine, and has as little sanction from the practice of the Fathers or the example of Washington. The American Stump, much as it has been derided, has traditions, and very respectable ones, too, and one of them is that it is, in a Presidential canvass, at least, a place for the discussion of principles and policy, and not for the investigation of private character. A party which deliberately devotes it for five months to the work of examining charges of personal knavery and corruption will be guilty of introducing a shameful novelty.

MANNERS IN AMERICA.

MR. JOHN FISKE, in his lectures on American history the other day, reprehended in rather severe terms the very common practice of calling such and such traits Celtic, or Norman, or Teutonic; and, though he good-naturedly admitted that it was a fascinating speculation to trace idiosyncrasies of temperament and character to their supposed origin and give them labels, he observed that it was in the teeth of facts and an instance of "loose thinking." National differences of this kind nowadays, he thought, amounted after all to no more than the difference between a man and his brother. Confident inaccuracy has always been the bane of the literature of science, and it is not surprising that the stricter sort of scientists should have manifested their sensitiveness concerning it by fixing upon "loose thinking" as a convenient shibboleth, with the fortunate result that there is probably less and less necessity for a loose use of the term. At the same time it cannot be denied that the development theory itself, of which Mr. Fiske is so distinguished an exponent, has been a wonderful stimulant of "fascinating speculation" of all sorts, and that its influence is felt in fields quite outside of those treated in cosmic philosophies. Indeed, it may be said to have so far got into literature as to have affected the thought of those who hold with the late M. Doudan that "the man who has no vague ideas is a fool." Ideas have an irresistible disposition to concern themselves with even these matters of ethnology and sociology jealously pre-empted by scientists, and a certain vagueness is perhaps the payment exacted for the illumination they occasionally create. At all events, we are confident that a lecture on American characteristics would form an acceptable supplement to Mr. Fiske's course on "America's Place in History," and that, however indeterminate he might find these, he would even be successful in tracing the parentage of many of them to a Teutonic ancestry, and in finding the causes of their variations in certain cross strains and in the unfailing resource of the scientist—circumstances.

One of these traits, at least, is so general as to be national, and so peculiar as to be unique. The attitude of Americans towards manners is essentially Anglo-Saxon, or perhaps, as Mr. Freeman would say, English, but it has an accentuation, not to say an exaggeration, which the absence of any substitute for traditionary feudalism has permitted and fostered. Manners with us are more or less consciously regarded as a subtle compromise of character. The time has long passed when it was possible to identify the number of Americans at a foreign hotel by "counting the feet on the veranda-rail and dividing them by two," in spite of what we read in foreign papers of the demeanor of our travelling countrymen. Nevertheless, it can hardly yet be maintained that in the mass we illustrate elegance as eminently as we do more sterling qualities; and this is due not to the strictly material character of our civilization, perhaps, so much as to the rapidity of its growth and the necessity of attending first of all to the substantiality of the structure rather than the grace of the decoration of a new society. The American test of a casual stranger who very likely is going his way the next moment, is still, for example, not his civility but his sincerity. If his talk has a genuine ring and his behavior a genuine air about it, their acceptability is assured. Our code in this respect is still that of the mining-camp, though of a diluted intensity, of course; we somehow feel the same necessity of examining credentials in a New York drawing-room that is felt in Nevada: whether or no a man is a humbug is a question the better sort of people are irresistibly impelled to ask themselves immediately upon meeting him for the first time. How the correct answer can in the least matter to any one, or, in other words, what business it can be of anybody's, in any but a primitive community with no social police and dependent upon volunteer vigilance for its security, it occurs to no one to ask. Ordinary acquaintances are looked upon as candidates for close friendship; there is usually, of course, no intention or inclination to bring about a more intimate relation, but it may be said that in general a person must prove his worthiness to be a friend before he can become acceptable as an acquaintance. The artificial institution of a neutral ground upon which people meet impersonally, and where what is said and done is measured by an objective standard of its own, is wholly foreign if not repugnant to American notions of what manners should be. Doubtless it is a satisfaction to reflect that this attitude could not be unaffectedly assumed by any society that did not set a high value upon morals, and possibly there is a natural and inevitable connection between an elaborate development of manners and the vices of a polished society. At the same time it involves at least two results which have their disadvantages. One is a concentration upon the significance rather than the form of everything which attends social intercourse, and the other a paradoxical tendency to the very social hypocrisy which is popularly supposed to be the concomitant solely of the veneer of conventions. The first explains the prodigious amount of "horse-play" which,

though inherited from an Anglo-Saxon ancestry, has here been carried to a development and even a refinement elsewhere quite unknown. With no other people probably is rudeness so purely relative a thing; in taking no offence where none is meant, and conveying none in spite of every outward indication to the contrary, Americans display an unerring skilfulness which not only makes brusqueness perfectly innocuous, but often seems to imply the entire superfluity of the grammar of courtesy. If whatever inherent charm there may be in fine phrases is thereby sacrificed, there is recompense in the implicit confidence reposed in the *entente* presupposed, which is not unlike that of a large family—itself proverbially "not a civil-spoken thing." The social hypocrisy alluded to is not difficult of explanation. The feeling that character rather than manners is in question in social intercourse, is entertained just consciously enough to make this an intensely personal affair—a result powerfully contributed to by the extreme introspectiveness that distinguishes Americans. If it is a question of the personal impression one is producing, it is not in human nature to neglect making as good a showing as possible. One can understand from this the enquiry once made by an observant and candid Frenchman: "Why is it that Americans talk so much for effect?" The enquirer had no more experience of the moral tournaments so customary with us than his surprised auditor had of the possibilities of impersonal conversation in which the true "man of the world," so sure of his own position, is such an adept.

This, however, can be made to apply only to Americans who do try to make something of social intercourse, and of course varies with the moral differences and the completeness of self-consciousness of the individuals who move in society. But, in general, manners are not viewed sympathetically by Americans of the finest fibre. Indeed, the quality of innate modesty, which is notoriously strong in Americans, has in it something inimical to manners Whether or no its absence makes a "court gallant" what he is outwardly, it is not to be denied that in his presence the man of "natural politeness" in America can never avoid—outside of books—appearing either abashed or brusque. Any one who has observed the bearing of the rural New-Englander will remember—with delight, very likely—the almost childish shyness exhibited in the presence of unfamiliar conventions. The class which Mr. Howells celebrates as "summer boarders" must be rich in experiences of it. The Massachusetts rustic, in every mental and moral respect quite the equal of his "city-bred" acquaintance, displays an ineradicable animosity to what he calls "citified airs." Fathers are fond of mortifying their aspiring daughters by remarks in peculiarly aggravating circumstances about the frivolousness of napkins; these daughters, again, are overfond of inferring a "stuck-up" disposition in a city cousin guiltless of all offence beyond a well-fitting dress; rustic slang acquires a curious intensity in the presence of a grammarian. Every variety of protest, dogged and satirical, is made against what is called "style." Boots go unblacked and hats without bands; shirts are patched with flour-bags; coats are taken off at meal-time; one "gallus" is worn instead of a pair, rope-yarn instead of shoe-laces; "be" is used for "am" and "are," "hyarye" for "how do you do," "hairin' out" for "growing a beard"; "my wife" is "my woman"—wholly because of a defiant humility which insists that conventions are "airs," and almost never out of ignorance. Indeed, there exists in rural New England, one may say, a social code of very strict sanctions and universally subscribed to, whose chief canon is the frivolousness of manners. And though nowhere else, perhaps, has it attained the same severity and distinct authority, the spirit which informs it is equally plain throughout the country, wherever it is not obscured by the refinement which the instinct of self-preservation tends to produce in the most exclusive society of three or four large cities. To the people everywhere Mr. Lowell's line

> "They knew that outward grace is dust,"

applies closely—notably to the people of "the unexhausted West," whose characteristic unrestraint in the presence of conventions, and hearty disregard for anything that touches fastidiousness, have enriched our national vocabulary with a special sense of the adjective "Western." Nowhere else do people wear the same outward suit on all occasions, and insist on the preservation of individuality in the most impersonal circumstances. The Western orator, preacher, editor, merchant insists on the same form for public and private conduct, with an emphasis eloquent of his conviction that any deference to what is understood by "manners" is at once a derogation from dignity and an assumption of "frills." The respectable possibilities of this attitude never perhaps received a better exemplification than in Mr. Lincoln, whose "clear-grained human worth" and "brave old wisdom of sincerity" are so finely celebrated in Mr. Lowell's poem just quoted from.

> "New birth of our new soil, the first American,"

undoubtedly Mr. Lincoln was, in the exactest logic; and the sympathetic recognition of this pre-eminence by the poet of broadest culture, perhaps, that the East can boast, making every allowance for the exigencies of commemoration odes, is strongly indicative of the universality of the American passion for simplicity, and impatience of anything artificial. Mr. Lincoln "always spoke of the Presidency as 'this place,'" says a recent biographer of him, and nothing could be more characteristic of "the unexhausted West." His distinction lay in the absoluteness of his simplicity and an extraordinary tact (apt to accompany such) which made it possible for him to transfigure homeliness on occasion—in the Gettysburg speech for example. Most statesmen who emulate his unaffectedness, it is well to bear in mind in the interests of precision, more or less nearly justify the remark of a Delaware journalist, to the effect that Americans like their public men to resemble base-burning stoves—"so that folks can sit around them and spit on them."

This neglect of everything but the substance of things is admirably illustrated in the literature which burst into blossom a few years ago, and of which the stories of Bret Harte are, perhaps, the best examples. The theme of this was the real beauty of superficial uncouthness. It celebrated the diamond in the rough. Its popularity was instant and enormous, and it is quite erroneous to ascribe its success to the potency of the touch of nature it contained. Essentially it was flagrantly unnatural, and its scheme was not strictly to be called novel. The hollowness of social conventions had theretofore been pretty well exploited in Anglo-Saxon literature. Mr. Bret Harte's distinction lay in the exaggeration of his contempt for these, and in the ease with which he "beat the record." People cried over Kaintuck's "The damned little cuss!" both because the cue of pathos was given so audibly, and because it was a covert protest against the habit of elegant speech. Primness, straitlacedness, pompous hypocrisy, unmeaning politeness, all seemed to be rebuked by it. It gave the conscientious an excellent excuse for unbending, and nothing is more American than an imperious inclination to unbend. Shocking the proprieties, indeed, is no small part, if one comes to think of it, of what is called American humor. It is very near the whole stock-in-trade of the newspaper paragrapher, who has lately appeared in such abundance; his constant occupation seems to be pulling the chair from beneath dignity. Very often this propensity is indulged without disguise and in complete consciousness, which any one may verify by observing the quality of the most successful "hits" in a popular American burlesque. The vulgarity does not appeal to the unconscious envy which creates the hilarity of a Cockney at a penny theatre in London, but to pure abandonment, which is as delightful to the orchestra as the gallery. But it is to be seen at its best and in its most unique aspect when it is mistaken by its possessors for "a return to nature." Nothing is so agreeable to the true American as a vigorous protest against cant; and it is perhaps a necessity of the average American's experience that he should make occasional mistakes about the nature of cant. Most ceremonial, from the use of finger-bowls to the ritual of the Episcopal Church, has first and last incurred this ill-repute in the minds of not a few whole-souled American devotees of "heartiness." And not only ceremonial, but the ideas which underlie it, encounter sturdy hostility. Mr. Beecher, for example, who is so ardent a "naturalist" that he sometimes seems to admire in the civilized man only those traits which he shares with the barbarian, has even taken advantage of it, with the inspiration of genius, to make serious inroads upon the vogue of the Calvinist theology. What are canons, conventions, court decisions but clogs and impediments in the way of natural expression? he seems to cry every Sunday, suiting his action and tone to the word. And together with these musty artificialities dogma itself crumbles before the eyes of sympathetic hearers. The appeal of the Rev. Mr. Talmage is still more directly to the heart and conscience rather than to the taste. The taste of Mr. Talmage has, of course, little that is typical about it, but it is an exaggeration rather than a contradiction of the national tendency to esteem outward grace dust. American good sense may certainly be trusted to prevent the permanent survival of flagrant offences against taste, and only such observers as the writers for *Blackwood's Magazine*, probably, see a necessary and intimate connection between manners and monarchy. But if republicanism with us is to continue to imply equality, it is as well to bear in mind that manners are, in a sort, the safeguard of social equality—which otherwise, indeed, might one day come to be found intolerable without them.

FRENCH POPULARITY OF BEACONSFIELD.

PARIS, April 16, 1880.

THE result of the English elections has taken everybody by surprise in France. It was almost universally assumed that Lord Beaconsfield would triumph, and the victory of the Liberals seems hardly comprehensible. The feeling here is very different from that entertained at Berlin, Vienna, or St. Petersburg. We are witnesses more than actors in the diplomatic drama which is enacting in Europe, and none of our own plans is deranged by the English elections. Public opinion in France, though we are so near England, is always somewhat ignorant of the details of English affairs. It is satisfied with general impressions. There was certainly, if we examine these impressions with regard to the English Conservatives and Liberals, more sympathy felt in this country for the Conservatives than for the Liberals. The reasons for this preference are rather singular; the principal one is, perhaps, the great admiration which has always been felt here for M. Disraeli, as Lord Beaconsfield is still persistently called. The French admire in Disraeli the man who succeeded by the mere force of his character and his intelligence in conquering the leadership of the proudest aristocracy in the world. The defects which in England are constantly brought as reproaches against Lord Beaconsfield are unknown to the French, and, if known to them, would not affect them in the same way they do the somewhat morbid gentlemen of London, Oxford, or Cambridge. Disraeli is constantly accused of being theatrical; the French have no objection to theatrical men, they are grateful to a man who plays a good part and who plays it well. They admire the artist; they do not dislike simplicity, but they believe that simplicity may be the triumph of art. Some of M. Disraeli's sayings, the formulas and sententious phrases in which he delights to wrap up his ideas, have been much admired in France; such phrases as "peace with honor," which was uttered after the treaty of Berlin, on the return of Lord Beaconsfield from a long and tedious Congress, speak to the French imagination. There are many others which, at various periods, have been laid aside like political gems, and have given our public the idea that Disraeli was an "homme d'esprit"; and what higher praise can be bestowed on a man?

I remember well how infatuated Eugène Forcade, of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, was with Disraeli. The success of an "homme de lettres," a mere writer, consoled Forcade for all his own troubles. He often told me that the rise of Disraeli was the best proof that could be given of the vitality and cleverness of the British aristocracy; he often contrasted the position of the great leader of the Tories with the position which was occupied at the time in France by some of our best literary men. Forcade enjoyed every triumph of Disraeli as a sort of personal triumph; he took almost a child's pleasure in the success of his novels, in the noise he made in the world; he believed him to be one of the few men in Europe who are natural leaders of nations. I mention Forcade in this instance as he was a man of great culture, of great intelligence himself; he represented the large class of journalists, and his influence for many years was really considerable.

There is another reason for Lord Beaconsfield's popularity out of England: he has always been careful, during all his public life, not to say anything offensive to foreign nations; he who was so bitter, and who could be so unsparing at home, who was at one time a sort of political gladiator, has always assumed with regard to other races, nationalities, peoples, the cold, prudent, and frigid tone of diplomacy. No king, no potentate, no nation has in its side one of those poisoned arrows, "lancés d'une main sûre," by the hand of Lord Beaconsfield. While his party revelled in the most absurd and passionate accusations against the North, while some of the Liberal leaders offended America almost as much by their contemptuous sympathy as they would have done by their hostility, Disraeli kept silent. He has in him something of the sphinx; he never said one word which Mr. Seward at the time, or which Mr. Evarts now, could turn against him. Did he see further than his friends; had he a better knowledge of the latent forces hidden in the American Union; did he only obey a chivalrous impulse, or was his silence systematic—who knows? The consequence is certain. Mr. Disraeli has, with regard to all foreign Powers, an unassailable position; he has always fulfilled towards them the duties not only of neutrality but of courtesy.

France saw with complete indifference the late events in which Lord Beaconsfield took such a prominent part. The old jealousies between England and France in the East, in Egypt, in Syria, seem to be completely dead; we have, in fact, established in Egypt a sort of *condominium* since the downfall of the last Khedive. Diplomats of the old school were amazed at the indifference which the French public showed when Lord Beaconsfield, by a stroke of imperial policy and before consulting Parliament, bought a large number of shares of the Suez Canal. With the joint-stock government of Egypt a new system has been established in the East: the financiers have more to do than the diplomats, and this new tendency has gone so far as to render France completely indifferent to the convention which gave Cyprus to England. The Conservative Government found France weakened, humbled, discontented with the Bonapartist policy of war and adventure, and it has reaped the benefit of this situation. Even among the most ardent supporters of the Republic there was no animosity felt against the English Tories, while Gambetta and his friends cherished a sort of rancorous feeling against the Liberals, who had done nothing for them in 1870. When M. Thiers made his journey round Europe in quest of an ally for France he had interviews in England with Lord Granville, and he sent his reports to the Government at Tours; his despatches will some day be published, but the conversations of M. Thiers were so frequent, so open, on the subject that there is little doubt that Lord Granville received the French envoy in a manner which did not give him any satisfaction. England was still under the influence of the publication in the *Times* of the famous Benedetti treaty concerning Belgium, and a real indignation was felt against Napoleon. The Government of National Defence was not considered in the light of a government with which it was safe to enter into any arrangement. M. Thiers himself did not disguise the fact that everything was uncertain in the future; he was terribly afraid of a Bonapartist restoration; he was very unfavorable to a royalist restoration, and he did not disguise it at any of the courts which he visited. He astonished the English Liberals, who had always looked upon him as a representative of constitutional monarchy; his language was obscure, inspired by personal feelings as well as by patriotic motives; it seemed at the time almost incomprehensible. It is not much to be wondered at if he found no "ouverture," no "opening" anywhere, to use a diplomatic expression. Still, the failure of M. Thiers caused much irritation in France among the men of the Government of the National Defence, and their irritation turned especially against the Liberals, who were then in power. Lord Granville thought it necessary during the late electoral battle to reassure the French Republicans with regard to his feelings towards France, and made a sort of half-apology for the coldness of the Liberals in 1870.

This precaution has not been quite vain, and the tone of the Republican press, which was almost hostile to the English Liberals, has become more moderate. There have been intimations made also in some quarters that the success of the Conservatives would have helped in a great measure the plans of the Austro-German alliance. This alliance of Berlin and Vienna, established since the journey of Prince Bismarck, is the great Continental fact which "dominates the situation" in Europe, if I may use a vulgar but expressive phrase. We are told in Berlin and in Vienna, not only by the Government organs but by the press of all shades and opinions, that this great German Bund will not be the combination of an hour; that it will last, that it has a mission to accomplish—a mysterious mission in some respects, an avowed mission in other respects. It will continue in the East the policy instituted by the Congress of Berlin—that is, will give Austria her due share of influence in the Balkan peninsula. What the mysterious mission of the "Kaiserbund" may be, we are left to judge; but it was a singular coincidence that at the time when this Kaiserbund was formed, the German press began to accuse Russia and France of secret designs, of common designs; Prince Gortchakoff was denounced to the world as the man who had told France "Make yourself strong," as if he wanted to use this returning strength of France as soon as possible. It seemed already as if a secret alliance had been made between Paris and St. Petersburg, and the Kaiserbund were really only a defensive counter-alliance.

The extreme disappointment felt in Vienna and Berlin has given many people in Europe the impression that the two German Kaisers expected, if not the active co-operation of Lord Beaconsfield, at least his sympathy for their plans, whatever these plans may be. An "entente cordiale," if not an alliance of London, Prussia, Vienna, would have made in the midst of Europe a barrier over which Russia and France could not have exchanged hands. The Liberals in England have prophesied to their electors that Lord Beaconsfield, if he was victorious, would embark them upon adventures much more dangerous than a war with Afghanistan or with Cetywayo; and it seems probable that the British electors have, in one sense, followed a conservative instinct when they pronounced themselves, as they have now done, for a policy which will be more strictly a policy of non-intervention. There can be no doubt that Europe will not perpetually feed four millions of men in arms and not

try what these four millions of men are worth. England very luckily and very cleverly played her part of first Power in the last Eastern question; she may well rest now for a while and meditate, asking herself what her duties may be in the future European questions which are slowly but surely preparing.

RELIGIOUS OPINION IN GERMANY.

LEIPZIG, April 1.

DURING the last decade, or since the last edition of Schwartz's well-known 'History of the Most Recent Theology,' published in 1869, Germany has undergone important changes in religious opinion, a brief glance at a few of which may not be uninteresting to the readers of the *Nation*.

Beginning with the radical side, Professor Zeller, of Berlin, the foremost teacher of historical philosophy, the son-in-law of F. C. Baur, and the reputed confidential religious adviser of the Crown Prince and Princess, has published a brilliantly-written, matured, and moderate digest of the writings of the Tübingen school.* Into these essays he has incorporated his own well-known arguments, that the constitution of the Church was during the early Middle Ages modelled largely into analogy with the Platonic republic, and that the popular Stoic philosophy had much influence upon the development of its doctrines. He lays great stress upon the fact that the Tübingen movement, unlike English deism, French atheism, or German rationalism, was started by mature professors of theology and men of deep personal piety, and draws a picture of Baur's profoundly religious and pastoral character which all must admire, and which made his sermons edifying to all who heard them. Zeller urges that the Tübingen method, which consists simply in applying to the New-Testament writings the same canons of criticism that are applied to all other writings of antiquity, and which he would therefore designate simply as the *historical* method, does not, if rightly comprehended, undermine, but only strengthens, the foundations of piety; and he reminds us how the Emperor Julian feared that the classical literature would be discredited if faith in the old mythology were destroyed. The Tübingen investigations, though discredited by the extreme and injudicious writings of Strauss, Feuerbach, Bruno Bauer, etc., and for the time arrested by the death of Baur and by the orthodox reaction, have, we are assured, convinced every impartial scholar under forty-five who has thoroughly studied them, and still point out the direction which religious studies must take if Protestant theology is to maintain a respectable place among the other departments of learning.

This movement is still very effective, along with the development of modern science, in inclining many of the most thoughtful and deeply religious to an outside position of indifference or of hostility to the creed and rites of the Lutheran Church, which, by universal consent, is steadily losing its hold upon the mental, moral, and social life of all the large German communities. Judged by the number of its churches, the growth of its religious organizations, or by the percentage of its church-going population, no large city in Christendom is so utterly indifferent to, and I had almost said unconscious of, the very existence of instituted Christianity as Berlin, and that in spite of the influence of the Kaiser's half of the court.

Again, the *Cultur* war, together with the May laws, by which the Established Church was required to submit to all the restrictions imposed on the Catholics, not only caused the distinctions between these and the Lutherans to be confused in the popular mind, and both to seem involved in a common condemnation, but it crushed the Döllinger movement, embittered, united, and won sympathy for the Catholics, and brought the Church to the condition of a mere vassal of the state, while the latter became absolute and supreme in a dangerous sense, even over the hitherto free domain of religious life and thought. It is now for the first time possible to be born, married, and to die outside of the pale of the Church. The Catholic priests, by scores and hundreds, have abandoned their parishes and let them "run wild" rather than conform to oppressive laws or pass the secular "cultus examination" which the Lutheran candidates for orders are required to do, who afterwards in their pulpits not unnaturally often abandon the old, edifying appeal to the *Gemüth*, and begin to preach philosophy, while the religious question and a Romish party have been introduced into politics. The efforts to make the schools confessionless have led to some curious results. The history of the Christian era and of the Reformation reads strangely when so written as to give no offence to Catholics or to Jews, and many sad and curious incidents are told illustrating the impracticability of education on such a basis—teachers dismissed, good text-books mutilated or discarded for bad ones, parents watching and complaining of the tendencies of instruction, etc.

Professor Luthardt, probably the most influential of the conservative Lutheran leaders, has just closed an important and able series of public lectures, soon to appear in print, emphasizing these and other evil consequences of the May laws, but chiefly important as a defence, from the standpoint he represents, against anti-Christian influences in general. The chief of these, he says, is rationalism. The Middle Ages saw the perfection of corporate life. Men worked, played, fought, and worshipped in masses. The Reformation introduced the principle of subjectivity. Men wished to be certain of salvation each for himself without priestly mediation. Kant's affirmation of autonomy; Lessing's ultra-Protestantism against all authority; pietism, which makes the edification of the individual soul the chief thing; the "storm-and-stress" literature—all these are but caricatures of the teaching of Luther, and not progress beyond it. The rights and the sphere of the judgment of the *individual* as independent of the community, the *Zeitgeist*, the authority of the Church, etc., have thus been emphasized beyond all bounds, and to a degree inconsistent alike with daily observation (which teaches that sin is the greatest fact in the world) and with the doctrine of heredity, therapeutic art, legal experience, etc., and are in schools and through the press undermining the foundations of parental and magisterial discipline and authority. The third element of rationalism is the superstitious reverence of knowledge for its own sake, which results in *Aufklärung* and repugnance to all obscurity and mysticism. It is very doubtful whether education really makes people better, and it is false that the knowledge of virtue makes men virtuous. The broad and shallow curriculum of the schools encourages half-culture, discontent, and insubordination. The effects of rationalism came into the schools with Rousseau's 'Émile,' which Voltaire well characterized as inclining all who read it to desire to get down, brute fashion, on all fours; and the school even now seems likely to supersede the Church. Children are too tenderly educated, and allowed far too much moral freedom. Rationalism, too, brought universal suffrage and a consequent immense waste of mental, moral, and material energy in political manœuvring and party squabbles, until now, especially in America, politics is a school of corruption, where young men learn that the chief virtue is cunning knavery that escapes being found out. Business life, also, is a war of the strong against the weak, and introduced the Jewish method of showy and undurable cheapness, while competition has destroyed values. The theatres corrupt taste and morals; the beer-houses, which have doubled in number within ten years in each German *Dorf*, injure family life and "demoralize our effeminate youth." Work is specialized and therefore degraded, so that men cannot be complete in their vocation, but seek compensation in sensuous enjoyment, and the statistics of crimes of animal indulgence have rapidly increased. Men are not satisfied to do their duty and be respectable, useful members of society, but long for public spheres of activity; and worst of all, he adds, in America they even want women to vote. Thus the motto, *laissez-faire laissez-aller*, is as dangerous as the assumption that all men are free and equal is false. Equality has destroyed and always does and will destroy freedom, and the tyranny thus caused is the most ghastly because it blights all moral and intellectual life. All these evils which, from Luthardt's standpoint, have befallen modern society, are directly or indirectly traceable to rationalism.

As the second great source of danger to the Church he designates pantheism, which underlies most German philosophy and which has now found expression in the notion of the state as absolute. From the conception that the bottom principle of the world is an impersonal, changeless or ever-unfolding, system of forces, toward which our only feeling can be either that of absolute dependence or of æsthetic complacency in all its manifestations, eventuating in the "religion of taste," Luthardt describes the logical and the historical transition (begun with Hegel's philosophy of the state, but bearing practical fruit only during the last two decades) to the ideas which have now come to animate the German Empire—viz., that the united wisdom of the most learned men must be an absolute if not infallible *logos*, subordinating and governing church, school, justice, trade, warfare, etc, with supreme might and right.

Materialism is the third and last anti-Christian influence. It arises now, as it did among Jews, Greeks, and Romans, at the close of a long period of culture, and is not a philosophy, but marks the end of all philosophy. It teaches that there is no responsibility and no punishment; that to know all is to forgive all; that sin and crime are a disease. It is

* 'Vorträge und Abhandlungen. Von E. Zeller.' 2 vols. Leipzig. 1875-77.

monistic, Darwinistic, Socialistic. Its theories, as elaborated in Marx and Lassalle, are cosmopolitan as opposed to rational. The individual is encouraged to give up all his rights to society, and to receive pay in pleasure and enjoyment. It views life from a day-laborer's standpoint, and measures work only by the hour. Socialism is atheism taken in earnest. It is God's punishment upon society for the sins of the wealthy classes. Acquisition, enjoyment, sensuousness have brought us to a time when men must, as Pascal said, either believe or despair. Pessimism, the latter alternative, is the choice of those who find faith impossible, and is a proof that earthly goods and pleasure do not satisfy. In his concluding lecture Luthardt depicted pessimism on the one hand and Christianity on the other, and urged that the choice for all men lies between the two.

The young men who enter the Lutheran ministry may be roughly divided into two classes: first, those from respectable families, well bred, of good figure, voice, feature, excellent social and domestic qualities, and considerable tact in keeping clear of all sorts of trouble, but without deep convictions, great scholarship, or much initiative power. Secondly, students from the country, who are often pietistic and often indifferent, but are drawn into the theological lecture-rooms from various obvious associations, because other interests are unawakened, or because, so far as they have observed, a preacher's life is on the whole more desirable than that of a teacher. Very many, after a year or more, abandon the theological for some other faculty, and I have even heard it said jestingly that study under the former had come to seem almost like a preparatory stage for medicine, philology, and jurisprudence. For students of limited means, who reach or pass the clerical examination before finding their mistake, the results are sometimes scarcely less than tragic. The chief theological *Verein*, despite its beery conviviality, is pietistic in a forced and almost mediæval sense. The complaint that the right sort of young men for the pulpits, and especially for the theological professorships, are not to be found, while in other departments they are pressing the older men aside prematurely, is often made by the religious press. Certain it is that many of the young docents, whose specialty is Semitic philology, or Hebrew archæology, or Church history, or diplomatiology, have no deep interest in, or little knowledge of, the distinctively Christian doctrines, and probably for that very reason are inclined by the instincts of discipline, fear, or loyalty to their faculty to emphasize, often absurdly, the external forms of creed and practice, in order to cover the lack of a living faith. This, and the alienation of the more liberal-minded, together with the gross and tasteless religious nihilism of the Social-Democratic brochures and lectures, have sapped the "mediating theology" of Dorner, etc., which was so influential and promising ten years ago, and have caused the conservative lines to be drawn in many respects closer than for many decades here. This is the oft-instanced orthodox reaction in Germany. While loosing its hold upon the community and rejecting the best elements of faith, and making it impossible for men of deep thought and earnest purpose to enter or gain influence in its ranks, and breaking with modern progress, it has unquestionably become better disciplined within, and more assured and confident in its utterances.

The Lutheran Church is homely and old-fashioned in its rites and services, has never been very successful with Sunday-schools or charities, is suspicious of revival work, has almost no popular or juvenile literature, and, in short, so far as the means of active aggressive work are concerned, is comparatively helpless. The recent Christian-Socialistic movement of Pastor Todt, which, starting from the assumption that Christianity and Socialism had points of sympathy in that both were at bottom a protest against an existing order of things, attempted to organize penny-saving societies in the schools, and to instruct workingmen, and by such means to prove "the existence of undeveloped elements of regenerating power in Christianity," has not been a success. Meanwhile some of the older members of the Church, who share the standpoint of the Protestant *Verein*, have wandered far away from the common standard. The dogmatic systems of Professors Biedermann, of Zürich, and Pfleiderer, of Berlin, both published, I think, in 1869, fall just before the period we are contemplating, and are scholarly and systematic presentations of Christian doctrines from a standpoint not essentially differing from that of radical Unitarianism. The works of Ritschl * and Lipsius,† however, fall within the last decade. The former neglects the metaphysical elements of the divine nature, but deduces all from the moral character of Jesus. Not God, he says, but man is atoned. The kingdom of God has unfortunately little to do with the Church. Christianity is simply a generic way of looking at the world, and regarding neither individuals nor communities. Jesus' influence is more abiding than that of other great men because it is purely moral. So too with the more psychological Lipsius: Christianity is a purely "natural process of a higher order." We have no space here to epitomize these important hand-books. In fact, able and interesting as they are, they contain little radically new to the student of religious philosophy; but, bearing in mind that religious opinions are learned not by argumentation but, as we learn to spell, by long-continued reiterations, it is not surprising to know that their influence has been great.

In regard to the date of the Gospels and the authenticity of John—questions still of the liveliest interest—very little new has been evolved by the voluminous discussions of the last ten years. There have been constant and unquestioned, though on the whole not very great or general, concessions to the mythic hypothesis in the New, and especially in the Old, Testament criticism, and to the tendency-theory in the New Testament and the arguments for a late date of certain of the contested books of the latter, while new and promising conceptions of the constitution of the early Christian communities have been developed. This all too brief and imperfect sketch should not close without mention of a tendency represented, though as yet not very numerously, by young men of theological training, who insist that, despite their conviction of the truth of the extreme Tübingen and scientific methods, they yet have a right to a place in the Church. They profess to see a profound psychological meaning in the atonement, Trinity, etc.; a matchless didactic method in the doctrines of inspiration, the deity of Christ, and eternal punishment; a moral and æsthetic cultus in the rites and material equipment of the Church, and an incomparable instrument of discipline and social order in its organization; and urge that therefore they have a place in its ranks and a right to assert its doctrines far superior to that of the ordinary clergyman or lay member who has no such insight, and whom they do not scruple to charge with Phariseeism. Whether this movement have life enough in it to bring it to any successful practical issue, remains to be seen; but it is in this spirit and direction that the greatest religious reforms have been wrought out. Its ethical enthusiasm is of the purest and strongest kind, and it alone makes the near religious future of Germany hopeful or interesting.

* Die Christliche Lehre von der Rechtfertigung und Versöhnung.' 3 vols. Bonn, 1870-74.

† 'Lehrbuch der Evangelischen Protestantischen Dogmatik.' Braunschweig. 1876.

Correspondence.

THE OPPOSITION TO GENERAL GRANT AND THE OPPOSITION TO MR. BLAINE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is one thing sure to hold back the managers at Chicago, even if they have all the delegates in their own hands—the certainty that the people will not elect their man. Senator Conkling alone is suspected of such self-forgetful devotion to ideal principle—the abstract theory of boss-ship—as to be willing, like Casabianca, to go down with the ship rather than desert his silent Sire. The others, at least, are "practical" men who have no mind for paper victories

Of the opposition, some at least of the politicians who are "outs" would wheel into line; but the remainder constitute an immense body of determined Republicans, the most of whom absolutely will not vote for General Grant. The resolution to this effect was tabled at the recent Albany conference not because it did not represent the personal determination of most of those present, but because that conference did not seem to the majority to be the occasion to say by resolution what is being said even more strongly by individuals and in acts every day. Independence has got beyond talking before conventions and doing nothing after, and the loyal Republicans can be counted by the hundred thousands who propose to disown the nominee of the Convention in case the Convention disowns them. There is nothing so certain in American politics as that the selection of General Grant would lead at once, especially in the case of Mr. Tilden's nomination, to the presentation of a Republican third candidate for a conscience vote.

The opposition to Mr. Blaine, though obscured for the time by the whirlwind of protest against General Grant and the third term, as the more threatening evil, is not less determined and has even stronger grounds. Mr. Blaine, with the evidence against him still fresh, was typically *the* objectionable candidate of 1876. He is not less so now. The objections against him are threefold: (1) Mr. Blaine is not a statesman or leader, but a politician and demagogue. He not only fails to represent

great principles or measures, but does represent the contraries to the Republican principles of 1876—sectionalism and not union, a new deal of spoils and not administrative reform, a view of human rights paralleled only in the pro-slavery utterances of '52. (2) Mr. Blaine is, if no worse, a commercial adventurer by his own confession, a speculator or "broker" in railroad stocks which had been or were to be subjects of legislation in Congress. His nomination for the Presidency would be the culmination of the speculation which is the curse of these times and has especially been the curse of this country since the war, and it would offer to younger Americans the worst possible example of what kind of services this country proposes to reward. (3) Mr. Blaine is believed, further, by those who have most fully looked up the facts, to be *personally* dishonest and corrupt, an objection made only against him and against Mr. Tilden, but to many the strongest of all possible objections. The contradictions between his own letters and "personal explanations," and the remarkable testimony brought out in the half-finished investigations which prostrated him physically and broke him down as a candidate in 1876, are for the time overlooked; it is almost forgotten that there is evidence against him. As a matter of fact, many a criminal has been "sent up" on less, and few business men would care to give a place of trust in their own counting-room to a man with the record of this candidate for the headship of the nation.

All this would make little difference to the managers unless it threatened to lose votes. But this is what it will do; and the *Tribune* is right in saying that "the party cannot afford the risk of driving even a handful of voters over to the Democrats," especially when in most "Republican" States the party is in a minority on the total vote, and in such as Ohio and New Hampshire has a margin of but one-half of one per cent. This, after nearly five per cent. of the Republicans voting in "the pivotal State" had "scratched" a candidate personally less objectionable than Mr. Blaine.

A candidate for the Presidency is not a light under a bushel, and Mr. Blaine's judicious protest against personal attack on candidates cannot eliminate from the canvass so pertinent a question as to whether or not a would-be President is personally dishonest. Mr. Blaine's nomination might not, probably would not, lead to the wholesale Republican bolt certain to follow that of General Grant, but it will produce a dry-rot within the party yet more dangerous to it. The men whom Mr. Blaine will repel will be repelled after his nomination rather than before, and this is the danger to the party. "He appealed to their imagination," says the *Tribune* of the leader of Jingoism abroad, "but was condemned by their judgment and reason." I think the politicians would be surprised, in the event of Mr. Blaine's nomination, by a wave of honest indignation such as has just swept over redeemed England. There is a rapid increase in the number of American voters who are resolute that parties shall mean something in this country, and who will be bold to antagonize even their own party if it presents only a choice of evils. The Young Republicans of Massachusetts, the Republican League of Pennsylvania, and the Independent Republicans of New York stand on a positive platform of principles which have already been applied, directly or indirectly, to the exclusion both of Grant and Blaine. It is necessary that this application shall be made. The "choice of evils" is just what the fight is against, and those men are not "irreconcilables" who, as between Lucifer and Mephistopheles, will have none of either. The cry of "anything to beat Grant" has for the time subordinated the objections to Blaine, while, on the other hand, the fear that "all roads out of the Blaine camp lead to Grant's" gives pause to those who think there are worse dangers to political morality than the third term. This is the old dilemma that the politicians always contrive; the only way out is an aggressive resistance to both. I make bold to say that there will continue to be such a resistance—an organized and determined resistance—after as before the Convention, in the case of Mr. Blaine as in the case of General Grant. The policy of such a resistance, I think it may be said, will be to emphasize at the same time the importance of electing a Republican House, that a Democratic President may be supported in patriotic but not in partisan measures. This policy would more probably be successful under a strong Grant bolt than with a Blaine dry-rot. But it is time to insist on "heroic remedies," and the events of the past three months have not convinced those who originated the "scratching" against Mr. Cornell that they then made a mistake. When the chief office of the nation is in question, certain qualifications must be the more strongly insisted on, in the belief that when worst comes to worst only defeat can save the party.

R. R. Bowker.

New York April 24.

Notes.

THE copartnership of Houghton, Osgood & Co has been terminated by the retirement of Mr. Osgood, who becomes the head of a new firm, J. R. Osgood & Co., devoted to the heliotype business, and retaining chiefly the publication of the *American Architect* and of Mr. Sweetser's excellent guide-books. The new firm of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. bears for the first time the name of one who has long been a junior partner, we believe, and includes Mr. Lawson Valentine of this city. Among its first publications will be 'Ballads and Lyrics,' selected by Henry Cabot Lodge, editor of the *International Review;* a very full collection, primarily designed for school use.——'A Short Life of Charles Dickens, with Selections from his Letters,' by Charles H. Jones, is the latest of the Appletons' Handy Volumes; and if there be any demand for a colorless and creditable condensation of the copious biographical ana already published concerning Dickens, this book is calculated to meet it, so far as we can judge. We observe that Mr. Jones is at no pains to idealize his subject. ——Though holding no longer the rank of leading works in their sphere—superseded as they are in part by the bolder criticism of Graf, Kuenen, Wellhausen, and others—the writings of Ewald are still justly reckoned among the foremost productions of German historico-critical research; and of his numerous books the 'Antiquities of Israel' a supplement to his 'History of Israel,' is one of the most valuable. An edition of the 'Antiquities' has just been imported by A. D. F. Randolph & Co.——In the *American Art Review* for April Mr. Linton continues his "History of Wood-Engraving in America," the chief biographical sketch being of Joseph Alexander Adams, upon whom very high praise is bestowed. The leading etching of the number is Mrs. Anna Lea Merritt's portrait of Sir Gilbert Scott, after G. Richmond. It is, though not the best specimen of this artist's work with the needle, marked by characteristic vigor and decision. A brief account of our countrywoman is given by the editor.——The April number of the *Magazine of American History* contains three excellent leading papers—the first, a valuable digest of the recorded history of the Pawnee Indians, by John B. Dunbar. A sketch of the life of a meritorious Revolutionary officer, Col. Return Jonathan Meigs, by Henry P. Johnston, is accompanied by an etched portrait. Numerous fac-similes of maps found with a diary of an aide of Rochambeau's are given in connection with the translation which has been running through several numbers of the magazine. They are said to be tracings from contemporary army maps.——In No. 13 of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History* will be found an interesting paper by Samuel W. Pennypacker, on the "Settlement of Germantown, and the Causes which led to it." The writer concludes, from a survey of the first twenty years, that the settlers were substantially a "people from the lower Rhine regions of Germany and from Holland," and in the main the offspring of the Mennonites.——In the 'Virginians' Thackeray mentions a certain French duke and marquis "who . . . accompanied Rochambeau . . . to the American coast," whose memoirs "the gentle reader" is specially warned not to consult. A new and most dainty edition of these 'Mémoires du Duc de Lauzun' has just been published in Paris by M. Rouveyre, whom we have to thank for other literary delicacies. M. d'Heylli contributes an introduction of forty-six pages, pointing out that this is one of the few unabridged editions, and carrying on the story of the author's life to his death by the guillotine. The etched head and tail-pieces to this introduction suit the Duke's French adventures better than his American exploits. M. Rouveyre has given us here a beautiful specimen of appropriate book-making.——We have received from F. W. Christern a specimen number of a new work in folio, 'Les Chefs d'Œuvre d'Art au Luxembourg,' of which the Librairie d'Art of Ludovic Baschet at Paris has just begun the publication. It contains a poem, "Au Jardin du Luxembourg," by François Coppée; a biographical and critical sketch of the painter Bouguereau, accompanied by wood-cuts of the subject and several of his sketches and a Goupil photogravure of his "La Vierge Consolatrice"; two drawings of the Luxembourg gardens, and an inflated rhetorical prospectus by the publisher. In every mechanical respect the forty *livraisons* which will complete the work will doubtless be as sumptuous, and in critical worth of as little moment perhaps, as the specimen number before us.——Another publication of great elegance is MM. Marius Michel's 'History of Bookbinding in France,' of which Mr. J. W. Bouton is the American agent.——Decanver's 'Catalogue of Works in Refutation of Methodism' has been largely expanded by MS. additions in four copies deposited in the libraries of the Andover (Mass) Theological Seminary, the Theological Seminary at Princeton, N. J., the Astor

Library, and the British Museum.——A 'Life of Arthur John Roebuck' and 'Soldiers of the Victorian Age,' by Mr. C. R. Low, are English works announced as in press.——We notice that Mr. Charles Waldstein, a graduate of Columbia College in 1854 (Ph.D., Heidelberg), is giving a course of lectures on the history of Greek sculpture in the lecture-room of the Fitzwilliam Museum, Cambridge, England.

—The Harvard Natural History Society offers its third annual series of prizes for essays to be sent before Nov. 15, 1880, to Mr. Wm. M. Davis, Secretary, Cambridge, Mass. The writers must be "students, of either sex, who enter, attend, or graduate from public or private schools" during the present year, and must forward their essays anonymously, certifying in a sealed envelope to their identity and good faith. The topics are: (1) Dissemination of seeds; (2) "Make a collection of the plants of one family, and note the peculiarities of station of each plant"; (3) Characters of insect sub-orders; (4) The flight and other movements of birds; (5) Anatomy of any common animal; (6) A microscopical study of the inter-cellular spaces of our larger water-plants; (7) "An open question"—*i.e.*, of the writer's own selection, approved by a committee consisting of Robert W. Greenleaf, Frederic Gardner, jr., and W. M. Davis; who will also furnish on application fuller particulars than we can publish. The prizes are $25, $20, and 10, to be awarded in January, 1881.

—A little primer on 'English Composition,' in the series published by Macmillan, and edited by Mr. J. R. Green, is the work of Prof. John Nichol, of the University of Glasgow. It was elaborately reviewed for the London *Statesman*, and in 'Doctor Indoctus,' just issued by Trübner & Co., we have the review "reprinted with additions and emendations." The initials attached to the preface are unnecessary to any one familiar with the scholarship and writings of Dr. Fitzedward Hall. Dr. Hall shows in the most lavish manner Prof. Nichol's incompetence for his undertaking, and fairly buries him beneath examples of the falsity of the rules laid down in the Primer, and of the professor's constant violation of them. Usually, in the case of those arbiters of style whom Dr. Hall from time to time takes in hand we quickly experience a pity for the object of his castigation, and there is room for it here, though the offence is flagrant. In particular, when the professor sins against his own canons, his wounds are apt to be washed with salt and water by abundant citations from standard writers which prove him to have been using good English in spite of himself. These citations, both in his support and for his confusion, give the pamphlet a value which neither mere polemics nor hypercriticism possesses. Every reader may profit, for instance, from the notes in which the coupling of the singular verb with a conjunctively plural subject is discussed, or those in which the difference between the relatives *that* and *which* is examined; and we might mention many more. We recommend to teachers, writers, and proof-readers, and generally to purists however classed, the careful perusal of Dr. Hall's 63 pages. If Scotchmen, it is only fair to warn them that his well-known intolerance of Mr. Carlyle is based on racial as well as personal considerations. In passing, too, we observe that Dr. Hall lends the sanction of his high authority to a locution which, though often condemned, could long ago appeal to respectable usage on both sides of the water, when he writes, on p. 58, "since he *claims to sit* in judgment on the expression."

—Among the errors and omissions of English lexicographers is now to be classed a careless if not contemptuous neglect—to call it by no harsher term—of Roman Catholic technical nomenclature. Indeed, we should be justified in assuming from a paper in the current number of the *American Catholic Quarterly Review* that there were traces of a conspiracy to suppress all information upon this subject, among those respectable scholars whom Dr. Johnson in his own dictionary defined as "harmless drudges." This it seems was undoubtedly the case immediately after the Reformation, and even when some Catholic terms "began to creep into dictionaries" they were defined in a way which, as the writer says, was "an insult to us or an insult to common sense"; not only was this true, but "every odious nickname and term of opprobrium that the filthiest hearts could engender" boldly stalked into these works. There was no excuse for the exclusion on the ground of novelty, it is explained. The terms "have been uninterruptedly used in the castle homes of the most ancient of the noble families of the three kingdoms," and "in the homes of sturdy yeomen and peasantry too brave and incorruptible to barter their faith for monarch's frown or parliamentary bribe." Moreover, the Catholic vocabulary is more "interwoven in the language" than that of any denomination, having grown up with the English tongue "when the Church, engaged in its civilizing work, transformed Saxon and Norman into one people by the unity of faith." Just now is a fitting time to divulge all these things, "because the most pretentious dictionary ever yet prepared is soon to go to press"—meaning, of course, that of the Philological Society of Great Britain. There are indications, it appears, that the gentlemen who have this work in hand are not doing their duty by Catholics, and it is already a question whether they will not, therefore, "merely add one more to the list of absurdities." The article is in its details both elaborate and precise, and apparently its grievance is to some extent sound; its temper is not distinctly persuasive, but to lexicographers, of course, this matters less than its statements of fact. If, however, the writer's "pessimist forecast proves fallacious," as he says, in regard to the Philological Society's work, it should be borne in mind that Catholics of the present day have an ever-present refuge in what is here called "a hearty laugh" at Protestant blundering, and are no longer invited to "barter their faith for a monarch's frown." And in any event since the terms referred to are used "on the arid plains of inland Australia, through the well-watered republic of America, in England's fairest lands, and the green fields of Ireland," there should be demand enough for a *bona-fide* Catholic lexicon of the English language, if that of the Philological Society proves as treacherously incomplete or misleading as its less pretentious predecessors.

—Mr. Albert Stickney, whose recently-published 'A True Republic' displayed a marked tendency to political speculation of a more radical sort than is generally indulged in by American writers, contributes a paper on "Government Machinery" to the May number of the *International Review* which leaves a similar impression. The evils which he finds in our present system of managing public affairs are familiar, though Mr. Stickney's presentation of them is unusually pointed and comprehensive at the same time. He does not mind saying that we entirely pervert the true function of popular elections, which is "the mere selection of the few men who are to be at the head of our affairs." The great trouble being to get officials who will attend strictly to their duties, what we need is "a machinery for putting men out, not for putting men in." "Instead of continually *using* the process of election, we should simply *hold in suspense* the process of removal." This would at once fix responsibility, and would naturally concentrate an office-holder's attention upon his official functions rather than on schemes for re election. If this plan should prove impracticable, and if the people, after the destruction of the present powerful party organizations, cannot be trusted to choose proper representatives, "then," says Mr. Stickney, "we must give up free government." There is no difficulty about finding good men, he is sure; the present holders of public office would be good enough "under a decent system." If Mr. Sherman, Mr. Blaine, and Mr. Conkling could be released to-day from "their grinding slavery to the election machine," we should have within five years the "finest civil service on the face of the earth." If anybody cries centralization, Mr. Stickney says it is the order of nature wherever affairs are vast; centralization of power being inevitable, centralization of responsibility is demanded as a safeguard. A certain peremptoriness, illustrated in such statements as that "Mr. John Sherman four years since knew no more about finance than he did about Sanskrit," is possibly inimical to persuasiveness, but it does not operate to obscure Mr. Stickney's meaning or make it less suggestive.

—A stanch Republican writes us from South Carolina, where he has been travelling lately:

"I attended a Republican county convention here a few days ago. All the delegates were negroes. A white man, a Collector of Internal Revenue, I believe, came from a distance of eighty miles to address the meeting. He made a pretty effective speech—at least it would have been considered such where I live—dwelling on the tissue-ballots and vote-stuffing practices which are said to prevail here. The audience received his narrative with repeated bursts of laughter. Not the least trace of moral indignation or sense of injury could be perceived in the assemblage. On the contrary, the tissue-ballots were regarded as a huge joke and a screaming farce, and the orator was congratulated by his listeners as the funniest man that had ever been heard in that region, and he was urged to come again and tell them some more good stories. I was shown by the orator a list of the white Republicans of South Carolina; the number was two hundred, and the list was believed to be complete."

—A correspondent, just returned from Honolulu, writes us as follows from St. Louis, under date of April 19, 1880:

"The Hawaiian reciprocity treaty has done wonders for the islands, and in three years has developed resources which would otherwise have lain dormant for decades. Almost all the merchandise used there is American, and the business interests are mainly in the hands of Americans, whose energy and capital are producing such good results. Some fear abrogation of the treaty through the influence of the New Orleans and New York refiners. The former surely have no just cause of com-

plaint, as the sugars are entirely different, and the New York refiners have but experienced a somewhat earlier cessation of the California trade than would inevitably have resulted from the numerous refineries and the amount of capital invested in them on the Pacific coast. The charge of importing Manila sugars *via* the islands is almost too ludicrous for consideration, as, first, there has been no vessel from Manila to the islands for years (statistics prove this), and, secondly, the Honolulu merchants and planters are far too wide-awake to permit such an injury to their own vital interests. The Chinese question on the islands is somewhat serious, since they appear to be crowding the natives out; but as they intermarry freely and are somewhat amenable to the native customs and habits, the admixture may prove a beneficial one, and as yet the Portuguese immigration and that from the neighboring isles keep them in check."

—"A Child of the State," now having a very successful run at "Wallack's," is a specimen of that "old-fashioned melodrama" which M. d'Ennery knows so well how to turn out. "A Child of the State" appears designed to illustrate the social dangers of severe penal legislation on the subject of the relation of the sexes. The law-givers of Holland, it seems, enacted two or three centuries since a Draconian statute with regard to the parents of children born out of wedlock. We cannot give all the details, but to judge by M. d'Ennery's play its violation involved on the part of the father a choice between the two evils of death and matrimony. There were other provisions which complicated the simplicity of the law, and, of course, in a melodrama of the *Porte St.-Martin* variety the terrible alternative is only presented for the purpose of deepening the gloom which through the first four acts threatens to engulf the virtuous characters of the play. It would be idle to attempt to give any analysis of the plot. There is a young count of the old *De Lancy* family (Mr. Maurice Barrymore) madly in love with *Marie* (Miss Marion Booth), the ward of the excellent *Frederich von Helmich*, chief magistrate of the Hague (Mr. John Gilbert), and his wife *Louise* (Miss Rosa Rand). *Christian* (Mr. Gerald Eyre) is an advocate, who, like all the advocates of French melodrama, carries about with him a folio edition of the Code. *Heinrich* (Mr. Harry Edwards) is *Christian's* uncle, and also the middle-aged villain of the play. He it is who is really the father of *Gertrande*, the child of the state (Miss Emily Rigl), and who threatens the unfortunate mother of his child with exposure unless she consents to a marriage between *Christian* and *Marie*. He it is who involves the count *De Lancy* in all sorts of trouble, which threatens to end only with an ignominious death. He it is, too, who, after his nephew *Christian* has been run through the heart by his rival (as he justly deserved), and all his villanous schemes are seen to be thwarted on the eve of success, is finally himself exposed and ruined through the clever management of *Gros René* (Mr. Wallack), the young count's friend and adviser. All the acting is very good, and Miss Rigl shows a good deal of tragic power in the part of *Gertrande*. The third act, in which the fatal duel takes place, is as good as any melodramatic acting we have seen here since Fechter.

—In the domain of the literature of the sagas the last few months have witnessed the appearance of several works of interest to Old-Northern scholars. Dr. Hugo Gering, of Halle, has now published his expected critical edition of the Finnboga Saga—relating to the North of Iceland—preceded by an admirable introduction and accompanied by a glossary; and has followed this by an equally excellent text of the Ölkofra Tháttr (Halle, 1880), a curious narrative of an early Icelandic legal process. Dr. Petersén has issued in Lund, Sweden, a really good edition of the important Jómsvikinga Saga, which follows the text (No. 510) of the Arna-Magnæan Collection, thus differing from previous editions. It is notable, in reference to this old Icelandic picture of the age of the vikings, that the distinguished Icelandic scholar Arngrímur Jónsson (b. 1567, d. 1648) made a Latin paraphrase of it, using, as has been maintained by some, a more perfect MS. than any now existing. This early paraphrase, which seems to supply some lost incidents, has now been published by Dr. Gjessing, of Christiania. The text of the new edition of the famous Njáls Saga by Professor Konrad Gislason, of Copenhagen, has been for some time before the public. The editor is now engaged upon a volume of commentary, of which the first part, which is really an essay upon the skaldic metrical system, has already appeared. Of the greatest importance in saga literature is a singularly acute treatise, 'Ueber die Kristni-Saga' (München, 1878), by Dr. Oskar Brenner, a pupil of the well-known Professor Konrad Maurer. The author shows, by most careful investigations, that the Kristni Saga is really a part of the greater Islendingabók of Ari the Learned, which has heretofore been regarded as lost. It is the continuation by the historian Ari of his Landnámabók—that wonderful work which gives in such detail the story of the "Pilgrim Fathers" of Iceland. As a mere critical study Dr. Brenner's book is worth reading even by those not specially interested in his theme.

—Translations of the sagas into the modern tongues are growing in number. A. U. Baath, the most promising of Sweden's younger poets, has given his countrymen an exceedingly good version of the Njála, while a German translation by H. Lefolii has been received with deserved praise. Two separate versions of the Gunnlaugs Saga, another of the Fridthjófs Saga, and another of the Hávardar Saga have lately appeared in Germany. In another department of saga literature—that of the romantic sagas derived from southern sources—should be mentioned two editions of the Tristrams Saga, both showing high scholarship. The first is by that excellent native Icelandic scholar Dr. Gisli Brynjulfsson, and is published by the Royal Society of Northern Antiquaries of Copenhagen. The other is by Dr. Eugen Kölbing, of Breslau, editor of the *Englische Studien*. The latter is entitled 'Die nordische und die englische Version der Tristan-Sage'; the first volume, containing the Icelandic text, a German rendering, and a full commentary, was published about a year ago, while the second, comprising the Old-English 'Sir Tristrem,' appeared more recently. That active laborer in the same field, Dr. Gustaf Cederschiöld, of the University of Lund, has edited, under the general title of 'Fornsögur Sudrlanda' (ancient sagas of the southern lands), the Magus, Konráds, Bærings, and Flovents sagas; and has since issued the Clarus Saga in both Icelandic and Latin. A work indispensable to every student of those sagas, the scenes of which are laid in Iceland, is the Danish 'Historisk topografisk Beskrivelse af Island' by K. Kalund, in two volumes. The author spent two years in Iceland, visiting all the saga localities, and inspecting the ancient remains of the island. The maps are not what they should be, and there are, of course, some errors in detail, but the book shows careful labor and fills a long-existing void. It is issued by the Arna-Magnæan Commission at Copenhagen.

HENRY THOMAS BUCKLE.*

BUCKLE was not the intellectual giant which he appeared to the small circle of friends—one clergyman, three ladies, and two school-boys—whose undiscriminating admiration has found expression in the wordy pages of Mr. Huth's 'Life and Writings.' He was, however, a noteworthy personage, whose character is a curious study, for in it are found blended marked moral individuality with equally marked deficiency in freshness or originality of intellect.

The trait of personal character which gives an interest and a certain dramatic unity to Buckle's life is his undivided devotion to one purpose at a time when men of talent are distracted by inconsistent ideals, are weakened by culture, and are so oppressed by the spirit of criticism that they seem to have lost the vigor necessary for efforts of creation. Buckle affords the admirable spectacle of a man who, from boyhood to the day of his death, pursued one object, and that an object, it must be added, worthy of pursuit. At the age of seventeen or eighteen he, like hundreds of other boys, dreamed of writing a great historical work. When at the age of forty he lay dying at Damascus his whole mind was still filled with his book. Of his historical speculations we hope to write on another occasion. Our present purpose is simply to note the fidelity with which Buckle clung to the object of his life. His work, his reading, his recreations were all made subordinate to his paramount aim. He read book after book, he lived retired from the world, he checked even his passion for chess, he formed his style, he resisted the fatal temptation of rushing prematurely into print—all in order that he might bring forth his 'History of Civilization,' and present it to the world in a form which might at once command attention. He obtained his well-deserved reward. For the space of two years Buckle and his speculations occupied all the reading world of England and America. No one who has ever attempted to achieve the most insignificant piece of literary labor can fail to give a tribute of praise and sympathy to a man who exhibited a kind of literary concentration which reminds one, though faintly, of the literary heroes of the last century; which recalls Johnson laboring at his dictionary, Pope's absolute consecration to poetry, or Gibbon's calm, complete, and unceasing dedication of his great powers to the work which is the monument of his genius.

But when we have given Buckle the sympathetic admiration due to systematic and concentrated intellectual effort, we cannot avoid asking the question whether the devotion of his talents to one object, which is

* 'The Life and Writings of Henry Thomas Buckle. By Alfred Henry Huth.' 2 vols. London: Sampson Low, Marston, Searle & Rivington.

really the admirable trait of his life, was due either to extraordinary energy, or to that overpowering inspiration of genius which makes *deus fit dira cupido* the true motto and summary of some men's lives. There is a certain coolness and self-satisfaction about Buckle which makes it hard to believe that he was goaded on by overmastering impulse. It is impossible not to observe that individuality of character may be due either to the force within, which enables some men of heroic mould to break through all the obstacles that hinder the development of their genius, or else to the absence of those obstacles, both external and internal, which generally oppose the free growth of individuality. It is further clear that if Buckle owed something to native energy he also owed a great deal to a very singular freedom from all the circumstances which prevent men from following to the full the bent of their nature. He never knew anything like poverty. When a boy he was suffered to learn pretty much what he liked and as he liked. The death of his father gave him at once pecuniary ease and absolute independence in the choice of his career. Mr. Huth apparently thinks £1,500 a year hardly a competence; and his hero, who determined never to marry till he had an income of £3,000, and who showed throughout life a keen appreciation of the value of money, and of the comforts which money secures, probably shared Mr. Huth's opinion. Yet even in days when we are constantly taught that we cannot have original research unless men of genius are endowed with at least £1,000 a year, it is worth while remembering that Mr. Buckle's income would have seemed untold wealth to many of the leaders in literature and science. In any case he was in no way impeded in his career by that necessity for supporting life which has time after time driven genius from the line suited for its efforts.

Buckle, moreover, was never either aided or hindered by professional studies. At an age when other men have to go through all the routine and drudgery which forms the commencement of every man's professional struggles, Buckle could devote himself to the uninterrupted reading of the works which excited his interest, and which gave him the kind of knowledge he wished to obtain. We frankly admit that according to his intellectual lights he made the best of his opportunities. He had a good library, a strong memory, unlimited time, and an unlimited supply of note-books. For fourteen years he read hard, he noted hard, and was never once led to deviate from his chosen path of study. For he was as free from internal as from external hindrances. His affections seem to have been strong, but they were certainly calm. He was at least as cool a lover as the far more celebrated man who, when bidden by his father to surrender the lady of his choice, "sighed as a lover, but obeyed as a son." He enjoyed, moreover, what was for Buckle's success in mapping out his life the immense advantage of never having bowed down at the universities before the great god Culture. To share the best education of the day, to associate with one's intellectual equals or superiors, to find that men as good as one's self question one's favorite little dogmas, to know how many ideas which one thinks original are either patently absurd or else nothing but commonplaces which have been estimated at their right worth by thinkers far abler than one's self, is in many points of view an unspeakable benefit. To mix with educated companions "knocks the conceit out of a man," as the saying goes; but the same process which checks ignorant presumption is also in nine cases out of ten fatal to self-assertion; and self-assertion, though one of the least pleasing, is one of the most useful of qualities. It was a characteristic, at any rate, with which Buckle was richly endowed. The portrait at the commencement of Mr. Huth's work almost inevitably suggests that a high conceit of Mr. Buckle's own powers must at twenty-four have been one of Mr. Buckle's leading traits, and this conceit one may in perfect seriousness believe to have been a real qualification for the production of the 'History of Civilization.' If its author had passed two or three years at Oxford or Cambridge he would probably never have thought it a sufficient explanation of Burke's conduct towards the end of his life to say that Burke was mad. He would have avoided many errors and toned down a good deal of crude dogmatism; but he would also probably never have produced even the first volume of his history; he would have died at forty, leaving a mass of papers containing carefully-prepared notes of the scheme for a work too elaborate to admit of accomplishment. By the favor of circumstances Buckle passed just the kind of existence which would approve itself to an out-and-out admirer of individual freedom. His powers and his oddities, his strength and his weakness, developed themselves without restraint. Hence he possessed all the advantages of marked individuality.

That a man of talent should be allowed by circumstances to follow the natural bias of his intellect is in many ways desirable; but those who, like Mill, have an unlimited belief in the good effects of perfect freedom from the kind of coercion enforced by the rules of society or of fashion, occasionally forget that individuality—that is, the unrestrained development of a person's own talents or idiosyncrasies—does not necessarily lead to the growth of anything like originality. A man may be free, bold, and unconventional, but be at the same time utterly wanting in mental freshness, or in that kind of insight which (just because it is a gift in itself) one terms originality. Never was this truth better illustrated than by Buckle. He was a man of more than average talent, of far more than average knowledge, and endowed with that kind of boldness which consists in never hesitating to make a strong assertion out of deference to the opinions, the judgment, or the authority of other people. He spoke, we gather from Mr. Huth's statements, with what his friends call decision, and was accustomed to dispose of the questions which perplexed inferior persons "in a few pithy sentences." But with all these qualifications for success in speculation he displays at every turn a kind of commonness of intellect which is not often found in a man of equal powers. When, for example, he was taken to the Crystal Palace, "none shared the illusions of the period more fondly than Mr. Buckle. He thought he had reached philosophically, and could prove as necessary corollaries of a certain condition of knowledge and civilization, the conclusion which numbers held without knowing why; and it was this train of thought which made the opening of 'The People's Palace' interesting to him." In other words, Buckle believed in all the commonplaces of a time when it was thought that the progress of material prosperity had secured the reign of lasting peace, and to the natural errors of the crowd added the special delusion of a theorist, that an erroneous view of the condition of society could be shown to be the necessary deduction from axiomatic principles. To share the ideas of one's age is, it may be said, human, and even a philosopher cannot escape from the common notions of his time; but this apology admits in effect that the particular philosopher is deficient in special insight, and the trait to be noted in Buckle is that even where he thinks "boldly," as the expression goes, he is, to judge from the reported fragments of his conversation, at once ignorantly dogmatic and commonplace.

"I believe," he says, "that what we have done here will not be lost to us, but also that the mind of the philosopher and that of the idiot will be equal after death. The difference we now see in them is owing to the material through which the intellect filters. If mind is immortal it cannot really be diseased. Philosophers do not like this idea."

Let any one who wishes to estimate Buckle's attitude of mind note first that there is nothing whatever in these sentiments which amounts to being even suggestive as to the conditions of the future life, and that what there is startling is nothing but the emptiest assertion about a matter on which neither Buckle nor his audience knew anything whatever. The opinion, in short, as to the future position of the soul of an idiot and the soul of a philosopher is not of much more worth than the conjecture of a child that the moon is made of cream-cheese. Its only value to the so-called thinker who uttered it was probably that it was a stone to hurl at the head of other philosophers—that is to say, persons with whose opinions he did not happen to agree. Of Buckle's almost childish manner of dealing out dogmatic estimates of other men examples enough may be found by any one who chooses to peruse Mr. Huth's pages. Two will suffice as specimens of his manner. Of Bentham he says:

"Though Bentham was one of the most eminent thinkers this or any other country has ever possessed, he was so unversed in the *art* of life (as distinguished from the *science*) that if he had possessed the requisite power he would have inflicted more misery upon England than has ever been inflicted on it by any single man."

Now, the curiosity of this estimate is not only its offhand dogmatism, but the absolute want of any critical light thrown by it on the character of the utilitarian philosopher. Probably neither Bagehot nor Matthew Arnold thinks so highly of Bentham as did Buckle, but could any one conceive either of these writers sketching the character of an eminent man in lines so ill-drawn as not even to present a decent caricature? Take, again, the letter in which Buckle compares himself and Mill:

"Once you asked me how I rated myself in comparison with Mill. I now certainly fancy that I can see things which Mill does not; but I believe that on the whole he is a greater man than I am, and will leave a greater name behind him. This is egotistical, but I am only so to those I care for; and my letters are intended to be sacredly private to you and your husband."

Of the egotism, it is true, little need be said; though when we find Buckle referring "naïvely" to his own "intellectual splendor," we may

be allowed to doubt whether it was only to friends that his self-assertion sometimes took the form of egotism. What is really noteworthy is the intellectual simplicity of measuring one man's greatness against another's. Even those who are not philosophers generally learn that this kind of measurement is utterly worthless, and should be left to children. A critic may also remark that Buckle really throws no light whatever on the genius of the man whom he admired beyond all other living authors, and further attributes to himself just that kind of insight which even admirers would probably admit not to be his strong point.

Discernment of character is, it may perhaps be said, not of necessity the *forte* of a profound thinker. Let Buckle's acumen, then, be judged by his utterances on speculative topics. On being told that Catholicism was making progress in America, he remarked:

"It must do so, for what has it to contend against there? Only Protestantism, which is inconsistency itself. I, too, was brought up a Protestant, and was taught to regard my private judgment as my birthright, of which no one could rob me. But when, in making use of my private judgment, I was led to reject Christianity, an outcry was at once raised against me for exercising this very undoubted right."

Of all the common and unsatisfactory platitudes the dogma that in religion you must believe everything or nothing is the commonest; yet Buckle propounds it as if it were at once a startling and undoubted truth. That you may have a "right" (though the term is not an apt one) to use your private judgment, and yet be responsible for the result of your using it, seems to be to many persons so hard a doctrine that a man more discerning than Buckle might be pardoned for overlooking the speculative difficulties involved in Buckle's complaint of his being blamed for the result of using his right. But Buckle knew something of history, and he ought to have known that Protestantism has, as a matter of fact, been a so much more efficient opponent of Popery than has what is called free thought, that writers such as Quinet have regretted that the Revolutionists did not establish Protestantism in France.

"The emotions," again writes Buckle, "are as much part of us as the understanding. They are as truthful, they are as likely to be right." This sentiment is certain to meet with the approval of readers who feel with Mrs. Huth that it is pleasing to think "that there were two Buckles —one cold and unfeeling as fate, . . . the other capable of feeling every vibration of a little child's heart"; or, in other words, that Buckle is to be admired because he was at once "so intellectual" and "so sentimental." But critics who try to see things as they are, cannot fail to perceive that this union without combination of intellectualism and sentimentalism is at once one of the commonest phenomena of the day, and one of the very surest signs that the person in whom it is found is not a man of commanding powers. The confusion of the undoubted fact that the emotions are part of human nature, with that most doubtful inference that therefore they are as likely to guide us to truth as is reason, is constantly leading to a misuse both of the intellect and of the heart. To fall into this confusion is no doubt the way to gain a certain amount of popular applause; but the man who falls into it gives the most certain proof that he has no claim to the position of a great thinker, and has not attained that unity of mental belief and moral feeling which is the very stamp of a strong character.

THE BURMESE BUDDHA.*

NOT the least curious of the signs of the times in which we live, considered at any rate from a religious standpoint, is to be found in the fact stated by the late Sir M. Coomára Swámy, that "the name of Gotama Buddha rings through the salons of London, Paris, Berlin, and Boston" ('Sutta Nipáta,' Introduction, p. ix.) Not merely is the critical student of the science of religion enraptured by his teachings, not only educated men, but even "the fair women of the West are evincing a desire to fathom the secrets of the system propounded by the Indian Prince-Sage." And this is all true. The name of Buddha or Gaudama was scarcely known to the world—that is, the Western world—a few years since, insomuch that the late Rev. Spence Hardy in the introduction to his work on 'Eastern Monachism' complained that it could be found in no encyclopædia or work of reference at the time he wrote; whereas now on every hand the name of this great founder of the Religion of the East, this Light of Asia, is the subject of very general conversation; and his religious system the wonder, if not the admiration, of all thoughtful people. It is well for us, therefore, to have reliable information about him and his teachings. The work before us affords all that is wanted in these particulars. It is written by one diametrically opposed to Buddhism as a system, by a missionary bishop, in fact, whose object in Burmah is to make the Burmese Christians; and who therefore cannot be supposed to be prejudiced in favor of the system he is wishful to overthrow; by one, moreover, who from his long residence in the country, his thorough acquaintance with its language, and his familiar intercourse with the people, is manifestly competent for the task he has undertaken; but, above all, by one who seems to possess the courage of his convictions and is not afraid to exhibit for the consideration of his readers the principles of Buddhism as he estimates them, "regardless of their merits or demerits." We do not wonder then that the book has reached a third edition, and Messrs. Trübner have done a good work in bringing it before the public in its present form as a portion of their "Oriental Series."

The great secret of the original success of Buddhism, and of its persistent continuance, is that it strikes at the very root of idolatry. It did not go so far as Islam, indeed, in this particular: it was not violently iconoclastic; but it did more, it appealed to the reason of men, it tried to persuade them that whatever admits of "birth and death"—in other words, "the creature" as opposed to "the Creator" or "the Origin"—is not worthy of supreme worship, is not a fit object for the satisfaction of the eternal hope of the human race. The truth of this must be plain to every one who looks into the system. Gotama Buddha distinctly avowed that all the gods worshipped by his contemporaries were insufficient for our human wants, because they were *created things and would die.* The word "created," indeed, may be objected to, but it amounts to the same thing; Buddha declared that these gods all came within the limits of *Játi* and *Maranam—i.e.*, birth and death—and were, therefore, not supremely divine, or really gods, to be spiritually worshipped. And so he boldly advanced up the ladder leading to heaven, and passed through the "world of desire," the "world of form," and "the world in which there is no visible form"; and there, above all these, he found his absolute existence, which he called Nirvâna—a condition in which, according to the old Vaidik idea, "*That* breathed breathlessly."

That this is the meaning of the Buddhist "Nirvâna" cannot be questioned by one acquainted with the whole development of the system. To say that there is no mention of "an immutable existence" or a "supreme state of being beyond the visible and the phenomenal" in the Pâli books, or those derived from the Pâli, and that therefore Nirvâna cannot be understood in this sense, is just as if one should say because there is no mention of a judgment to come, or of the immortality of the soul, in the books of Moses, that therefore these things are not realities or to be believed. The Pâli books of the South are undoubtedly primitive, but they contain nothing of the developed meaning of the obscure terms used in them, and therefore are insufficient for a full and intelligent interpretation of the system derived from the doctrines they teach. And hence we think our author has done well in speaking of the Gaudama, whose life he has written, as "the Buddha of the Burmese"; for undoubtedly no such assertion as the following—"the pretended Saviour (*i.e.*, Buddha), after having taught man the way to deliver himself from the tyranny of his passions, leads him after all into the bottomless gulf of a total annihilation"—could be proved to belong to any but the Southern school of Buddhism; and this school, although primitive and sufficient for practical religion, is confessedly inadequate for the interpretation of terms which of their very nature required for their explanation the process of a religious development. Hence, in the Northern division of the Buddhist Church, which includes in it by far the largest proportion of the 300,000,000 of our fellow-men of whom our author speaks, the teaching of Gotama respecting Nirvâna is found to be that, at first, it was exhibited as a condition of perfect rest and release from sorrow, and that after passing through a period of scholastic refinement, during which its meaning was subtilized into a condition of nonentity, it at last, in the full growth of the system, was accepted as implying a state of absolute Being, a condition of "breathless breathing," the essence of which was *joy, purity, personality* (in the sense of *true* existence), and *eternity.*

That this is the legitimate outcome of ages of disputation on the character of this ultimate good of the Buddhists we confidently affirm in opposition to the theory propounded by our author of "an abyss of almost unfathomable darkness." We wish to repeat what we take to be an unanswerable argument against this "abyss-theory"—that Gotama Buddha, in seeking his standpoint, did not go *down* the scale of existences, but went *up*, and passed through those heavenly places (mansions, *bhuva-*

* 'Life or Legend of Gaudama, the Buddha of the Burmese. By the Right Reverend P. Bigandet, Bishop of Ramatha, Vicar-Apostolic of Ava and Pegu.' In 2 vols. Third edition. London: Trübner & Co. 1880.

nas) believed in by his contemporaries; and higher than them all, in that place where there is neither beginning of days nor end of life (*τὸ ἀγέννητον καὶ τὸ ἀθάνατον*). There it was we find he placed his Nirvâna, and to that he directed the attention of his disciples. We may only add, what seems to be so much forgotten by our Western students, that the teaching of Buddha with respect to the attainment of this condition was not that the lower grades of life were fictions, but that we must, each of us, toil on through almost endless varieties of births, and consequent deaths, till at last, through the perfection of Karma, the totality of our actions and conduct, we may cast off the power of "the master-builder" and emerge, as the snake from its skin, into the light of unconditioned Being.

Is there not incontestably something very grand in this scheme of the Prince-Sage? Does the belief tend to make a man at all the less hopeful and earnest in life? We have to bear up, it is true, through repeated scenes of sorrow and suffering; but the result is with ourselves. We are daily making for ourselves another tabernacle, which we must occupy, it may be in heaven as an angel, or on earth as a mortal, or under the earth as a suffering ghost; but yet out of all this there is perpetually being fashioned not only a possibility, but a *certainty*, of eventual emancipation, when all things shall be put down under the feet of the great Architect, and he shall be "all and in all." We repeat, this is not despair; it is not even an irrational hope. It is the secret of the history of unnumbered millions of our fellow-men who have built up on it not altogether unlovely lives.

Another principle involved in the consideration of the existence of Buddhism is this cardinal one, that it teaches the necessity of a Saviour. Our author agrees with us here at least; he says: "It may be affirmed in favor of Buddhism that no philosophico-religious system has ever upheld, to an equal degree, the notions of a Saviour and Deliverer, and the necessity of his mission for procuring the salvation, in a Buddhist sense, of man." Now, whatever this "Buddhist sense" may or may not be, the idea still remains of a Saviour from evil. The one evil pointed out by the teacher was that which occupied the front place in all Eastern speculation—viz., the existence of sorrow, pain, and death. The remarkable feature, therefore, in this system is that it provides deliverance or salvation from this evil for all the world. And more than this, it promises to provide rest and peace. Of course, as Mr. James D'Alwis labored to show, these words rest and peace must also be understood in "a Buddhist sense"; but for our part we are contented to accept them in a human sense; and we contend that the promise of deliverance from human woe and the burden of sorrow which rests on us all is acceptable news, and must give life and virtue to the religious teaching in which it is found. It is strange that the very title of the book we are reviewing amounts to just this: "the joyful utterance of the Tathâgata"; and that which makes the utterance or praises of this promised deliverer joyful is that he came to declare liberty and freedom, safety and release; and these things are always acceptable and joyous in the ears of the care-worn and desolate.

The method of Buddha's teaching was principally by parable or comparisons. From this sprang the familiar Jâtakas, or "Dzats," of which several are given by our author at the end of his work. These "Dzats" are stories about the former lives or existences of persons who came within the rôle of Buddha's observation. The principle of "repeated births" being allowed, it would be easy to refer such persons to any former condition of life suited to the occasion. This, perhaps, is the most interesting part of Buddha's method of instruction, while it is the most questionable (as far as its morality is concerned). It was undoubtedly the origin of the Christian "gesta" or tales of the Middle Ages. Thus, in the 'Gesta Romanorum' we have the exact parallel of the Buddhist "Jâtakas." For instance, Buddha tells a story of a pious ascetic who had been formerly a hare, who on account of his self-denial was canonized as the "Hare in the Moon," and in the 'Gesta' we have a succession of similar tales. Thus, only to take one example, in the fifty-sixth story of the second volume (Hotten's edition), referring to "vigilance in our calling," we are told how a thief tried to get into a house to steal, and how the master, knowing the danger, related aloud to his wife a story of himself when he was a thief, and in this way disconcerted the robber, who heard him reciting his experience; and the application of the story comes in just like the end of a Jâtaka: "My beloved, the thief is the devil, the house is the human heart, the man is a good prelate, and his wife is the Church." It was precisely in this way that Buddha taught the people, and we are told that nightly in Ceylon, during the season called "Wass," the priests still recite these tales, with their applications, to the assembled people, who listen to them all night through, chewing their betel-nut and chunam, with undiminished attention.

No doubt the monastic system adopted by Buddha also accounts for his early success as a teacher. His followers are mostly under vows to observe poverty, chastity, and obedience; and, strange to say, one of their vows also prohibits the use of stimulating drinks, as well as flesh-meat. Thus was avoided the temptation to luxury which invaded the monastic establishments of Christendom, and which, more than anything else, led to their downfall. There were no "jovial crews," at any rate, in Buddhist fraternities, but then they lacked the life-giving stimulus of "labor," which St. Francis made the secret of his system ("otiositas inimica animæ"); and so these Buddhist monasteries, though not the scenes of luxurious indulgence, have mostly become mere centres for idleness and useless repetition of mechanical prayer.

Altogether, it is well worth the time of any one desirous of information on the subject of Buddhism to read through these two volumes of Bishop Bigandet's. We have in them a trustworthy history of the founder of a complicated religious system; and more than that: we have brought under our notice such remarkable coincidences between the Eastern and Western forms of faith as must startle the most indifferent into enquiry, and will eventually, we doubt not, cause this subject to become the leading topic of the day.

The History and Traditions of Marblehead. By Samuel Roads, jr. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1880. 8vo, pp. xviii.-423.)—The first settlers of Marblehead came from the islands of Guernsey and Jersey and from the west of England in the year 1629, and were already a rough and illiterate race of seafaring men. Nearly a hundred years later (1714) a new minister coming among them was unable to find in the place twenty families "that, upon the best examination, could stand upon their own legs, and they were generally as rude, swearing, drunken, and fighting a crew as they were poor." They had a dialect of their own which was often unintelligible to strangers, and has left traces of itself to this day; for example, "in speaking of the ceiling of a room many of the older people still call it the *planchment*." Their pronunciation of proper names was thoroughly unlettered, and Mr. Roads quotes from the 'Life of Judge Story' what befell a clerk of the Circuit Court in Boston who called a Marblehead witness named Michael Treffery, but could not make him take the stand until the judge (recognizing a townsman) bade him "Call Mike Trevye." These and other peculiarities would have had a much shorter lease if, as was first proposed in 1636, the College had been established in Marblehead. Rarely in the early days did a youth go up thence to Cambridge; the people generally were "inclined to give their children common learning, though scholars rise but thin amongst them." Two Harvard graduates, however, natives of the town, Elbridge Gerry (born, by the way, not in 1774, as on p. 246, but in 1744) and Joseph Story, made their mark in national politics and jurisprudence. The third great name is that of John Glover, a native of Salem, indeed, but reared in Marblehead, where he owed little to book-learning. He commanded after Bunker Hill one of those "amphibious regiments of Marblehead fishermen" whose lineal successors "on the outbreak of the Rebellion were the first to leave home, the first to arrive in Boston, and subsequently . . . the first to leave the yard of the Naval Academy at Annapolis to repair and relay the track" from Annapolis Junction to Washington, and "to board *Old Ironsides*" and take her out of dock, finally manning her for the voyage to New York.

A less enviable priority belongs to Marblehead in the case of the *Desire*, the third ship built in the colony, which presently sailed to the West Indies and brought back to Boston the first negro slaves ever imported into Massachusetts—a fact on which Mr. George H. Moore lays sufficient stress in his 'History of Slavery in Massachusetts.' In the Revolution and in the war of 1812 the skippers of Marblehead, commanding privateers or Government vessels, greatly distinguished themselves, and Captain Manly is alleged in the former struggle to have been the first to have the British flag struck to him. The embargo was endured with a fidelity worthy of the stanch Jeffersonian Republicanism of that day. The fishing interest survived it, but succumbed to the great gale of Sept. 19, 1846, and in 1879 but one vessel went from Marblehead to the Grand Banks. Bay-fishing has succeeded the more perilous mode, and is prosperous. It used to be said that there was no room in Marblehead "to confound the fisherman with the husbandman, and to spoil both, as they do in some places." In 1825, however, there sprang up a third industry, the making of shoes, which has done more to lift the town out of poverty and stagnation than anything else, not excepting

the former expedient of a lottery. Politically no change except for the worse has overtaken the inhabitants; Butler, on the Greenback-Labor platform, carried with him the great majority of shoemakers and fishermen. The latest transformation of Marblehead into a fashionable summer resort commends itself to all who have ever viewed its incomparable scenery.

Mr. Roads's narrative is a sober one, and has been anticipated in the two or three incidents which lend picturesqueness to the history of Marblehead. Such are the romance of Sir Harry Frankland and his humble bride Agnes Surriage, and the poetically embalmed Skipper Ireson's ride. In regard to the latter episode Mr. Roads maintains, contrary to Whittier, that no women took part in the tarring and feathering, or for that matter in the dragging through the town. Some progress had been made since their great-grandmothers barbarously murdered two Indian captives during King Philip's war. Ireson's innocence, too, is asserted in conformity with current belief; but while pride might have kept his lips sealed during the outrage upon his person, it seems strange that the truth should not immediately afterwards have been made clear. We say this from no desire to save the poem, which has an impersonal merit of its own. Mr. Roads is perhaps too good a Democrat to wish to linger over unpleasant reminiscences involving his own party. Still, we think he should have mentioned and explained Gerrymandering—the one permanent Marblehead contribution to "Americanisms." We wish, also, his index had been not only full but adequate. His heliotype and other illustrations are most judicious, and the volume is beautifully printed.

On Health and Occupation. By Benjamin Ward Richardson, M.D., F.R.S. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879. 16mo, pp. 127.)—This little manual is divided into four parts, as follows: 1. A classification of the people of England and Wales according to their occupations; 2 and 3. Injuries to health and life that result from these various occupations; 4. "Practical methods by which the life of the different classes of workers may be rendered healthier and longer." Essentially, however, the book consists of two parts: a summary of the Registrar-General's returns on the British census of 1871 and Dr. Richardson's comments on them. The two, as we shall indicate, are of different orders of value.

Dr. Farr classifies the English and Welsh community, numbering 22,712,266 persons, as follows: 1. The professional class, 684,102 men and women (this includes the governing order, the army, teachers, and artists of all sorts, doctors, lawyers, clergymen, and druggists); 2. Domestics, numbering 5,905,171, mostly women; 3. Commercial men and women; 4. Farmers and agriculturists of all kinds, including herdsmen, and numbering 1,657,138; 5. Industrial men and women, 5,137,725 in number, of whom about thirty per cent. are women; this, the largest class of workers, includes the many kinds of manufacturing, mining, and automatic labor. Dr. Farr's sixth class, an oddly miscellaneous one, numbers 8,512,706, of which about forty-six per cent. are females; it includes children, persons of indefinite, unproductive, and disreputable occupations, and persons living entirely upon their income; this latter order numbers only 168,195 as against more than two millions of the same order reported by the French census of 1876 (see *Nation*, Feb. 27, 1879). The English are thus nearly all workers; but the supreme praiseworthiness of labor, as announced by Carlyle and other toilers, is hardly borne out by the Registrar-General's enquiries into its effects upon the health and longevity of workingmen. In his tables of longevity, clergymen and barristers head the list; "their work, arduous as it may be, is not work that kills." Catholic priests, however, are short-lived. Among the agricultural classes health and longevity are above the mean; among the commercial classes great differences in this respect are noted. Thus, grocers, booksellers, and wheelwrights surpass the average longevity; bookbinders, printers, carvers and gilders, drapers, carmen, carriers, and draymen fall far below it. The large majority of the great industrial class are short-lived, while persons of independent means, as a rule, reach length of years.

These conclusions are not new, but Dr. Farr's elaborate studies of the relation of health to occupation have contributed much that is new to their support, and they are briefly summarized in this little manual. It is when we turn from Dr. Farr's researches to Dr. Richardson's hygienic teachings that we find a difference between the authority of the two voices. Dr. Richardson is fond of generalizing, and he who generalizes commonly forgets a great many facts. Thus, he tells us that "The clothing of persons who are engaged at any kind of work should never be heavy, should always be warm" (p. 110). As to food, "An adult man or woman ought never to take more than thirty ounces of mixed solid food in the day." As to drink, "The one and only natural fluid, water, is all-sufficient really for every purpose." Tea and coffee, the "care-breakers," in Von Bibra's expressive phrase, for many millions of working men and women, Dr. Richardson dismisses (again with some pleonasm) in these terms: "I believe that both these drinks are superseded, in regard to usefulness of action, by cocoa and chocolate," though once a day they may be used moderately "without harm" (p. 104). Dr. Richardson is, in short, an uncompromising total abstainer, tobacco in every form and all of the alcoholic stimulants coming under his ban. One may, of course, fairly disapprove of all stimulants, but Dr. Richardson's reasons for disapproval are no longer good ones. Quoting the physiological doctrine of thirty years ago, he tells us that the effects of ale, wine, and the other alcoholic stimulants are followed by "further exhaustion than has been produced by work itself, and soon a desire for more of the supposed artificial aid." Dr. Francis Anstie pointed out (in his 'Stimulants and Narcotics,' 1864, p. 156) that this belief is a survival of the vitalistic ideas. "It is our old acquaintance the Archæus, whose exhaustion, after his violent efforts in resentment of the goadings which he has endured, is represented in modern phraseology by the term 'depressive inaction.'" *Quis docebit doctores?* The reader who has followed recent enquiries upon this subject need not be reminded that this doctrine of depressive reaction, still popular with temperance reformers in England and America, is both untenable and exploded. For English readers Dr. Anstie was the first to assail it effectively, but since his researches the restatement of the question has gone farther than he would have anticipated. In 1876 Dr. C. Binz, of Bonn, for instance, announced that pure alcohol, taken in moderate quantity—*i.e.*, not exceeding an ounce and a half—is entirely consumed in the system, producing some of the effects of a rapidly digestible food; that it reappears, under the conditions named, in none of the secretions, and leaves no trace whatever upon the breath, the smell so frequently observable after potations being not the smell of alcohol but of fusel-oil. Conclusions like these are of course open to debate, but in any case some recognition of them, and of similar experimental researches recently made, might be looked for in an argument professedly physiological and made by a physician speaking as with authority. In this manual, however, as in a subsequent contribution to the *Contemporary Review* on the alcohol question, Dr. Richardson does not show such an intimate familiarity as we could wish with researches which run counter to his own views. His physiology will appeal to the "cock-sure" teetotaler, but scarcely, one would fear, to those who care to know, in physiology as in literature, "the best that is thought and said" on the subject in hand.

The Younger Edda, also called Snorre's Edda, or the Prose Edda. An English version of the Foreword; the Fooling of Gylfe, the Afterword; Brage's Talk, the Afterword to Brage's Talk, and the Important Passages in the Poetical Diction (Skaldskaparmàl). With an Introduction, Notes, Vocabulary, and Index. By Rasmus B. Anderson, Professor of the Scandinavian Languages in the University of Wisconsin, etc. (Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1880.)—Professor Anderson's translation of 'Snorre's Edda' appears very opportunely at a time when the interest in Northern mythology has been freshly stimulated by the discoveries of Professor Sophus Bugge and Dr. Bang. The much-expected book by the former, which is to give the death-blow to Teutonic pride, will undoubtedly discredit several of Professor Anderson's statements and postulates in his preface and notes, without, however, seriously interfering with the usefulness of his book. Whether the Northern myths are indigenous, as we formerly believed, or are directly derived from Greek and Roman sources, as we may henceforth be required to believe, they will always remain important historical documents, of which the testimony cannot be disregarded. If they are robbed of part of their dignity, being convicted, as it were, of a confirmed vagabondism, they are for all that an interesting company of vagrants, revealing by their structure and complexion, by their attempts at adaptation to the physical and moral climate of the North, traces of an intellectual evolution which, if properly studied, cannot fail to yield important results. Professor Anderson, unfortunately, in his 'Norse Mythology' took the very untenable ground that the Asa faith was essentially pure and noble, and in all respects superior to the cheerfully immoral paganism of Southern Europe. We see in the present volume certain vague indications that he still adheres to this patriotic belief. Having observed, however, with what painstaking devotion and care he has pursued his Icelandic studies, and seeing in each new book from his pen evidences of a sounder and more critical scholarship, we cannot help be-

lieving that he will in time discover the injury which he does to himself by allowing his national prejudice to influence his judgment.

The Younger or Snorre's Edda, from which Professor Anderson here presents us with a series of judiciously-chosen extracts, contains a conglomeration of half-narrative, half-didactic fragments accidentally grouped under the above title. The story of the origin of this singular collection, and the various conjectures which have been advanced in regard to its character and literary worth, are ably discussed; the translation is clear and vivid, and a full vocabulary and index complete the equipment of the book as a valuable work of reference. We are not prepared to say, however, that the translator's uniform preference for archaic words is wholly commendable, although we are well aware that the English translators of the Sagas, and notably Dr. Dasent, Eirikr Magnusson, and William Morris, have set the example in this direction. The English version of the 'Völsunga Saga,' for instance, by the two last-named scholars, will require yet another translator to reduce it to a language intelligible to others than professional philologists. Professor Anderson, to be sure, does not go to the same lengths, but he has obviously a relish for the tinge which an occasional archaism imparts to an otherwise colorless text.

All the portions of the 'Younger Edda' that would be likely to interest the general reader are to be found in the present translation. We notice that Professor Anderson has excluded that very curious portion of the Skaldskaparmàl which relates to the rules of Icelandic prosody, and has reproduced in English merely the narrative portions. The Foreword, which is characterized by a certain naïve pretentiousness, not on the translator's but on the anonymous author's part, exhibits most vividly the state of intellectual obfuscation that must have prevailed in the North during the two centuries immediately succeeding the introduction of Christianity. Hebrew, Christian, and Græco-Roman myths, interspersed with distorted snatches of history, rush in a wild whirl through the brain of the unhappy scribe. Zoroaster, Noah, Odin, Saturn, Priam, Thor, and Jupiter are to him all equally real and important, and he even relates concerning Zoroaster (who, according to him, was one of the principal personages at the building of the Tower of Babel) that "he laughed before he wept, when he was born." His assumption of a judicial attitude toward all these mythical and semi-mythical personages is sometimes amusing to observe, and his attempts to grope his way through the chronological labyrinth into which he has introduced himself and his reader are truly pathetic. It would be a matter of great interest (and one to which Bugge and his disciples must now undoubtedly turn their attention) to discover exactly what books were accessible to an Icelandic scholar of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. When that is known we shall soon be able to trace the historical and religious vagaries of the 'Younger Edda' to their proper sources.

In the Gylfaginning, or Fooling of Gylfe, which is the most important portion of the book, the gods give King Gylfe an account of the creation of the world and the progressive stages of its mythical history until the day of its destruction. In the Bragaroedur, which is poetically, perhaps, superior to the Gylfaginning, the god Brage relates two myths of the abduction of Idun and the origin of poetry.

*** Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Carter (Dr. R. B.), Eyesight: Good and Bad	(P. Blakiston)	$1 50
Dawkins (Prof. W. B.), Early Man in Britain	(Macmillan & Co.)	6 50
De Kay (C.), Hesperus and Other Poems	(Chas. Scribner's Sons)	1 50
Ewald (Prof. H.), Antiquities of Israel	(A. D. F. Randolph & Co.)	
Hardy (T.), Fellow-Townsmen: a Tale, swd	(Harper & Bros.)	20
Harland (Marion), Loiterings in Pleasant Paths	(Chas. Scribner's Sons)	1 75
Hebrew Migration from Egypt	(Trübner & Co.)	
Heermans (J.), Laws of Success in Life	(John Heermans)	1 00
Jones (C. H.), Short Life of Charles Dickens	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Laffan (May), Christy Carew: a Tale	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 00
Little Mountain Princess: a Tale, swd	(A. K. Loring)	50
Lupton (Prof. N. T.), Elementary Principles of Scientific Agriculture	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Macdonald (Rev. J. M.), Life and Writings of St. John	(Chas. Scribner's Sons)	3 00
Packard (Dr. J. H.), Sea-Air and Sea-Bathing	(P. Blakiston)	50
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 13, 1880.

The Week.

AT this writing it seems as if the break-up of the third-term combination in Pennsylvania, New York, and Illinois made the prospects of the ex-President hopeless, and would lead his three backers, or "syndicate," as they are now called—Messrs. Cameron, Conkling, and Logan—to withdraw him from the contest. Should they not do so, it would seem to indicate that he himself with his accustomed firmness will not allow himself to be withdrawn, but is determined to try and save the American people as long as there is a ghost of a chance, and at any cost of personal dignity. As we remarked a fortnight ago, "the strength" which is leaving him seems to go to Blaine, who is undoubtedly just now the candidate with the best chance, as the party seems to insist on having a stained candidate for this once. The uncertainties of conventions are, however, proverbial, and there is still a fair likelihood that Sherman, Washburne, Edmunds, or Fish may come to the front.

The Chicago and Cook County (Illinois) primaries on Saturday resulted in a decisive and mortifying defeat of the Machine—the third-termers securing only 58 out of 191 delegates. The Washburne men, alone, mustered 90 delegates, and the supporters of Blaine returned upwards of 50. The Convention met on Monday, and before any business had been transacted beyond the election of a presiding officer the third-term faction "bolted," leaving their credentials in the hands of the regular Convention, and, under the leadership of Messrs. Emery Storrs and Leonard Swett, marched off, bag and baggage, to the Palmer House, where they organized a convention of their own and appointed 92 Grant delegates to the State Convention. The regulars appointed 54 Washburne and 38 Blaine delegates.

This ominous transaction, pointing to a possible bolt at Springfield on the following Wednesday, has greatly disturbed the minds of the Grant managers elsewhere. The organ of the Machine in Illinois excuses the bolt upon the ground that it was the purpose of the majority to appoint all the Cook County delegates to the State Convention instead of giving the third-termers their share—in other words, to do the very thing which the Grant managers have done in every county and State where they had a majority. Perhaps all that it is safe to say at this distance is that the third-term partisans had put themselves in the wrong even on the low plane of machine politics. The *Tribune's* Chicago correspondent says that the candidates for State and local officers are profoundly agitated by the bolt, and that they are offering the support of unpledged country delegations to the regular delegates from Cook County as the only way to avert disaster in November. The spectacle of General Grant, who has twice had the unanimous support of his party, now contending fiercely for a handful of delegates in the chief city of Illinois, and losing them, adds fresh pertinence to the enquiry what were those circumstances, referred to in his letter to General Harry White, which would alone make it an imperative duty for him to accept a third nomination?

It has required a good deal of both ingenuity and moral courage to figure statistical comfort for the third-term supporters out of the conventions held last week in Tennessee, Wisconsin, Mississippi, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Maryland, and Delaware, but the *Times* has, as usual lately, made a very fair showing. No State instructed for Grant, but it seems that there was a great deal of Grant feeling everywhere, and that Blaine, Sherman, and Washburne delegates are ready to go over to the ex-President as soon as they see how strong he really is. In Tennessee the convention divided on a test vote into 265 Grant and 255 anti-Grant men, but 18 out of the 24 delegates are claimed by the former. In Mississippi the result of obtaining half the delegation is a great and unexpected victory, as it appeared on the eve of the Convention that Sherman's agents had been at their disreputable work again and were confident of instructions for their chief; when his principal henchman, a colored man named Hill, found that this was hopeless, the *Times* reports that "his usually yellow face became green with rage." Wisconsin chose 9 Washburne, 7 Blaine, 3 Sherman, and 1 Grant delegate; the New Jersey delegation is almost solid for Blaine, and though the doughty Kilpatrick is of it, he is unhappily a Sherman man; but it is intimated that some of these may change their minds. In Maryland, for example, which was supposed to be first a Sherman and then a Blaine State, Grant won "an unqualified victory," inasmuch as Cresswell (who made an extraordinary speech) and his friends captured the temporary organization, and, despite the circumstance that the delegation was requested to vote and work for Blaine, 10 of its 16 members are claimed for Grant. Delaware for some reason is conceded to Blaine, and so is New Hampshire without any qualification except calling attention to the fact that the delegation was not formally instructed and that Grant was "mentioned in the platform." He was "mentioned" in the following heartless manner, however, we feel bound to explain: "We fervently wish that the afternoon of his remarkable life may be made serene by exemption from strife," etc. The Ohio Democrats last week instructed for Thurman.

The extraordinary, and indeed unprecedented, vigor and bitterness of the conflict between the friends of the various Republican Presidential candidates, before the meeting of the convention, promises to make the "wheeling into line" of those newspapers which have opposed the man who gets the nomination a performance of great difficulty, and in some cases of considerable comicality. The performances of the New York *Times*, for instance, during the months of July and August in case Sherman or Blaine is nominated, will be worth going some distance to see. The *Tribune* will have also to display wonderful agility in "wheeling" in case Grant is nominated, while *Harper's Weekly*, at least on the pictorial side, will really have to go through some secret process of preparation before recommending Blaine to the American people for the Chief Magistracy. We commend "wheeling" to the ministers as a good pulpit subject. We know of no question more interesting just now than the morality of passing five months in lauding and declaring worthy of the highest place in popular confidence a man whom during the previous five months you have been describing as a tricky rascal. Is there room in the Christian system for this sacrifice of editors to the exigencies of practical politics?

A new use for the Strong Man has been revealed during the week by Senator Paddock, of Nebraska. He approaches the subject very solemnly in a letter to the Omaha *Republican*, saying he has "counted the cost" of what he is about to declare, which is that "the best interests of the whole country—and of our young State particularly—demand the nomination and election to the Presidency of U. S. Grant." Mr. Paddock makes no allusion to the awful condition of the South or the dangers of the electoral count, but says "no public man now living outside Nebraska knows our State and people so well as does General Grant," who has always made a point of stopping among them on his way West, to note their progress and give them "words of cheer." While President, "under no conceivable circumstances did it seem possible for him to put a slight upon our young State or upon her representatives," and the latter "received equal consideration with the highest and strongest." In fact, "with Grant, the weakest State—because it needs to be fostered—always receives the greatest encouragement. Ne-

braska, to my certain knowledge, more than once was protected, in interests most vital to her, against assaults from without, through his powerful intervention." The dangers to which timid young States are exposed from the hardened mob of older ones have not heretofore attracted much attention, but if real, they certainly call for as courteous and robust a guardian of the victims of our Federal system as General Grant appears to have been.

Colonel Frederick Grant, the ex-President's son, has, in a recently-reported conversation, put the third-term movement on ground where none of the arguments hitherto directed against it can reach it. He does not say that it is called for by the condition of the South, or the wickedness of the Democrats, or by the popular dislike of the "uncertainties of government," or by anything whatever in the actual condition of the country. What he says is that an emergency may arise hereafter when the American people will want a third term badly, but will be prevented from resorting to it by what Colonel Frederick considers their present "superstitious" reverence for the second-term precedent. He therefore reports that "his father says" that in order to deliver the people at once from this degrading yoke he is willing to serve a third term himself. It thus appears that the Grant family are determined to save the American nation from something and somehow—if not from the Brigadiers, from their own idle fears and vain imaginings. Thousands will bless the Colonel for this soothing communication.

The *Times*, in its diligent pursuit of Mr. Sherman *quâ* Presidential candidate, printed last week a budget of thirty letters written by D. N. Comingore, of Cincinnati, to Robert C. Brown, deceased, the Republican candidate for Sheriff of New York at the last election. From these it appears that Comingore secured in 1877 a contract for performing the labor at the Public Store in this city, in which Brown was put forward as the contractor, and, under an agreement given by the *Times*, did all the work and divided the profits with Comingore; that the latter made ineffectual efforts to secure other contracts, still in Brown's name, in connection with the Custom-house; that Colonel Moulton, Mr. Sherman's brother-in-law, was sent on to Washington or kept there whenever a fresh attempt was contemplated, and that Comingore desired his (Moulton's) name to be concealed or to be mentioned only as Brown's attorney. Comingore also thought opposition might be baffled if Brown would let it be understood that he was a "Conkling man," and his object in regard to a contract which he failed to secure he pleasantly expressed in this fashion: "What we want is to get the contract firmly fixed, then run it for a month or two to satisfy the Department; afterwards run it to make all the money we can out of it." The correspondence closes with the date of December 2, 1879. The *Times's* preliminary narrative, based chiefly upon the letters, pointedly involved Moulton in the division of the spoils, and left the Secretary of the Treasury under suspicion of improper favoritism to members of his own family.

This "exposure" naturally roused some ill feeling both in the breasts of Secretary Sherman and the brother-in-law, Colonel Moulton, and they replied in acrimonious terms. The Secretary declared that the *Times's* hostility to him was due to the difficulty it experienced in getting information from the Department, and likewise to a firm refusal on the part of the Custom-house any longer to permit the free passage of baggage belonging to the proprietor of the *Times*. This puts the controversy on a very low plane, and naturally suggests the enquiry why the proprietor of the *Times* was ever allowed to get his baggage through duty free. Colonel Moulton was more prolix in his defence than the Secretary, probably having more time on his hands, and, according to the *Times*, it consisted of "a rabid rigmarole of abuse" and "a torrent of incoherent scurrility," and the *Times* suggests that it is thus that "a rogue" always relieves his feelings. Turning to the Colonel's letter, we find that he alleges in substance that the editor of the *Times* is a censorious, fraudulent, hypocritical, and conceited liar, who makes a business of "obtaining and publishing private correspondence"; that the Colonel was simply the attorney-at-law of one of the contractors; that the editor of the *Times* is a blackmailer, and has stolen private letters; that in insinuating that the Secretary was interested in the contract he "hung one lie on another" in a reckless manner, and also "sought refuge in falsehoods" to "save himself from ridicule." From this it can clearly be deduced that much unkind feeling exists between the *Times* and Secretary Sherman and Colonel Moulton, but we do not know of any other inference to which it lends much support.

There is yet nothing new or decisive from the experts who are examining the handwriting in the Whittaker case. But Whittaker himself has been indiscreet enough to furnish the correspondent of the *Herald* with a specimen of his handwriting, which that journal has had facsimiled and published along with the "note of warning" which Whittaker says he received before the late attack on him. The general resemblance of the handwriting is very striking; in fact, a cursory observer would pronounce both notes written by the same person. The differences in the formation of the letters in each are only discoverable on close examination, and the handwriting of the note of warning was of course almost certainly disguised. One of the questions before the experts is, whether it is not an imitation of Whittaker's writing by some one else. The newspapers may be said to have dropped the matter, but the *Tribune*, apparently preparing its readers for an adverse result, declared last week that even if it turns out that Cadet Whittaker "wrote the anonymous note and committed the mysterious outrage on himself," "that development" will not at all "affect the criticisms which have been made on the tone of West Point and the methods pursued in the present enquiry." We do not suppose that anything would affect much of this "criticism" in the sense of lowering its value—nothing can damage a barrel of garbage; but a demonstration that Whittaker was a "tricky coward" would unquestionably put those who avoided his society in a better position before the public.

The Democrats in Congress have actually in a Pennsylvania contested-election case voted to keep the Republican in the seat. It will be remembered, too, that Democratic members of the Committee of Investigation in South Carolina in 1876 reported against their own side. We cannot recall any similar cases of impartiality among Republicans, who will doubtless reply that when a Democrat votes against his own party he simply by a rare act of righteousness makes some amends for the hopeless depravity of the rest of his career, while a Republican in sticking constantly to his own side, or, as Thaddeus Stevens said, "voting for his own rascal," simply perseveres in right living.

The week witnessed a heavy decline in the prices of shares dealt in at the Stock Exchange. The fall ranged from 2 to 15¼ per cent.; and the lowest prices were from 5 to 44 per cent. below those current six weeks ago. It cannot be said that the break-down of the last week was caused by an active money market, for money was abundant at 4 to 6 per cent., and the banks increased their surplus reserve not far from $3,000,000. Nor can a falling-off in railroad earnings be given as the reason for it, for the earnings of the roads which publish their traffic-returns showed a gain during April of about 25 per cent., more than half of which can be safely counted as a gain in net earnings. The earnings of the thirty-six roads whose earnings for April are published were, during the first four months of the calendar year, $54,568,585, against $44,074,523 during the corresponding months of the year 1879. The real reason for the decline is that early in March, under the guidance of large speculators instrumental in the great rise of last year, the beginning of a general liquidation in stock-exchange accounts was forced, and has since been pressed vigorously. The selling movement has gained momentum as it has gone on, and has been morally aided by the liquidation going on in other speculations outside of Wall Street, like that in iron and almost every form of merchandise.

That the country has improved largely since the resumption of specie payments, is as evident as is the fact that speculation ran wild last year and carried prices up beyond reasonable limits. Whether the large decline thus far witnessed has brought them to their proper level, remains to be seen.

The attacks on the liberties of the Hanseatic cities, which late cable reports have ascribed to Prince Bismarck, turn out to have been economic measures calculated to force those cities into an accession to the Zollverein rather than an attempt to subvert their political semi-independence. Since the introduction of a protective tariff in Germany the existence of these free ports, with a large and active population largely imbued with free-trade tendencies, has become obnoxious to the Government, and for some time past their position has in different ways been made uncomfortable in order to make the final change that was had in view acceptable to them. Not long ago the lump sum which those cities are obliged to pay annually into the imperial treasury, in lieu of duties and internal taxes on goods consumed by them, was increased, to the great embarrassment of their municipal finances. It appears that the constitution guarantees commercial liberty only to the cities proper and to their outports, but not to the other territory belonging to them, and this fact seems to have been taken advantage of to include certain portions of that territory gradually within the customs lines. In the further prosecution of this policy Bismarck now proposes to annex to the Zollverein the Prussian city of Altona, which has hitherto shared the character of a free port with the neighboring city of Hamburg; and the question is raised of separating from the latter city the suburb that connects it with Altona, and of planting the customs line close to the gates of the old Hanse town.

That the last of these measures should create excitement among the sturdy burghers of Hamburg is not surprising; but so far the Government does not appear to have exceeded its constitutional powers, nor are we at all sure that Bismarck is pursuing a wrong policy when he tries to abolish old privileges, the value of which at this day has become very questionable. That their position as free ports was very advantageous to those cities, and even to their back-country as long as that country was politically and commercially divided, few will deny. But when these conditions ceased to exist free ports with any considerable population became an anomaly, which no other country would like to imitate. In fact, the Hanse towns have lost rather than gained by not having joined the Zollverein when Hanover and other contiguous states were admitted; their staying out has cut them off from a large share in the great industrial development of the interior of Germany during the past thirty years, and has limited their growth by confining their forces almost exclusively within the domain of external commerce. Hence it is not to be wondered at that the industrial classes in Hamburg, as well as in Bremen, are getting to be more and more in favor of the change; even the merchants no longer unanimously oppose it.

What seemed at the time one of the best pieces of luck that had befallen the Beaconsfield Ministry was the news received just before the dissolution of Parliament that the Indian budget showed a surplus which would be sufficient to meet the expenses of the Afghan war. This was a severe blow to the Liberal prophets, who had been making a great stir about what they considered the desperate condition of Indian finance, which they used as one of their strongest arguments against the invasion of Afghanistan. The appearance of the surplus, therefore, on the eve of the general election was so startling that people set it down as an illustration of the way in which Fortune at critical periods favored "Dizzy." The election was just over, however, when there came the startling announcement that there was no surplus after all, but a deficit of $20,000,000, or about the cost of the war, and that the mistake was due to the gross miscalculation of the military men as to the cost of transport and supplies; in other words, the forebodings of the Liberals have been fully justified. It would have been interesting to see the manner in which the Tories would have met this little mistake if they had remained in power, and the effect it would have had on their stolid parliamentary majority. Now it completes their discredit, and will probably reconcile thousands of their voters to their defeat. There could hardly be a better illustration of the extent to which they were, as their adversaries so often said, a "dangerous government." There was no business head in the concern, and all details were neglected in helping the head of the show to produce his startling effects. The news will probably make Lord Ripon's appointment to the Governor-Generalship seem less satisfactory than it did at first, as proving the need, which the *Economist* has much dwelt on, of a strong financier in the place.

We have some corrections to make in our recent account of the composition of the Cabinet. Lord Hartington is Secretary for India; Earl Granville for Foreign Affairs. Sir Charles Dilke has not, as was at first reported, a seat in the Cabinet; his wing of the party is represented there by Mr. Chamberlain solely, Sir Charles taking the Under-Secretaryship of Foreign Affairs, about the duties of which he is extraordinarily well informed. Sir William Harcourt has suffered what must be a mortifying defeat on seeking re-election at Oxford, but he has other chances or can wait for a vacancy.

Mr. Gladstone, in one of his speeches during the canvass, was irritated, by a report that the Emperor of Austria had spoken of him to Sir Henry Elliot as a "pestilent fellow," into a heated denunciation of Austria as the enemy of freedom and national aspiration everywhere, and particularly in the Balkan peninsula. This led to a denial by the Emperor of the use of any such language as that attributed to him, and to a vigorous protest from Count Karolyi, the Austrian Minister at London, against Mr. Gladstone's view of Austrian policy. The result is that Mr. Gladstone has had to make, as Premier, an apology for the piece of invective delivered on the stump, and to withdraw or modify greatly the account he gave of Austria's foreign policy. This has given that portion of the London press which supported the late Ministry, and which has been writhing under the result of the elections, an opportunity for relieving their feelings by an outburst of indignation over Gladstone's recklessness of language and over the humiliation inflicted on the country by his apology. They have been enabled to heighten the effect of their denunciations by Mr. Fawcett's having had to retract the charge which he recently made that the news of the Indian deficit had reached the Beaconsfield Ministry not only before the election, but immediately after the last debate in Parliament on Indian finance. Mr. Fawcett is the new Postmaster-General and has made Indian finance a specialty, so that it is peculiarly pleasant to be able to attack him as a reckless person and a slanderer. Lord Beaconsfield said in 1876 that Gladstone and others who were making the uproar over the Bulgarian massacres were as bad as, or worse than, those who committed the massacres, and one would now imagine from the language of the Tory press that to make a hasty charge and apologize for it was far more shocking than Lord Salisbury's making the secret Memorandum and equivocating about it in Parliament.

The strip of Albanian territory which the Treaty of Berlin gave to Montenegro in changing the frontier of that Principality has never been surrendered by Turkey, although negotiations with the Montenegrins about it have been dragging along, as in the Greek case, ever since the Treaty was concluded. The excuse the Turks have made is that the population is violently opposed to the transfer, and that, therefore, they dare not make it. At last, when the news of the fall of the Beaconsfield Ministry arrived, the Sultan was frightened into signing the Convention, but he had no sooner done so than the Turkish troops surrendered their forts, not to the Montenegrins but to the Albanians, who are now in arms in great force, and threaten not only to hold what they have got but to retake the territory around Podgoritza, which the Montenegrins have already occupied.

THE TRANSFORMATION OF OUR PUBLIC MEN.

THE abandonment by our leading public men of the work of discussing publicly the great questions of the day in preparation for the elections, is a phenomenon which is exciting more and more attention. We have frequently commented in these columns on the singularly small amount of knowledge possessed by the people about the opinions of our most prominent and influential politicians—the Camerons, Conklings, Blaines, Tildens, Thurmans, and so on. Up to 1860, at least, they used to do nearly all the work of discussion in preparation for the Presidential struggle, and the newspapers merely supplemented their speeches or used them as texts. Read this account, for instance, which is strictly accurate, given in a recent publication of the Independent Republicans, of Mr. Seward's activity when he occupied the place of senior Senator from New York, now held by Mr. Conkling, and compare it with the life led by the latter:

"In the circles of official life in his own State, and in his many speeches before the public, Mr. Seward fitly expressed the broad, reforming, and enlightened spirit of his party; advocating reforms and reorganizations in the prison system, in the militia system, in the educational system, in the system of public works, in the courts of law and equity, in the asylums, in the banking system, and in the State constitution in various ways. . . . The volumes he has left behind him will bear testimony, in future generations, to the spirit and principles in which the Republican party found the vitality of its youth. His orations on Adams, O'Connell, and Lafayette, his speeches on agriculture, his Columbus address, his address before the Phi Beta Kappa Society and at Plymouth, his notes on New York, his life of John Quincy Adams, his biography of De Witt Clinton, to say nothing of many eulogies and speeches in other fields of thought, show what a New York statesman may do whose powers are not absorbed and whose thought is not dwarfed by the exacting details and the demoralizing intrigues of mere partisan politics."

In those days activity of this sort was absolutely necessary to preserve a statesman's influence. In order to be sure of the people's votes he had to keep a hold on their minds and consciences by incessant exposition of his views on all sorts of topics. In England political leaders still keep their authority by the same tenure. Mr. Gladstone may be said to have carried the late election by three years' incessant speaking, and his colleagues of the Liberal party were not less industrious in their oratory. They flew from county to county and town to town making speeches, lectures, addresses on every variety of occasion, on any topic that would give them an opportunity not only of making converts to their way of thinking on questions of party politics, but of familiarizing the popular mind with their way of thinking about things in general, and thus strengthening the popular confidence in their judgment and character and capacity, so that, when the electoral struggle came, they would not have to face the voters as new and unknown men.

We do not mean to say that there will be any lack of oratory here after the meeting of the conventions next month, but the leading men in public life will not take part in it to any great extent, and they will confine themselves pretty rigidly to abuse of their opponents. Except during the five months of the canvass, it has become, indeed, the fashion with them to keep still, to say as little as possible, and reveal themselves as little as possible, and associate themselves as little as possible in the voter's mind with any particular set of opinions. The real work of discussion is, in fact, carried on now by the newspapers, and under great disadvantages, owing to the strong suspicion of interested advocacy which attaches to nearly everything a newspaper says. The public never entirely forgets that a newspaper represents a good deal of invested capital, and has to live by the sale of its opinions, and is always tempted to make them as palatable as possible to some large, determinate class.

That this desertion of what used to be so prominent a part of their work by our public men is due not to any change in them but to a change in the conditions amid which they work, there can hardly be a doubt. The growth of the caucus in strength and complexity is really what makes them dumb. No man has the capacity to study affairs with any closeness when he is dependent on the caucus not only for political advancement, but even for the chance of remaining in public life at all in any position. At every election in France and England a prominent and distinguished man finds two, three, or four constituencies eager for the honor of being represented by him, and thrusting their seats upon him in zealous competition. Here, neither talent, nor capacity, nor special knowledge avails him anything unless his Machine has sent the right men to the nominating conventions, and the nominating conventions have sent the right men to the legislature. The working of his Machine and the keeping of it in repair require, however, all his attention. The correspondence and interviews which it involves form a drain on his time which the most industrious man finds it impossible to meet without neglecting all other business. As surely as he neglects it even for a month, in order to give patient study to any subject, he puts his continuance in public life in peril.

Some of the indirect effects of this state of things are as interesting and important as the direct ones. Not only does it prevent the thorough discussion of national affairs by public men, but it to a certain extent discredits such discussion by any others. That is to say, inasmuch as the men who own and manage the nominating machinery, and, therefore, control the composition of the legislative and administrative bodies, do not any longer engage in such discussion, it has come to have an amateurish or "theoretical" air when any one else engages in it. In fact, almost any man who now publicly debates a political question without giving it a party bearing, or intending that what he says shall help the party fortunes, runs much risk of being set down either as a mere speculator or as a moral preacher like a minister, and is listened to with the kindly patience with which the Wall Street operator sits under his pastor's weekly warning against the deceitfulness of riches. The fact that, however much he may have studied the question, he can in no way affect the attitude of the legislature towards it, puts him, in the eyes of even that portion of the public which sympathizes with him, in the ranks of the "visionaries," or men who are striving after unattainable ideals.

We have illustrated this several times already by the case of Mr. Conkling and Mr. Blaine and Mr. Cameron, who may be fairly considered the first perfect specimens of machine-made statesmen we have had. Nobody knows what their views are on the great questions of the day, and this ignorance on the part of the public does them no harm. Another very interesting example of the same change in the conditions of public life may now be witnessed in this State in the competition of Messrs. Arthur and Cornell for the senatorship to be filled by the Legislature next winter. Both these gentlemen are pupils and henchmen of Senator Conkling, and have owed the places in the Custom-house which they have held to his patronage. They have, otherwise than as "workers," played no part in public affairs. Nothing is known outside the circle of their intimate friends, if anything is known there, of their opinions on any prominent subject of contemporaneous politics. Twenty years ago the aspirations of men as little identified with any prominent idea or movement or interest of the day, and as little known to the public through speeches, writings, or service in the legislature, to a senatorship from this State would have seemed ludicrous. Now it seems the most natural thing in the world. Long and obscure service—for such service is necessarily obscure—in packing primaries and conventions is already accepted as the best qualification for a rising politician, and, what is worst of all, the young generation is growing up in the belief that this is the *American* and republican way of producing statesmen, as distinguished from the foreign and monarchical plan of making them incessantly and publicly expound their opinions on the subjects which happen to be occupying the popular mind.

The most valuable criticism of our political tendencies, and perhaps that which now sinks deepest into the public mind, in spite of the undoubted growth of independence of late years among the newspapers, is that which comes from thoughtful observers in callings, such as the bar and pulpit, in no way connected with politics, who are not open, like newspapers, to the suspicion of personal

interest in party fortunes. One of the most thoughtful and instructive of the recent contributions from this quarter to the literature of this subject has been a lecture delivered recently before the Law Academy in Philadelphia by Mr. Hare, a leading member of the bar in that city, on "Certain Points of Distinction between the English and American Constitutions." The greater part of it is devoted to a lucid analysis of the difference of structure and working between the Federal Government of this country and that of Great Britain. Towards the end the author shows that, while both have started with a common stock of legal ideas and habits, and while the American system has many undeniable points of superiority, the latter has in its practical working, both as regards legislation and as regards the selection of men for public life, markedly fallen below the former; and this deterioration he ascribes to the influence of the caucus in corrupting and debasing public life.

"The evil," he says, "has grown to such a height that the meeting of our legislative assemblies is viewed with apprehension and their adjournment hailed with delight; and the Constitutional Convention which recently sat in this city, after lessening the evil by taking every power from the Legislature that was not indispensable, applied a palliative by providing that the session should be biennial, and a similar proposition has been made with regard to Congress.

"That such restrictions should be needed, shows how much we have sunk below our proper level. Where no grave disorder afflicts the state, the legislature may be trusted to give the law to the other departments of the government, and provide for each contingency as it arises. Such is the case in England, where Parliament exercises an authority which would be arbitrary but for a self-imposed restraint. If Congress or the State legislatures were thus absolute, no vested right would be secure, and every man who had anything to lose would have to be constantly on the watch against the undue influence in which, as it is generally believed, so many of our laws originate. No one who is conversant with the political history of the last fifty years will think this picture overcharged, and I might appeal for its reality to the conventions which have been successively engaged in devising elaborate precautions against ignorant and corrupt legislation."

As regards its effect on the tone of public life, he adds:

"The marked improvement that has occurred during this century in the tone of English politics has not been attended with a corresponding amelioration here, and our public men have sunk as much below the level of Washington and Hamilton as theirs have risen above that of Sir Robert Walpole. The patronage incident to official position is now justly regarded in England as a trust, and it is felt that one who uses it for his private ends is as little worthy of confidence as a cashier who speculates with the money of a bank. These truths were axiomatic to the men who devised the American Constitution, and when they are again recognized and acted on we may hope that politics will cease to be a scene of intrigue, and become the chosen pursuit of the wise and good."

The root of the evil he finds, as does every thoughtful man who looks into the subject, in the mode of appointment and the conditions of tenure in the civil service. There are 200,000 offices, Federal, State, and municipal, held by a slavish tenure which compels the incumbent "to obey his political taskmasters at the risk of being deprived of the means by which he gains his bread, . . . and he has to devote no inconsiderable portion of his salary, which is presumably not too large to procure faithful and efficient service, to a fund which is employed in maintaining the party organization, and not unfrequently for factious and personal ends." It is through this instrumentality that the primaries and conventions are managed, and made to put and retain in public life not those who are most interested in public affairs, but those who are most skilful in disciplining and organizing and working on the hopes and fears of this large body of mercenaries. The number of those who will heartily assent to the following conclusion of Mr. Hare's is growing rapidly, under the influence of the events of the last few months, and will continue to grow:

"If the axe were laid to the root of the evil by rendering the tenure of office permanent, politics would cease to be a trade, because they would no longer afford a hope of profit. There would be few vacancies save through death or resignation, and when one occurred, promotion would take place, as it does in the Army and Navy, in the order of seniority or for meritorious services. The avenues to public life would no longer be closed to men who are averse to the arts of faction and intrigue, and the way lie open for the noblest career that can engage or elevate the mind."

THE GLADSTONE MINISTRY AND THE TURKS.

ONE of the best features in the English political system is the rapidity with which the popular will expressed at a general election is embodied in action. If the actual holders of office fail to meet with popular approval, they resign as soon as the result is declared, and the new Parliament meets within three or four weeks, and finds the new Ministry in full control both of the legislative and administrative machine. Mr. Gladstone had formed his Cabinet within a fortnight of the close of the election, and he had no sooner formed it than the changes of policy which he and his colleagues had advocated on the stump were entered on. It is worth observing, too, that, the Cabinet once formed, all care about offices ceased. Having filled fourteen leading places with his political friends and associates, who have fought the party battle with him on the stump, he has no more care or concern about filling any other places because there are no other places vacant. To the great army of Government servants the election has been a matter of no more concern than to the rest of the community. Some have voted for the Conservatives, some for the Liberals, as their opinions or feelings might direct, just as the grocers, and lawyers, and plumbers have voted, and nobody has asked them for any contributions for election expenses which have not been asked of other persons of moderate or small incomes, and none of them have felt any more difficulty in refusing such contributions than any other person of similar means would feel. The result is that Mr. Gladstone, having no more "claims" to satisfy, can now give his undivided attention to the questions on which he fought and won the battle at the polls.

Foremost among these is the Turkish question. One of the most momentous steps taken by the Beaconsfield Ministry was the committal of England to the defence of Turkey in Asia, where her frontier is conterminous with that of Russia for a very great distance, and where Turkey could only be defended against aggression by a very large land force. Under this committal, therefore, England was in daily danger of finding herself involved in hostilities with Russia through a quarrel raised by Turkey. It is true that the convention provided that Turkey was only to be defended on condition that she instituted internal reforms; but it fixed no time for the fulfilment of this condition, and the Beaconsfield government has for two years accepted professions of a desire to reform, if possible, as a sufficient execution of the contract.

In the meantime the Turkish Empire is rapidly going to pieces. The provinces are so far ruined that nearly all return from the taxes has ceased, and every department of the Government at Constantinople—even the Sultan's household service—is paralyzed by want of funds. The butchers who supply the palace with mutton, which is the chief meat of the inmates, have struck because their bills are unpaid. The army is disbanding, because neither men nor officers are paid or fed. The adulterated silver coins have been declared receivable for taxes and debts only at their real value. The remaining provinces of the empire, both in Europe and Asia, are in a state of all but complete anarchy, owing to the disappearance of even the venal and scanty police force which used to convoy travellers and, in grave cases, go in pursuit of highway robbers. The Beaconsfield Ministry were compelled by the accounts they had given at home of the condition and prospects of the Turkish Empire to confine themselves to remonstrating gently with the Sultan, as the sole remedy for these crying evils. They dared not tell the public that their remonstrances would probably not produce any effect, and that Turkey was not reformable, because this would be an implied condemnation of the Anglo-Turkish Convention. They therefore kept at Constantinople as absolutely necessary to their safety an ambassador who believed in the Turks, and sent one

good accounts of them, although the Sultan snubbed him unmercifully and made no secret of his contempt for the English influence. A change in the attitude of the Beaconsfield Ministry towards the Turk was, therefore, almost impossible.

Mr. Gladstone has taken the matter up immediately. He had hardly finished the organization of his Cabinet when Sir Henry Layard was recalled or superseded, and Mr. Goschen sent out as a special ambassador, to initiate a new policy in the relations of England to the Turkish Empire, and his departure was accompanied, it is said—though this is doubtful—by a note to the Powers asking for or suggesting some kind of combined action in bringing pressure to bear on the Porte to compel it to execute its part of the Treaty of Berlin. To this proposal Russia is said to have already acceded. The necessity for it is shown by the fact that Turkey has managed for three years to evade, by pretences and subterfuges of the shallowest and pettiest kind, compliance with the clause which suggested a new line of frontier between her and Greece, and to surrender a strip of territory which the Treaty gave to Montenegro. She has done so in full reliance on continued exemption from anything like combined coercive action on the part of the Powers, and on the necessity of forbearance towards her, of the Beaconsfield Ministry.

That Mr. Goschen, or any other financier, can do anything towards restoring Turkish finances is utterly improbable. Indeed, it is not likely that he has gone to Constantinople with any such expectation. The finances cannot be restored without a complete reform in the administration, and this cannot be effected through Turkish hands. What he will probably do is, make an exposé of the situation in which everybody will place confidence, and which will justify still more energetic measures on the part of the Ministry. That this action will not be directed towards the aggrandizement of Austria on the ruins of the Ottoman Power, any more than towards the aggrandizement of Russia, has also already been made plain by explanations with the Austrian Government. In fact the Gladstone Ministry has already in the course of three weeks taken important steps towards preparing for the solution of the Eastern problem in the manner Mr. Gladstone has advocated ever since the Bulgarian massacres in 1876—by the substitution for the Turks of the Christian races who have lived under them so long, as the ruling power of the Balkan Peninsula. They have already secured Bulgaria and Servia; they have all but secured Rumelia. With Macedonia they would form a confederation which, if it had the support of any one European Power, hardly any combination of the others would venture to attack or meddle with, and which would effectually put an end to the Russian dream of a capital on the Bosphorus. The fate of Constantinople, it is true, would still have to be determined, and there is little likelihood that the Powers will consent to its passing into the hands of a state of any magnitude. The Greeks claim it as theirs by inheritance, but the Slavs would never submit to their peaceable possession of it, and in the hands of either it would probably continue to be a bone of contention; so that the proposal to make it a free city under European protection is probably the one most likely to be adopted. This would, of course, involve the removal of the Sultan and most of the Turks into Asia Minor. Even five years ago this seemed a promising solution of the difficulties which Turkey makes for Europe. But the more intimate knowledge which has since been acquired of the defects of Turkish administration, and of the moral and mental condition of the Turkish governing class, and the increased sense of responsibility for the state of the population under their rule, which has been created in Christendom by the war, have greatly changed its aspect. Nobody is now ready, as many were in 1877, to let the Turks do as they please in Asia any more than Europe, even if in Asia they are in a majority. The Sultan cannot be allowed to transfer himself and his harem to Brusa and continue there the régime which has broken down in Constantinople. The Armenians are crying for deliverance with even stronger claims on European sympathy than the Bulgarians had in 1876. The Mussulman population, too, is groaning under almost every evil from which the Christians have suffered, except exposure to massacre. And then capital, which is now seeking new fields with a fierce greed, by which nearly every government in Europe is consciously or unconsciously influenced, has fixed its eye on the magnificent region known as Asia Minor, and found it full to overflowing of materials for handsome returns, and which nothing prevents it from getting at except insecurity and arbitrary and oppressive taxation. In fact, very much the same kind of pressure is beginning to bear on the Turks which our Western adventurers bring to bear on the Indians in their reservations. The money markets in London and Paris, now that they will not lend the Sultan any more money, are beginning to insist with the subtle, silent, but always in the end overwhelming, persistence which the owners of unemployed capital know so well how to exert, that he must, at least, give them a chance at his mines and minerals, and wheatfields and olive-yards and vineyards, and must let them carry their own police with them and fix their own taxation. From this the Ottomans are probably in greater danger at this moment than they have ever been from the armies of the Czar.

THE ST. LOUIS CONVENTION.

St. Louis, May 8, 1880.

THE anti-third-term meeting held in this city upon Thursday was, as a national mass convention, a failure. It was called without consultation with anti-third-term Republicans in other States, without due deliberation among the opponents of the third term here, and without even the concurrence of many of them. The appellation of "mass convention," and the consequent misconception of the nature and scope of the meeting, were a result of the same impulsive, ill-advised management.

As a conference of men representing the deep and widely-spread sentiment against a third term for Gen. Grant, and as the basis of an organized and concerted movement to defeat him if nominated, the meeting was, however, a success. Having been called, it was felt that it should not be allowed to fail, and that it afforded an opportunity for the general conference of which there was need. Accordingly, there were present actual visiting delegations, representing an earnest and more or less organized opposition to the nomination of the ex-President, from New York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Missouri, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, Kansas, Iowa, and Kentucky, besides a delegation by proxy from Rhode Island, and several individuals from New York, Alabama, Georgia, and South Carolina, who were in town upon other business. Three of the latter were negro clergymen, one of them a doctor of divinity in attendance upon the Methodist Conference; and they indicated that the desire of the negroes of those States for Gen. Grant was by no means so general and overwhelming as has been alleged. The majority of these delegates were either lawyers or editors, and the proceedings, which were very orderly and dignified, were generously applauded by an audience of about eight hundred persons; the expectations of a bear-garden show over the names of other candidates being disappointed through the earnestness and good sense of those who, meeting to do a particular thing, avoided undertaking to do anything else. The treatment of the meeting by the Western press has been respectful. The local papers and those of Chicago and Cincinnati gave full accounts of the meeting, and although one or two papers pronounced it a fizzle, they did so at the end of an account of several columns. Altogether, the effect upon the Grant boomsters hereabouts, heightened by the fact that the temporary chairman was an instructed Grant delegate, and by the sympathetic letters of large numbers of prominent men in the East, appears to have been satisfactorily depressing.

The failure of the meeting to confine itself to the objections to a third term *per se*, and the emphasis which was laid both in the speeches and resolutions upon the fact that the third-term candidate is to be held morally responsible for the scandals which disgraced his previous terms, and that therefore he should not be entrusted with a third; and its refusal to believe that the contact of Gen. Grant with the dukes and princes, and the influence upon him—at the age of fifty-six—of the Old World splendors, afforded any guarantee against the recurrence of similar scandals, or against the supremacy of the old advisers, are also disappointing to these gentry. As a matter of fact, the resolutions find in the character of Gen. Grant's present supporters "a renewed menace"; and a resolution proposing a constitutional amendment limiting the Presidential term to six years was not only not reported but barely considered in the committee. The feeling appeared to be that while possible conditions

might at some time make a third term desirable for somebody, at this time neither the civil record of the candidate, his surroundings, nor the actual or probable condition of the country would justify it. This was all coupled, moreover, with a sincere respect for Gen. Grant personally, an appreciation of his great services, and of surprise that he had stooped to what could be considered as undignified electioneering junketings.

Conversation with the delegates discovered a strong undercurrent of feeling hostile to Mr. Blaine, which was suppressed from the conviction that its expression would be inexpedient. In the West, at least, Mr. Blaine is unquestionably now regarded as the rallying-point for the people in the struggle against the "bosses." Whatever misgivings some of his supporters may feel, they are dropped by common consent until the delegates to Chicago are selected. His success seems to be the highest good. This is especially true in Illinois. At Chicago, the other day, a remark of mine in the Blaine headquarters, that "it was a pity they had not a leader whose record was neither sullied nor empty," nearly caused my summary ejectment. But indignation subsided quickly into pity, and after I had added that Mr. Blaine would lose 10,000 votes in New York, I was treated very much as a harmless lunatic; though, as if my enthusiasm might still be worth having, the gentleman in charge cried out, summarizing the situation: "But, my God! with no organization, and John Logan putting in his best work, ain't we making a glorious fight?" The objections to Mr. Blaine which prevail with you, find only a faint echo in the West. In the numerous documents, for instance, circulated in Chicago to show why Grant delegates should be selected for the State Convention, and why Blaine delegates should not, there has been no intimation whatever that Mr. Blaine was a superlative demagogue, that no man could designate what permanent services he has rendered, or that his political life and works were not wholly above suspicion. For this reason, accordingly, and because the terms of the call did not permit it, the St. Louis meeting made no reference to Mr. Blaine, unless the demand for a candidate without a stain be so construed.

The important result of the meeting is the provision for a national committee of one hundred, which is instructed in the event of Grant's nomination to meet in New York and to act. Only a fourth of this committee was selected, but it promises, when completed, to be a body of very great weight. It is to be made up from the close States in about this proportion: New York, 15 members; Ohio, 12; Pennsylvania, Indiana, and Illinois, 10 each; Massachusetts, 7; Missouri, 5; Connecticut and Michigan, 4 each; and so on, but with sole regard to making it a body which will command public confidence. *To act* of course means to put a third candidate in the field, either directly or through the medium of a national convention; and it is so understood. It is this result which makes the St. Louis meeting a success. While it did not accomplish much that was, foolishly perhaps, expected of it, it has settled that in the event of Grant's nomination there will be a third candidate, and it has provided the means for selecting him.

Whether the means so provided are likely to be used, appears more and more improbable; but should the Committee of One Hundred be called upon to act, and decide to act directly, the St. Louis meeting would stand in some such relation to the system of national conventions, which has become so highly organized as to need superseding, as the first national convention held to the system of Congressional caucuses: it would foreshadow a change in the method of selecting Presidential candidates.

THE NEW BRITISH MINISTRY.

LONDON, Thursday, April 29, 1880.

THE conditions under which these letters are written have been during the past fortnight unfavorable to correspondence. Before they could reach you or your readers speculations would be converted into facts, and the facts themselves would have become obsolete so far as their interest on your side of the water is concerned. To-day, however, affords a resting-place. The Ministry is formed completely as regards the Cabinet, and most of the important appointments lying outside the Cabinet; and to day also the two Houses of Parliament meet for the first time. The new Ministers will not be there. Their seats are already vacated by their acceptance of office under the Crown. The only exceptions are in the case of Ministers who do not technically hold office under the Crown. The Secretaries of the Treasury and the Secretary of the Admiralty, the Under-Secretaries of State for the five departments—Home, Foreign Affairs, Colonies, War, and Trade—and the Secretaries of the Board of Trade and the Local Government Board have not to appeal to their constituents for re-election. Though to all intents and purposes Ministers like the rest, and often of higher political mark than such heads of departments as do not sit in the Cabinet, they are theoretically the servants not of the sovereign but of the principal Secretaries of State or of the Boards to which they are attached. They do not, therefore, hold offices of honor and profit under the Crown, and the suspicious constitutional rule which makes the service of the Crown a disqualification for a seat in Parliament, unless especially sanctioned by the Minister's re-election, does not apply to them. By the time this letter reaches you the re-elections will be over. Parliament, after its members have been sworn and the new writs have been moved for—that is, in the course of two or three days—will adjourn until the Ministers of the Crown can meet it. In about three weeks hence everything will be ready for such business as the advanced period of the Parliamentary year and the necessarily imperfect condition of ministerial preparations will allow for. Necessary business will be transacted, but little else will be done, and there will probably be an early adjournment.

The two great topics of public interest have been Mr. Gladstone's return to power as Prime Minister and leader of the Liberal party, and the political complexion of the Ministry which he has formed. As to the former there was no choice. The majority in the House of Commons is his majority, and no one else could wield it. One element in a minister's favor in the House of Commons is the sense that the country is behind him, and that it watches jealously cabals and cliques which might array themselves against him. This feeling, and the reality which it expressed, were the sources of Mr. Gladstone's authority during the first four years of his former administration. He was absolute. The lines in which *Lord Talbot* in Shakspere's "Henry VI." (if the critics will allow us to call the play Shakspere's) paints the sources of his real strength, might, with a little modification, be used by Mr. Gladstone of himself. When the country grew tired of him, or disappointed in him, or indifferent to politics, his hold over his majority completely ceased. It began to melt away, to split into half-hostile groups, and generally to show signs of disintegration. Mr. Gladstone has no power of managing men by the arts of persuasion or by those nameless personal influences in which Lord Palmerston was, and Lord Beaconsfield is, an adept. He can command a force already disciplined and lead it to great enterprises, but he cannot conjure away disaffection by wheedling words and flattering personal attentions. The Liberal majority of 1880, like the smaller majority of 1868, was returned to support him, and it certainly would not acknowledge for many months any other leader. Mr. Gladstone, sitting below the gangway or on the fourth bench behind ministers, could not lend his majority to Lord Hartington. It would serve him, but it would not consent to transfer its service. The experiment was doomed to failure, and was wisely not attempted. There would have been a break-down early next year at the latest; and Mr. Gladstone, if he had remained aloof now, would have been called in then, after discredit had been incurred and jealousies and recriminations had been promoted. It is useless to discuss the personal questions involved in Mr. Gladstone's return to the Premiership, and the relegation of Lord Granville and Lord Hartington to lower posts than those which they had been led by Mr. Gladstone himself to expect, and to which they had a sort of title. Their claim was good as against Mr. Gladstone, but not good as against facts which mastered equally Mr. Gladstone and them. It is to their credit that they were among the first to see the actual state of things, and to bring Mr. Gladstone to the practical acknowledgment of it by the strong pressure which they put upon him and the urgent representations which they addressed to him. It was through them that the Queen learned decisively that no other Minister than Mr. Gladstone was possible, and that after some slight signs of displeasure, which they intercepted in receiving, she became prepared when Mr. Gladstone went down to Windsor last Saturday to meet him not only with a frank acceptance of the inevitable, but with a personal cordiality more than enough to efface the recollection of some previous slights. The visit of the Prince of Wales to Harley Street was no doubt intended to be a conspicuous manifestation in the same sense, and to indicate that Marlborough House would not be to the Queen's Government what Carlton House was in the days of another Prince of Wales, or what the Palais Royal has been to the Tuileries under more than one French dynasty.

Mr. Gladstone's Ministry differs as regards its personal elements from any Cabinet which Lord Granville or Lord Hartington would have formed; and it differs in a manner which, although perfectly natural and inevitable, has yet surprised a good many not very observant or

very thoughtful people. It is more aristocratic and bureaucratic in its composition than a Granville-Hartington administration would have proved. It has a slighter infusion of new blood, it less perfectly represents the various sections of the Liberal party. It is made up, with one exception, of old Whigs and ex-officials, and the necessity of making that exception was only recognized by Mr. Gladstone after negotiations and deliberations which delayed for a couple of days the completion of the Cabinet, and at one time seemed to threaten a ministerial crisis within a ministerial crisis. That the difficulty was overcome is mainly due to the patriotism and self-denial of Sir Charles Dilke. Mr. Chamberlain is his nominee in the Cabinet, and through him he will probably be able to exercise an influence in it as great as if he were himself one of its members. Mr. Chamberlain is not a man of the parliamentary standing and ability of Sir Charles Dilke, he has not the intellectual eminence and force of Mr. Fawcett, but he will represent in the Cabinet that provincial Liberal opinion, that knowledge of municipal organization, that acquaintance with the life and feeling of big towns, that average middle-class commercial sentiment, of which a Cabinet ought to have the means of informing itself at first hand. Though in business, neither Mr. Bright nor Mr. Forster has ever concerned himself much with business, they have always been professional politicians. Their radicalism is of that historic type which has little in common with the new radicalism of which Mr. Chamberlain is a representative. Moreover, it has been absorbed in officialism; and their middle-class associations do not survive that adoption into aristocratic and courtly circles which welcomes the plebeian minister. It is, therefore, necessary that every Liberal Cabinet should contain a new Radical, fresh from the country, and from below the gangway, and not be content with its spoiled or used-up old ones. Mr. Chamberlain plays this part in Mr. Gladstone's Government. It is probable that if Lord Hartington or Lord Granville had formed a ministry, Sir Charles Dilke and Mr. Fawcett would have been included as well as Mr. Chamberlain. As it is, they receive important posts outside. The two Whig noblemen would have been bound to show that they were not oligarchic or exclusive. Prudence requires Mr. Gladstone to make it clear that he has no quarrel with the aristocracy or with what are called the governing classes. He conducts his radical operations behind a masked battery of Whig peers and sober officials. From Lord Hartington and Lord Granville we should have had less liberal measures from an ostensibly more liberal government. From Mr. Gladstone we shall have more liberal measures from an ostensibly less liberal government. Radical reforms with Whig reformers to vouch for their safety—this is the combination which Mr. Gladstone has sagaciously effected. † † †

THE BOSTON MONDAY LECTURESHIP.

LEIPZIG, April 16.

TWENTY lectures per year for five years, reprinted in fifteen newspapers and filling eight books, one of which has reached a sixteenth edition, is the record upon which Mr. Cook retires as the oracle of Protestantism in New England. His unique prominence and the absolute and unqualified assurance with which his opinions and sentiments upon every great open question that interests the contemporary world have been urged upon public notice, will, I trust, justify equal frankness on the part of a student of science and a member of the same denominational church to which Mr. Cook belongs, in attempting a brief review of his work.

In the first place, it is neither slight nor insincere praise to say that in the rôle of a people's university, teaching certain popular aspects of science, he has more than made up in range of topics what was lacking in depth, accuracy, or thoroughness. The problem how to gather facts and opinions from a convenient library of authorities, and how to transmit them to those who have no time, taste, or training to read for themselves, in a portable and forcible way, and all in the least possible time, has seldom been better solved, indicating that Boston culture, however pervasive it has been in other respects, had left a gap here which it may require nothing less than a permanent lectureship to fill. This, however, is the least of Mr. Cook's merits. Long after his stalwart pedagogic method and his imposing and sensational foible of "science" are forgotten, he will be remembered for his vigorous protests against the deadening tyranny of public opinion—political, social, and even religious—which, in so many ways and directions, narrows and impoverishes intellectual and moral life in our country. In many "preludes," and often in his talks on heredity, conscience, etc., he has enforced an ethical common-sense against inveterate prejudices, and sometimes even against the vested interests which support his own platform, to which those who know his nearest surroundings must yield a certain respect, even when he is most mistaken. Few can longer doubt that he is honest and sincere, and from the tedious qualifications with which critics often modify their blame, and even his best friends temper their praise, it is apparent that, despite the wholesale condemnation of public and social morals in America one is now too often compelled to hear abroad, we have not yet lost our relish for the flavor of conviction, and that even in Boston men can still discriminate, though they be brought into the closest and strongest contrast, between the cause of conscience and that of taste, and cleave to the former.

On the other hand, we cannot feel that Mr. Cook's influence has been wholly salutary to the Church. This, so far as I have gathered, is the great fear of his well-wishers on this side the Atlantic. Whether or not Christianity is mainly rooted in the *Gemüth*, as is so often said here, the preacher must constantly appeal to this. He must edify, console, encourage, teach peacefulness, contentment, humility, and even self-sacrifice. To concentrate and apply, or more often, in our busy country, to supply the place of, the best social influences that are active in the purest examples of friendship, seems to me not the least of its "homiletic functions." This is one of the highest of all arts, and many German clergymen attempt only to live and work thus in the hearts of their people. Again, there was never such a wide and rapidly-opening field for distinctively religious scholarship as now. The comparative study of religions, Semitism in politics and literature, the history of the first Christian centuries, oriental antiquities; or, again, the nature of conversion, inspiration, sin, Christ, and the Church, for the rehabilitation and remotivation of which in and for the modern consciousness there is now so much excellent and unutilized material—all these, with the exception of the too-often ignored or suspected advances made by Schleiermacher, remain too nearly as the vigorous but crass thought of Luther and Calvin left them. Thirdly, there is sometimes, all Christians admit, want of candor and even of courage in the pulpit. There is fanaticism, place-seeking, hypocrisy, and unchristian living. These, observed by outsiders in church members, as a late number of the *Golden Rule* truly urges, are, far more than science or Tübingen, the causes of popular scepticism. All of these real dangers Mr. Cook has scarcely touched. The many younger sermonizers who take their tone from him are more devoted to playing "strategic points," and to trying an aggressive hand on the scientists with some new *coup* of their great protagonist, than to reforming the abuses and elevating the members of their own churches. Mr. Cook has contributed no new method or motive for sweetening the life and temper, for satisfying those deep personal needs on which religion is grounded; he has contributed nothing to the scholarship or doctrinal development of the Church when he might have done much, and has done nothing to reform abuses or ameliorate the severities of dogma. He is apparently a Calvinist, and sanctions Mr. Moody's methods. He is the very opposite of a reformer of the Church from within, for he has encouraged a spirit of self-complacency while preaching a new crusade against science, in which the Church has absolutely nothing but a few "old bottles" to gain and everything to lose. We are convinced that he has deeply and seriously injured the cause he has so honestly striven to defend.

As Mr. Cook has, despite the careful exhibition of every visitor of the least distinction upon his platform, gradually lost whatever hold he had upon the most thoughtful and cultivated part of the community, the character of his agitation has in many respects degenerated, and his last words were a painfully and confusingly qualified defence of certain "facts" of spiritualism. If a conch-shell, slipping through the solid wooden bottom of a chair, proves that the risen Jesus passed through closed doors, and the materialization of hands demonstrates the reality of the fingers that wrote upon Belshazzar's walls, as Mr. Cook intimates, what security have we for the incarnation, the miracle of pentecostal tongues, "the power of the resurrection," etc., save the shifting limits of Mr. Cook's credulity? So, too, if we ever have tangible laboratory proofs of immortality, it may possibly "blow materialism to the moons of Jupiter" (an ism, by the way, discarded by all but a very few metaphysical scientists long before Mr. Cook revived it), but it will also confound the Church still more, for the most vulgar man of science will be raised almost to the same plane with Him who wrought many mighty works, and who came to bring life and immortality to light; and it would give to spiritualists, who have done far more harm to the Church than materialism, great prestige within it. Modern spiritism is the refined quintessence of the superstition of ages, compared with which the historic period is but a day. If there have been centuries of enlightenment and civilization it is because this darkness has here and there cleared up for a

space. It settled again in the first Christian centuries as Cabalism, Emanationism, and Neo-Platonism, with their hierarchies of spirit hosts, Romanizing the Church, strangling natural and medical science in the third and fourth centuries, and later bringing darkness, plagues, moral corruption, Paracelsianism, etc., from which we are now struggling to emerge. It has always been the common enemy of the Church and science, both of which Mr. Cook now challenges to accept "its fundamental facts." Give me an eternal sleep far rather than the vulgarly gaudy spirit-life revealed in the *Banner of Light*, which has been designated here as "the most dismally superstitious of all modern prints." This, too, is the sentiment, so far as I can learn, of every authority in the German Church without exception.

Secondly, no scientific field is so beset with danger even for its critical specialist as biology, because its conditions are so little under experimental control, and because, especially in the lower forms of life, change seems the only law, and facts may be brought to support every conceivable theory. Schelling's and then Oken's fanciful philosophy of nature, and Stahl's pan-psychicism, are now represented in direct lineage by Hartmann's all-pervading "Unconscious" and Haeckel's "cell-soul." It is proverbial among the best scientific men here that studies in general biology tend to make even the best and most empirical investigators speculative, fantastic, and transcendental. Hence the reaction against evolution here, which is coming to be considered more as a broad and easily-fitting religious faith than as a specific scientific principle. That Mr. Cook, who is so utterly undiscriminating and uncritical that he quotes Fichte, the mystic Fechner, who years ago in his prime wrote a book on 'The Comparative Anatomy of Angels,' and Weber, all of whom were about eighty before they became spiritists, as if they were equal authorities with Professor Ludwig, and who began with speculative "biology," should end with a defence of spiritualistic "facts," is more sad than it is surprising. These three names, with that of Ulrici, who, knowing nothing of experimental science, simply urged that spirit-phenomena should be investigated, and now publicly discards the supernatural theory, and expressed regret to the writer that he had not known more of the baleful results of spiritism in America before writing; with that of the volatile Zöllner, whom two eminent professors of nervous diseases here pronounce insane, as others of his nearest relatives have been, in whose lecture-room I found six hearers while Wundt, whose influence among students here Mr. Cook says is less than Zöllner's, lectured last semester in one course to three hundred, whose credulity is boundless and whose spiritism is of the most vulgar type; with Scheibner, who has written little on this or any subject, and of whom I can find no one who knows anything—are the only names among nearly four thousand German docents and professors of whom Mr. Cook speaks as "German science." Nor is this the worst. Some months ago I chanced to visit a small club of students here in a beer-house. A young medical student, apparently hardly out of his teens, read to about a dozen of his fellow-students a sophomoric and tediously long paper about odic and psychic force, which he afterwards printed. This pamphlet Mr. Cook exhibits towards the close of his last lecture "as the freshest from Germany," and intimates that the great question of the future lies between the theory therein presented and that of Zöllner and Crookes. This may serve to illustrate Mr. Cook's discrimination in recommending the authorities which, in his language, "anticipate the second birth of German science and its thorough Christianity."

The investigator of the phenomena of spiritism should have long experience with all the subtle and generally unnoticed forms of nervous disease; he should understand the physiology of the senses and the countless sources of their illusion; he should take pains to study up conjurers' tricks, all of which, save a few performed by their inventors who live off their secret, have now found their way into the market; he should be a physicist, especially an electrician and a physiologist, with the apparatus of these sciences at his disposal. The medium to be investigated must submit to every required condition, and complacently allow himself to be suspected of every trickery and deceit. He must consent, if need be, to be stripped for medical examination, to see if he has magnets thrust under his skin or instruments concealed elsewhere about his person; his clothing must be examined for secret pockets, and it, and even his boots and stockings, for sly devices for quick divestment, etc. He must come to the laboratory, and perhaps suffer other indignities and even pain. So far no medium but Hansen has done this, and the result, as I described in a late letter to the *Nation*, is a fatal blow to every supernatural notion of trance or "influence."

Again, if mediums were willing, science is hardly ready yet. Truly scientific men are interested solely and only in questions which admit of some definite and certain solution. Their first question when asked to contemplate a new theme is whether the technical methods at their disposal are so developed, and knowledge from other men's labors ripened to such a point, that positive and conclusive results may be reasonably expected. Spiritual phenomena are so capricious, uncontrollable, and complex that, despite the popular and social interest they excite, science must choose for the present the attitude of ignorance until it can fully and finally master the subject.

Mr. Cook's mind, temper, and work are at every point exactly contrasted and opposed to that of a man of science. The former riots in a world of hypothesis and second-hand facts, crammed to the point of confusion and mental indigestion, while science always insists on an independent look at the facts, and ventures only late and tentatively upon explanations. Mr. Cook shows well-known traces of a past neurological crisis in the tendency to strengthen his most questioned statements by asserting "absolute certainty," "universal consent," citing "the whole scientific world," "answering the materialism of ages by this single fact," etc. The best scientific minds courageously shun miscellaneousness, ignore side-issues and the "general knowledge" so lauded by half-culture, and work a patient lifetime in their single chosen field, content if they are able to contribute by reliable monographic work something, small though it be, to the sum of the world's knowledge. Mr. Cook contributes nothing whatever, but has done much to widen the dead-level of half-culture, make it confident, suspicious, intolerant of real authorities; has greatly increased the intellectually socialistic consensus of incompetence upon all scientific questions within its ken; and has inspired I know not how many mediocre and undirected but religiously-trained American students here with the spirit of heterogeneousness, who wander from one subject, lecture-room, university, and country to another, with no other plan than that of some time, from the platform, pulpit, or in the press, adjudicating on high "philosophical" grounds between science and religion, politics and socialism, etc. A man of science is often the very first to correct his own errors; Mr. Cook ascribes to Schopenhauer, Lotze, M. D. Conway, and I know not at this distance how many others, opinions the exact opposite of those they have always labored to inculcate, and allows them to circulate uncorrected through the "more than five hundred thousand" printed copies of his lectures, despite the most prompt and urgent correction and protest.

Even before Mr. Cook the Church in New England, while gaining in numbers and wealth, had lost its old leadership in the intellectual world, while Unitarianism was slowly disintegrating. The time was in many other respects opportune for drawing stricter lines and for a general reaction under a "boss." He has appeared, and the reaction has come, showing, like great revivals, like the Crusades, etc, the surprising strength and, at the same time, the surprising weakness of the Church. Let us take warning from history, and reflect, before Mr. Cook returns, upon the issues of every such movement, which now most harms those whom it most affects—viz., young clergymen—and can be only disastrous to the Church in the end.

Correspondence.

SERVETUS AND HARVEY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "H," in discussing the claims of Harvey as the discoverer of the circulation of the blood, enumerates all his rivals, even including Shakspere and Fra Paolo. As he thus does not confine the list to men of science, he might further have included another popular writer—Rabelais. In Panurge's well-known discourse on the advantages of debt, an illustration is drawn from the mutual good offices of the various organs of the body, the blood being the circulating medium, which, after its manufacture by the digestive apparatus, is conveyed to the heart, "lequel par ses mouemens diastolicques et systolicques, le subtilie et enflambe tellement que, par le ventricule dextre, le met a perfection, et par les venes lenuoye a tous les membres. . . . Par le ventricule guausche il le faict tant subtil que on le dict spirituel, et lenuoye a tous les membres par les arteres, pour laultre sang des venes eschauffer et esuenter. Le poulmon ne cesse, auecques ses lobes et soufflets, le refraischir. En recongnoissance de ce bien, le cueur luy en départ le meilleur, par la vene arteriale."

After he quitted his convent Rabelais studied medicine at Montpellier,

and was thoroughly familiar with the science of his day. The above quotation, therefore, doubtless reflects the advanced views of his time, and is interesting as showing, by its crude speculations, how the knowledge of the circulation gradually advanced until Harvey reduced it to a demonstrable fact, and furnished, on a scientific basis, an explanation of its details for which his predecessors had blindly groped.

As the 'Pantagruel' was published some time before the 'Christianismi Restitutio,' Servetus certainly had the benefit of the speculations of Rabelais. Yours respectfully, L.

PHILADELPHIA, May 3, 1880.

WILL A THIRD CANDIDATE BE NEEDED?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is a most noticeable fact that all the Democratic Machine men are anxious that the Republicans should nominate Grant, and all the Republican Machine men are equally eager to see the Democrats fix on Tilden. The motive seems to be sufficiently obvious, neither party desiring to see the other select a candidate offering any attractions to opponents disgusted with the selection made on their own side.

And if this position of affairs should really come to pass, and the nominees should be respectively Grant and Tilden, what course is open to intelligent and independent voters of all political opinions? A third candidate must evidently be put in nomination. And if this course is once decided on, for the Machine men to deliver homilies on the "absurdity of throwing one's vote away" will be perfectly idle. It would be well for both political parties to bear in mind that there are large numbers of voters who are heartily tired of them both, who will vote for a satisfactory candidate offered by *either*, and, in the absence of such opportunity, will themselves offer a third man, and that this intention is not a threat but a purpose. M. C. L.

MAY 5.

THE SPECIFIC ARGUMENT AGAINST A *THIRD* TERM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: No one can have failed to observe that while the popular instinct of the country is adverse to a third Presidential term for anybody, there is a class of educated and independent men—chiefly of the younger generation—who hold that there is nothing harmful or deleterious in the idea of a third term for a good President, although there is very much to be said against a third term for General Grant. They believe that the candidacy of General Grant for a third term should be debated and considered substantially as though he had served only one term; that is, upon his merits as a statesman, without reference to the question whether his election to a third term would be opposed to national precedents or otherwise. Perhaps this respectable body of opinion is as well phrased as it is possible to put it in an editorial article in the *Nation* of May 6, thus:

"Frankly, we do not think that a tendency to give third terms to enlightened civilians who have proved their skill, efficiency, integrity, and judgment in their two previous terms, would of itself be a very alarming phenomenon. A popular desire to retain for an indefinite period the services in high office of a statesman who had given abundant evidence of his capacity and purity and zeal for the public good, would not be a bad sign in a democracy like ours. In fact, there is nothing of which our politics just now stands in greater need; so that we do not, on the whole, rate very highly, *per se*, the abstract dictum that nobody should be president of a republic for more than eight years."

You go on to say that the most effective way of meeting the third-termers is by showing that the very first time we are asked to make a change in the settled usage of the country it is in favor of a soldier who, placed in the Presidency in a burst of popular gratitude for military services, amazed and pained the country by the scandals and disorders of his Administration. I think all will agree with you that this is the most effective way of meeting the concrete case before us, as the whole of an argument is greater than any of its parts, but I cannot agree with the view that a third term for a good President is a desirable or even admissible proposition in a government whose continued existence depends upon the joint action of the whole body of citizens. I think that the popular instinct on the subject of third terms is right. At all events, I ask permission to state a few reasons to show that it is bottomed upon something better than mere prejudice.

I lay down this proposition as unassailable in the light of history or in the teachings of the masters of political science, that a republic can permanently endure only by keeping the great body and mass of citizens exercised in political thinking and political duties. It is always difficult to keep them up to this standard, and this is the reason why "machines" and "rings" and Tammany Halls so often supplant self-government in our midst. It is always pleasant for the business man, who is not an office-seeker, to think that things are going on very well at the City Hall, or the State-House, or in Washington, and that he needn't trouble himself about public affairs. If we could be sure that they always would go on well—that the good President of to-day, serving his third term or his "indefinite period," would always be good and would be succeeded by another good man for another indefinite period—there would be some sort of excuse for a system which should enable the average citizen to slough off his political responsibility and give his whole attention to his money-bags or other favorite allurement. Yet in this extreme and impossible case I should regard it as most undesirable that the people should fall into the habit of depending upon anybody but themselves for the blessings of good government. In other words, I cannot allow that a succession of good Presidents serving each for an indefinite period can ever be a valuable substitute for universal political education and training, which can only be obtained as other sorts of education and training are acquired, by constant exercise. "It is needless to point out," says Professor Sheldon Amos, the latest commentator on the English constitution, "that one chief portion of the whole struggle of English constitutional history has been to rest the fabric of the state upon fixed institutions as a substitute for the sandy foundation of personal character." This remark is not less weighty in its application to the fabric of our own commonwealth.

If anybody is prepared to maintain that third terms and "indefinite periods" of the Presidency (for you are right in classing third terms and indefinite periods together) would *not* tend to the relaxation and partial disuse of the political faculty among citizens, there is room for an argument upon that point. All I insist upon here is that those who are opposed to third terms *per se* believe that they would tend to such relaxation and disuse, and that the tendency would be bad and dangerous as substituting, in the case of a good President, the sandy foundation of personal character in place of fixed institutions. Probably the reasons for opposition to a third term *per se* have not been, in the minds of all who entertain it, fully elaborated. The popular instinct holds a third term to be somehow an assault upon our system of government. And so, in fact, it is, in so far as it involves the release of the citizen, for longer or shorter periods, from attention to his political duties. Such furloughs are more dangerous than any eight years of administration we are likely to get in the ordinary way.

All this does not prevent me from agreeing with you that the argument against a third term *per se* does not, in the present instance, cover ground enough. LEX NON SCRIPTA.

NEW YORK, May 10, 1880.

[A President would, of course, be nominated and *elected* for a third as well as for a first term, and we do not see why "Lex" should expect discussion of political duties to cease when the candidate had already served one, two, or three terms. In the case, we suppose, in which a President would be re-elected because he had given satisfaction, people would be induced to re-elect him by discussing the manner in which he had done his work, just as they were in the first instance induced to elect him by discussion of the manner in which he would be likely to do it. In addition to this, the sources from which most of a voter's political education is now derived, the State and town governments, would remain untouched. Indeed, as matters now stand the Presidential election does comparatively little towards exercising him in "political duties or political thinking." How much does he share in the selection of the candidate of his party? How much real political discussion is there during the canvass? Is it not notorious that the Presidential year is apt to be a year in which it is impossible to obtain the attention of either Congress or the country for any real consideration of grave political questions? We are far from underrating either the force or value of the popular hostility to a third term. We merely wish to point out that the tendency of popular sentiment is all in the direction of frequent changes of officers—in many cases to the great injury of the public business—and we hold that a counter tendency with regard to one office, even the highest, is not likely to run into an extreme or do any harm. Our correspondent's position seems to us to have in

view an officer like the English premier, but unknown in the American system, who has the power of initiating legislation, and is held responsible for the whole work of government both legislative and executive, and has, therefore, to go to the country with a policy embracing the whole of the national concerns. The work which the election of such an officer gives the voter's mind in England comes here, or would come if the new Congress met promptly after election, from the election of members of Congress. The Presidential canvass ought to furnish that thorough discussion of the national interests for which "Lex" looks to it; but the fact is, as we have tried to show elsewhere, the approach of the Presidential election seems to plunge politicians into dead silence about real public questions, and to fill the newspapers either with personal defamation or equally repulsive personal glorification of the candidates.—Ed. Nation.]

MR. BLAINE'S RECORD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Please, if it will not trespass too much on your time and space, summarize in your next issue the chief objections to Blaine as a Presidential candidate. Most Republicans here, and seemingly most Western Republicans, have forgotten the "Mulligan Letters" and Blaine's other questionable acts while Speaker of the House, or remember them so indistinctly that their good opinion of him is not lessened by the remembrance. Their memories are not likely to be refreshed by the Chicago *Tribune* or by any other Western paper of importance that I have seen. An authoritative summary by you of the reasons why Blaine should not be nominated would be a benefit not only to Independents like myself, but to numbers of honest but forgetful Republicans who really wish to see a reputable man nominated and elected.—Very respectfully yours,

C. S. G.

Chicago, May 3, 1880.

[We cannot comply with this request better than by reprinting the following passages from "The Week" in the *Nation* of June 8, 1876 (No. 571).—Ed. Nation.]

"The enquiry into Mr. Blaine's transactions in the Northern Pacific and Little Rock and Fort Smith stocks and bonds took a singular turn last week, in the appearance on the scene of a witness from Boston named Mulligan, who had, through his connection with Mr. Fisher, one of Mr. Blaine's friends in that city, become cognizant of these transactions, or some of them. The witness's testimony was not important on the first day; but on the second he appeared before the Committee and said Mr. Blaine had obtained from him a packet of fifteen of his (Blaine's) letters, which contained important corroborative evidence, on a promise to return them, which promise he had, after vain pleadings with the witness not to produce them, broken, and retained the letters. Mulligan even alleged that Blaine had said that the production of the letters would ruin him and his wife and children, and threatened to commit suicide if they were produced before the Committee, and offered to get the witness a consulship. The ruin and suicide part of the story Blaine denied, but admitted the consulship part, as jocose, however; he declared the letters were strictly private, but perfectly innocent and creditable, and had nothing to do with the matter under investigation, yet refused to produce them, though he agreed to let the Committee read them under pledge of secrecy. The Committee declined to examine them in this way, and Mr. Blaine then submitted them to two 'eminent counsel,' Messrs. Jeremiah Black and Matthew Carpenter, who, after deeply scrutinizing them, advised Blaine not to give them up.

"On this, Mr. Blaine, seeing that the letters must sooner or later come out, and knowing that Mulligan had made a memorandum of their contents, produced the letters in the House, and had them read by the clerk, making a running explanation of their contents, declaring that he had been treated with gross unfairness by the Investigating Committee, that the chairman had suppressed a despatch from Josiah Caldwell exonerating him from all share in the $64,000 transaction with the Union Pacific, and making what he called an appeal from the Committee to 44,000,000 American people. This bold move took the Democrats completely by surprise, and they failed to take any notice of the fact that Mr. Blaine was not entitled to the floor at all, or that the motion he made to have the Judiciary Committee report the facts about the telegram was entirely out of order. Mr. Knott, the chairman, was obliged to admit that he had received a despatch from Caldwell, and the Democrats only recovered their senses in time to prevent a vote on Mr. Blaine's resolution and to refer it to the Committee which it was intended to censure. The apparent success, however, which Mr. Blaine won is, unless we are greatly mistaken, more than spoiled by the character of the letters he produced. Some of these relate to business affairs not having anything to do with the present investigation, but all of them show that as Speaker of the House he was deeply involved in railroads always in need of legislation, while one or two look more like direct corruption than anything else. It appears from one of the two letters dated October 4, 1869, that in the March session of that year (Mr. Blaine's first term as Speaker) a bill renewing the land-grant to the State of Arkansas for the Little Rock road came up, and an attempt was made to saddle the bill with a fatal amendment not germane to its purpose. According to Mr. Blaine's letter, 'Root and the other members from Arkansas, who were doing their best for their own bill, were in despair,' and quite naturally, for, says Mr. Blaine, 'it was well known,' if the attempt had succeeded, 'the whole thing would have gone on the table (in the Senate) and slept the sleep of death.' Root came to Blaine and asked what he could do, and Blaine got him out of the scrape by sending his own page to General Logan, and telling the latter to make the point that the amendment was not germane. This was done, the point was sustained by Mr. Blaine, and the bill at once passed. In this way the land-grant, which was the basis for the subsequent speculation, was secured. Almost immediately afterward (June 29) we find Mr. Blaine writing to Warren Fisher, 'Your offer to admit me to a participation in the new railroad enterprise is in every respect as generous as I could expect or desire,' and suggesting that, if Caldwell desires to dispose of an interest in it, he should 'make the proposition definite'; and making the following offer of services, the nature of which may be inferred: 'I do not feel that I shall prove a deadhead in the enterprise, if I once embark in it. I see various channels in which I know I can be useful.' The negotiations with the Little Rock road now began, and it is evident that Caldwell did not do all that Blaine expected, for on October 4 he writes the letter to Warren Fisher, giving the history of the passage of the land-grant act by his assistance, and suggesting to Fisher to tell the story to Caldwell, and point out to him that he (Blaine) had, without knowing it at the time, done him 'a great favor.' Not satisfied with this, he writes another letter on the same subject on the same day, in which he refers to Fisher's advice to him 'to make as much as I [Mr. Blaine] fairly can' out of the 'arrangement,' and replies that it would be only 'natural' for him to do his 'utmost to this end.' As these letters contain the real history of the transaction, it is interesting to turn to Mr. Blaine's explanation on the floor of the House a month ago, and see how far the two agree. He there represented that the Little Rock 'Company derived its life, franchise, and value wholly from the State of Arkansas.' It now appears that in 1869 he represented to the projectors of the road that the land-grant was due to the Congressional act of that year and to his own exertions in their behalf. It appears also that he was 'let into' the road immediately after these exertions, so that his first statement, that he invested in the securities as he might in any others, is completely exploded. In fact, the letters are a very damaging exposure.

"Under these circumstances, the shouting of his friends over his 'pluck' and his chastisement of the Democrats is amazing. His newspaper defenders talk as if he were a criminal on trial, who is perfectly justified in any audacious move by which he can escape the penitentiary—the fact being that he is a candidate for the Presidency of the United States, who has been working hard for the nomination, and whose integrity has never been impeached until now, and that what the public want to know is not whether he ought to be in the penitentiary, but whether he is, as he ought to be, a person so stainless and so far above reproach that the chief-magistracy of this great nation, with its vast powers, may, in a time of great corruption and disorder, be safely committed to his hands. From this point of view, his deep sense of the privacy of private letters, and his unwillingness to let the world read a harmless and honorable business correspondence, and his eager committal of his honor to the custody of Messrs. Black and Carpenter, followed by his cool production, as proofs of his innocence, of evidence directly to the contrary, wear the appearance of sorry farce. There appears to be no question that he sold Little Rock and Fort Smith bonds on commission, and this suggests the enquiry whether he was not selling the Northern Pacific 'interest' on commission too?"

GENERAL SCHOFIELD'S ORDER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The good opinion of the *Nation* is so highly valued, and the manifest sense of justice of that paper is so highly appreciated, as to induce me to offer a correction of a slight misapprehension involved in your comments in the last issue of the *Nation* upon an order issued by General Schofield

to the corps of cadets. The guilt or innocence of the corps of cadets is not, and *was not at the time the order was issued*, as you suppose, "the very point under judicial investigation." The question of their connection with the Whittaker affair had been fully investigated by their immediate commanding officer, the "Commandant of Cadets," *before the present court of enquiry was appointed* by General Schofield. Each and every cadet had, on his word of honor, denied any knowledge of or participation in the affair. And I wish to call your attention to one point which does not seem to be generally known: if any officer or cadet makes a false statement, or answers falsely any question put to him, he can be tried by court-martial for "conduct unbecoming an officer and gentleman." The punishment for this offence is obligatory, and is dismissal from the service. Any cadet, therefore, testifying falsely on his word of honor runs the risk of undergoing a punishment and a disgrace almost equal, in his mind, to that he would suffer if he had testified under oath and had to endure the punishment inflicted by a civil court for perjury. Cadet honor, therefore, is no theory (as has been assumed by most of the press), but a real thing, guarded and protected by a penalty fixed by legislative enactment for any violation of it. To this should also be added the power of tradition, association, and custom, which tend to make the cadet very careful of any false statement. If the cadets had known the guilty person or persons in the Whittaker affair, and had wished to screen him or them from discovery, they would not have testified falsely, but would have refused to answer the questions put to them. There is no case on record at the Academy where the cadets as a body have ever endeavored to screen the guilty by falsehood; there have been cases where they have refused to answer for that purpose.

The innocence of the corps of cadets was fully established to the satisfaction of the Commandant of Cadets and General Schofield, and the result was officially and publicly declared. The Commandant reported *his* conclusion that Cadet Whittaker, himself *alone*, had done the deed. He, Whittaker, upon being informed (as is customary and proper) of this report, demanded a court of enquiry that he might exonerate himself. The court was appointed for *that purpose*, and, of course, incidentally to ascertain who did it if he did not. In connection with this I desire also to call your attention to the 115th Article of War, which grants the power to appoint courts of enquiry:

"Art. 115. A court of enquiry to examine into the nature of any transaction of, or accusation against, any officer or soldier, may be ordered by the President, or by any commanding officer; but, as courts of enquiry may be perverted to dishonorable purposes, and may be employed, in the hands of weak and envious commandants, as engines for the destruction of military merit, they shall never be ordered by any commanding officer except upon a demand by the officer or soldier whose conduct is to be enquired of."

There was not, when the court assembled, the slightest ground of official suspicion that the cadets had had anything whatever to do with the outrage. In the order issued by General Schofield it is stated "that the outrage, even if committed by some of their number, was justly felt as no less an outrage on the whole corps." That sentence referred to the feeling manifested by the corps and expressed to General Schofield on the morning when the outrage was discovered. It did not mean that when the *order was issued* General Schofield considered as a possibility that two or three of the cadets were guilty. Yet, to satisfy, if possible, a public demand, all the cadets were again examined under oath, as they had been before on their honor, and yet from the testimony of all witnesses not even a ground of suspicion was found against any of the cadets. Notwithstanding all this, the partisan public press accused them of conspiring by falsehood to conceal the guilty! The object of the order was to repel these insulting accusations and publicly announce the fact in a formal manner, as had been repeatedly done informally, that the cadets were not on trial, were not under investigation, and were not even suspected of any offence in connection with the Whittaker outrage. Was it necessary to let a corps of honorable young men rest under such imputations when it was known by him to whose official protection they were entitled that they were innocent?

That the order would be misconstrued was fully foreseen, but that it was based upon full knowledge of the facts will clearly appear in due time, as well as that it was a simple act of justice to the young men entitled to General Schofield's protection.

Besides, it should not be forgotten that the possible presence of one, two, three, or even four criminals in a body of soldiers should not be held to deprive the corps as such of the credit due to honorable conduct, nor to subject them to the imputation, in flat defiance of all the facts, of criminal conspiracy to shield their guilty comrades. It was against such unjust accusations against the corps of cadets as a body that Order No. 14 was directed.—Very truly yours,

WM. M. WHERRY, Bvt.-Colonel U. S. Army.

WEST POINT, N. Y., May 7, 1880.

[We criticised the general order solely with reference to its effect on the public mind. That this effect was unfortunate we think there can be no question, for the order did not serve the purpose for which it was intended by relieving the cadets of the imputation of connection with the Whittaker outrage. The reason is the very simple one that, however satisfactory the denial of the cadets under oath may be to their official superiors, the public is not accustomed to have suspicions of criminal conduct disposed of in that way. The civil courts, with whose procedure it is familiar, do not allow a denial by suspected persons to take the place of regular investigation through the examination of witnesses, and the attack and defence of counsel; and General Schofield's apparent assumption that no such investigation was in this case necessary, irritated a great many even of those most friendly to the School.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

WE unintentionally, in common with many other journals, overlooked a significant part of J. R. Osgood & Co.'s announcement, which described the new copartnership as formed for "carrying on *the publishing business* and the business of the Heliotype Printing Co." To some of the published works taken over from the firm of Houghton, Osgood & Co. we have already alluded.——'Ancient Rome, and its Connection with the Christian Religion,' by the Rev. Henry Formby, is in the press of J. B. Lippincott & Co.——The *Literary World* prints a sample of an advance sheet from an 'Index to Shakspere' which Little, Brown & Co. will publish in the course of a year. The compiler is Mr. John Bartlett, author of the well-known 'Dictionary of Familiar Quotations.'——The second volume of Heilprin's 'Historical Poetry of the Ancient Hebrews' will now very shortly appear. The publishers are D. Appleton & Co.——R. Worthington announces for June 1 'Curiosities of Puritan Nomenclature,' by C. W. Bewdsley.——Bulletin No. 53 of the Boston Public Library begins Part III. ("Literary History") of its Bibliography of the Renaissance in Italy. ——The New York Free Circulating Library has opened rooms at No. 36 Bond Street, and solicits contributions of money (payable to the Treasurer, Mr. Levi P. Morton, 25 Nassau Street), books and periodicals. An annual fee of five dollars secures membership in the association.——A new Geographical Library Society has just been incorporated in this city, and is intended to be free and public. Among its trustees the officers and friends of the American Geographical Society are conspicuous.——The latest aid to education on trial in Massachusetts is a little publication of four to six pages, serving as a news abstract and called "Topics of the Day," which is issued on the first of each month under the direction of the Superintendent of schools at Worcester. The idea is good, but the editing of the fourth number (the only one we have seen) we cannot praise very highly. The abstract, nevertheless, we are told has been in use for several months "with very satisfactory results." Copies may be procured at $3 a hundred of Superintendent A. P. Marble. ——A different sort of aid is promised in *Le Français*, a monthly review of grammar and literature, of which the prospectus is before us. Numerous efforts to stimulate and direct the study of French have been made by means of periodicals edited in this country, but none, so far as we know, has succeeded. M. Jules Lévy, who has devised *Le Français*, is a highly-esteemed teacher in Boston, and has borne a prominent part in recent discussions of the best mode of teaching foreign languages. We should expect of him good judgment and taste in the selection of his matter, and a wholesome discrimination in making his list of "livres recommandés." The first number, a small quarto of 12 pages, will appear on October 5 of this year, and the publication will regularly be suspended during the summer. M. Lévy's address is Hotel Lafayette, Boston.——The first *livraison* of the much-needed new edition of Vapereau's 'Contemporains' has appeared in Paris.——We find mention in *Polybiblion* of a new monthly publication at Nantes (by Mennier, 1 Place Royale), *La Bretagne Artistique*, to commence July 1, and to be devoted to art in the western departments of France. Each part will consist of 32 pages, and be illustrated by 12 engravings. The subscription price is 48 francs.——A familiar mania will be gratified by possession or sight of

the sumptuous 'Inventaire des autographes et documents historiques réunis par M. Benjamin Fillon, décrits par Étienne Charavay' (Paris: Charavay frères). Several hundred facsimiles are given in the two volumes—of signatures and long pieces of MS. by the most famous personages.——Last month E. Plon & Cie., Paris, began issuing in fifteen parts 'Les Maîtres Ornemanistes,' by D. Guilmard, a catalogue and book of reference at once for the names of artists more or less devoted to ornamentation, and the collections and works in which the art is illustrated. Numerous engravings in the text and 180 separate plates will enhance the value of this publication.——F. W. Christern will receive subscriptions for a curious Italian work, of which the edition is limited: 'Di due astrolabj in caratteri cufici occidentali, trovati in Valdagno,' these instruments representing the two principal types of the Arabian astrolabe. Six heliotype plates enable them to be studied with ease.——The marriage of George Eliot to Mr. John Walter Cross is announced by cable.——Amounting to the most useful of "stage directions," 'Le Costume Historique,' by Racinet (Bouton), continues to promulgate the most necessary information for the theatrical manager, the costumer, or the historical painter. Part VIII., recently received, contains a restoration of an interior from Speke Hall, near Liverpool, complete with its sixteenth-century Tudor furniture and the dresses of its inmates. In another line, and derived from the seals to ancient documents, are the armors of Charlemagne's knights or Saint Louis' crusaders, depicted in gold and colors from the effigies of the Paris Museum of Artillery. Six embroidered nightcaps of the "grand siècle," emblazoned with love-mottoes by the affianced wife—one from Venice and owned by the Baron Davilliers—are not the least interesting of M. Racinet's odds and ends. The present *livraison* is not behind its predecessors in oddity and quaint value.——The reminiscences of Turner derived from the Narraway family, of Bristol, and published in the April *Portfolio* (J. W. Bouton), perhaps supply a useful confirmation of the authenticity of the Welsh picture ascribed to him, and exhibited for some time at Mr. Moore's gallery in this city under the title of "Conway Castle." The legend of a Turnerian tour in Wales is contrary to the assertion of some biographers that the painter never went further west than Bristol. But here is the niece of his patron, John Narraway, coming forward with an assertion that he borrowed a saddle and pony for a Welsh excursion about 1791 or 2, "and never returned the pony." Another old lady, a friend of the family, confirms in 1879 the story of Turner's impounding his Pegasus, but insists that he "restored the saddle." This charming little scandal fixes Turner in Wales, by one of those little convicting pieces that never get out of people's heads, at the date wanted for the authenticity of the Moran picture.

—"An Old Subscriber" convicts us of injustice to the *Home Journal* in our recent notice of its "fonetic experiment." That paper did not, as we implied, set up a system of its own, but simply followed the five new rules of the Spelling Reform Association, which is composed, as our correspondent truly says, "of many of the foremost scholars in the American Philological Association," and has the full sanction of that learned body. We confess that we have never committed these rules to heart, and that the *Home Journal's* extensive display of testimonials to its right behavior made us forget that it was celebrating its own courage rather than its originality. However, we should like our remark to stand, as it may possibly apply to the Chicago *Tribune*, for example, if not to the *Home Journal;* and we do not mind adding that in our opinion no phonetic experiments should be tried without an Anglo-Saxon and perhaps a European consensus. The former, at least, should not be difficult to obtain; and at the last-reported meeting of the English Spelling Reform Association (see the *Athenæum* of April 24) a paper was read on international spelling reform, in which the Rev. W. S. Lach-Szyrma "discussed the possibility of framing a system which, beyond English, should include all the important languages of the civilized world," and "concluded by suggesting a congress of spelling reformers" to that end. The *Athenæum* intimates that such a congress may be held this autumn.

—The Society for Photographing Relics of Old London has chosen for its sixth year's issue a subject possessing a transatlantic interest. We might say more, because Thackeray's admirers are not wanting in any English-haunted portion of the globe; and because no one who has read 'The Newcomes,' and particularly chapters lxxv, lxxix., and lxxx., can forget the Grey Friars—"where the Colonel, and Clive, and I had been brought up." The Society will give twelve views, Nos. 37–48, of the Charterhouse, viz., General View from Charterhouse Square, Preacher's Court, Wash-house Court, Cloisters, Great Hall—one exterior and three interior views, Grand Staircase, Governor's Room, Entrance to Chapel, and Founder's Tomb—this last being in the nature of an illustration of Thackeray's "Founder's Day at Grey Friars." The historical associations of Charterhouse, and the unusual beauty of the subjects, which are, by the way, reproduced in permanent photography, ought to ensure the present series a liberal American patronage. The size of the plates is 10 x 8 in., and of the mounts 18 x 14 in., and the price twenty-one shillings, whether mounted or unmounted. Subscriptions must be paid in advance to Mr. Alfred Marks, Long Ditton, Surrey. We should add that all the issues of previous years are still obtainable at the same rate of a guinea the dozen.

—On the 18th of February the Trustees of the Peabody Education Fund met in Washington, and Dr. Sears, the General Agent, announced that "the new policy of concentrating our efforts mainly on Normal Schools is received with great favor" at the South, the qualification of teachers being now "a topic of absorbing interest in all the States," and the tendency of State systems of education since 1877 having been steadily upward. "The judgment of the people is settled on this subject, and there is no danger of a reversal of the decision. Every State but one has a General Superintendent, and that one has a salaried Secretary of the Board of Education." Two of the chief drawbacks, besides lack of popular interest in education and insufficient funds, are "the practice of dropping experienced and skilful superintendents and other school officers to make way for political partisans," and the withholding by State legislatures of the power of local taxation for the support of schools The Fund expended last year for public schools $10,000; for normal schools, agencies, teachers' institutes, etc., $28 500; Nashville scholarships, $16,600. The significant action of the meeting was the adoption of a report, in the form of an elaborate argument, showing the right and duty of Government to assist in educating the colored population of the United States. Historically and ethically this argument seems to us impregnable, and seldom has there been made a more forcible presentation of the danger to the whole country from the enfranchisement of the blacks, not as blacks, but as an ignorant class of whom by far the greater part are unqualified for a judicious exercise of the right of suffrage. "Their votes may decide the issues of peace or war; they may control Presidential elections and give shape to the policy of the nation." "Justice would seem to demand that when a duty is required of a class of citizens, the means should be afforded to them to discharge it properly." The means proposed are the proceeds of the sales of the public domain, which, as the report shows, has been consistently used to endow a system of public education in the new States, while the Old Thirteen, once the claimants if not the owners of the territory, have received nothing except under the grant for agricultural colleges. The memorial presented to Congress on March 8 expresses the conviction of the Trustees of "the vital necessity of national aid for the education of the colored population of the Southern States, and especially of the great masses of colored children who are growing up to be voters under the Constitution of the United States." Last year Dr. Sears estimated that there were then two millions of children at the South "without the means of instruction," and of these probably more than one-half were colored.

—The annual exhibition of pupils' work at the Art Students' League last week was at once less interesting and more promising than that of either last year or the year before. That is to say, there was less ambitiousness to do "art," and a greater desire to master the rudiments of technique. The work took its proper place as students' work more simply. There were, of course, exceptions to this, and a drawing from the nude model here and there, and notably some pieces of sculpture, betrayed an uneasy attempt to exhibit freedom of treatment and generalization before the rigorously necessary apprenticeship to precision had been served. But in general there was an encouraging look about the rooms, and the absence of decorative panels and the meagre showing of the composition-class a wise observer must have found amply atoned for by the evident fidelity and directness of so much of the work. Several high reliefs showed a good deal of simplicity, and a large way of looking at the model in masses without any premature attention to detail. This, too, was especially plain in the large display made by the portrait class; among the many heads exhibited there were naturally wide degrees of excellence, but it was quite apparent that the effort of almost all the students had been to get at once the essential qualities of the model—its weight and form, rather than its outline, for example, its principal planes and general light and shade rather than any refinement of particular features. The result of this was somewhat startling from a superficial point of view; but bearing in mind that the

work of students should be judged as the practice of potential and not actual artists, any prettinesses in it become irrelevant, and, as the best teachers well know, are inimical to real progress. We believe the League was never in a more prosperous condition.

—One of the curious incidents of the late English canvass was the attempt, by Mr. Gladstone, to divert from Russia the stream of popular prejudice by turning it against Austria. This power, he intimated, and not Russia, was the true enemy of liberty and progress, and so, incidentally, of England. We recur to this, in itself unimportant, remark because of an article in the April number of the *Fortnightly Review* on "The Austrian Counter-Revolution in the Balkans," which discovers an Austrophobia as violent as the Russophobia of the most ardent Jingo. The author, Mr. Arthur J. Evans, who lives in Dalmatia, and who, three or four years ago, wrote an interesting book about the then insurgent provinces, complains bitterly of the favor shown by the ignorant British public to the Austrian plan of becoming the dominant power in south-eastern Europe, and, eventually, of confronting the Russians across the Bosphorus. There are two objections to this, one being that, if the Austrians are allowed to extend their possessions in this direction, they will do so only as the involuntary agents of the Russians, who, on the inevitable collapse of the Hapsburg empire, will reap all that they have sown; and, secondly, the inherent viciousness of Austrian rule. Mr. Evans makes a long list of the imperfections of the new government, but refuses to consider the difficulties of the situation; and writes in a way hardly becoming an Englishman in view of the very slight improvements made in the administration of Cyprus. The general value of his criticisms may be estimated from the tone of the following sentences: "The Austrians," he says, "have abrogated the old, iniquitous system of tax-farming, but they have wrung more taxes from provinces half ruined by a civil war than the Turks did in the period which preceded it. They have removed the religious disabilities that weighed upon the rayah, but they have substituted an anti-national persecution felt more keenly by the Serbian bulk of the population than was ever the contemptuous bigotry of a Mahometan caste. They have put an end for ever to the wholesale murder and outrage of a reign of terror, but they have brought with them the slow and subtle poison that exhales from their own political corruption." It has been thought that the necessarily federal character of the Austrian state, which secures peace and material prosperity amid such a jangling of creeds and languages as no other government has had to deal with, peculiarly fitted it to establish and to maintain order in the anarchical Turkish provinces; but Mr. Evans thinks differently.

—A good companion to Mr. Freeman's last volume of essays, which has so much to say of Byzantine and modern Greek history, is 'Die Griechen des Mittelalters,' three lectures delivered in Marseilles by Demetrius Bikélas (a Greek), translated into German by Dr. Wilhelm Wagner, and published at Gütersloh. This high honor of translation into German is deserved, not by original scholarship, for the work does not profess this, but by its clear and forcible popular presentation of a view which has only just begun to be recognized in Western Europe. To English readers, indeed, it is not so new, for it is to the Englishman Finlay that we owe the first vindication of the Byzantine Empire and the Greeks of the Middle Ages. But Finlay's works are hardly known out of a small circle, so that Mr. Freeman is the real champion of this view—and this, as we know, only very recently. But the Germans, if we are not mistaken, have no Freeman to present this aspect of history vividly before them. Not that German scholarship has neglected this any more than other fields of history; the great works of Hopf and Hertzberg are exhaustive treatises, and Bikélas mentions Krause's smaller work, 'Die Byzantiner des Mittelalters,' with high commendation. But Finlay is his chief authority, and, at any rate, none of these Germans is a popular writer like Freeman. It is not that this new view is all eulogy. The fatal defects of Byzantine society, in its destitution of political freedom and its devotion to empty theological disputes, are strongly stated (p. 96). But the author insists with equal emphasis upon the service performed by Constantinople in preserving the traditions of antiquity, in the admirable organization of its government, and even—a less familiar view than the other—in its better social morality; and points out in some detail the influence it exerted upon commerce and industry in Western Europe. These last points are of especial interest, and we may say novelty; the others will be found excellently stated in Mr. Freeman's essays.

—M. Wallon's 'Un Collège de Jésuites' (Paris: Charpentier) is noteworthy for a common-sense suggestion which is worth much more than the heated arguments, the violence and sarcasm, of both sides in the present clerico-educational controversy in France. He is a firm Catholic, but he does not believe in the subjection of the state to the church—still less, of course, of the church to the state; and not, apparently, regarding the example of America as of much account, he considers the separation of church and state as an impracticable and even dangerous Utopia. But he believes that an agreement ought to be and could be made between Rome and France, limiting the number of monks and priests of every kind. It is a serious evil, he urges, both for the church and the nation, that an unproductive class should increase and get rich without limit. A country where each family among the directing classes has need of two or three priests as instructors, directors, confessors to keep it in the right path, is a country which wastes its forces and where virtue costs too much, and it will not long be able to resist its neighbors in the struggle for existence. This thoroughly modern application of political economy and Darwinism to the affairs of religion savors too strongly of rationalism, we fear, to recommend it to the authorities of the church and the pious souls who support it.

—Perhaps the most delicate of all the changes introduced from without into Japan was that involving the ultimate substitution of Western medical practice for the prevailing Chinese, native, and mixed systems. In few of its reforms has the Government shown greater tact and sagacity. On our table lie two pamphlets, one containing a complete history of this medical revolution ('First and Second Annual Reports of the Central Sanitary Bureau of the Home Department of the Imperial Japanese Government, July 1, 1875-1877'), and the other being a report of the director of this Bureau, Mr. Nazayo Sensai, on choleraic diseases in Japan during the year 1877. The Sanitary Bureau (Yei-sei-Kioku) was originally instituted in June, 1873, as a Bureau of Medical Affairs (Imukioku) in connection with the Department of Education, from which it was transferred to its present connection just two years later. It drew up a sanitary code based upon those of Europe and America, and therefore only partly applicable to Japan in existing circumstances; for which reason no attempt was made to enforce it universally or in all its details. The course adopted was to regulate the sale of drugs and medicines by compulsory analysis; to prescribe qualifications for license to sell them or to practise medicine in future, leaving undisturbed the apothecaries and doctors already plying their vocations; to order the registration of deaths; and to provide against disease, endemic or imported, in the ways now common to civilized countries. Laboratories were founded (in March, 1874, and subsequently) for the testing and certification of the purity of medicines, whether foreign or native, and especially for the encouragement of the native manufacture of chemicals, which had been obliged to resort to imitation brands, etc., in order to compete with foreign preparations of not greater worth. In June a central office for collecting and keeping pure vaccine lymph was established at Tokio, and in September vaccination (first introduced by the Dutch in 1849) was made compulsory throughout the Empire. In April, 1876, the inspection of public prostitutes was determined on, and a magazine, the *Yei sei-Kioku Zassi*, founded, as the organ of the Bureau and for the spread of sanitary knowledge among the people. The medical statistics of the first two years form the bulk of the reports above mentioned.

—The Director's report on cholera makes a smaller pamphlet of 55 pages, and, while treating chiefly of the epidemic of 1877, reviews those which preceded in 1822 and 1858. He inclines to the opinion that "cholera, whenever it has been observed in Japan in a great epidemic state, has been *introduced* into this country either from Java or from China; and there are also many reasons for the belief that isolated cases of cholera, and even weak epidemics of choleraic diseases, have always existed and do still exist in Japan in an endemic state." In 1877 the reported number of deaths among males far exceeded that among females; a disproportion caused by the peculiar severity of the disease among the soldiers engaged at Kagoshima in suppressing the revolt of that year.

—A valuable contribution to mediæval history is 'Italienische Politik Papst Innocenz VI.,' by Dr. Emil Werunsky. The pontificate of Innocent VI. (1352–1362) is a turning point in the history of Italy, inasmuch as it was at this time that Cardinal Albornoz—pronounced by Gregorovius "the statesman of greatest genius who ever sat in the College of Cardinals"—re-established order and the authority of the Pope in the States of the Church; and that Charles IV., on his coronation as Emperor, formally and definitively surrendered the claims of the German king to any real authority in Italy—converting the imperial title into a mere dignity. The volume before us, of 204 octavo pages, is intended as an introduction

to the Italian expedition of Charles IV.; and it is itself introduced by three chapters upon the political condition of Italy and its relation to the empire during the first half of the fourteenth century. It is in substance a brief but graphic and instructive history of the peninsula during this period, and is certainly one of the most valuable monographs upon the history of the fourteenth century.

TODD'S PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT. *

IF ever the people of the United States get tired of political fighting over the "war issues," they will find in the relations of the executive to the legislative department of the Government, and of both to the organization of the civil service, a question "burning" enough (to borrow the word in vogue among our neighbors) to occupy their serious and earnest attention. This question is, in fact, the subject of the very attractive book which Mr. Todd, Librarian of the Dominion Parliament, has published under the title given below. Whilst it is apparently intended to be a *vade mecum* for British colonial governors, giving them the application of both principle and precedent to the work of conducting their administrations, it is really a constitutional history, in no inadequate sense, of colonial government. Great Britain has adopted without reserve the policy of giving to all her larger colonies "responsible government" in all local affairs; and this, by fixed usage, means a government by means of a ministry responsible to the legislature, and, therefore, holding office subject to dismissal when the popular representative body shall pass a vote expressing or necessarily implying want of confidence in it. This seems a very simple step, however important the results may be; but a long-established system cannot be changed without embarrassments arising, and from the start the new order of things gave birth to knotty questions which have taxed to the utmost the patience and wisdom of cabinets and colonial secretaries, and severely tested the men who have been assigned the delicate duties of colonial governors.

It would be hard to find anywhere better evidence of the practical sense, the steady, tempered patience which can afford to wait, the rooted confidence in the ultimate judgment of the people, which distinctively mark the English race, than is shown in Mr. Todd's compendium of precedents established by the recent history of the British colonies. One may point to them confidently as exhibiting with the greatest clearness the fundamental reasons why the Anglo-Saxon race has made constant progress in civil liberty and in representative government. The author may have regarded them only as cases to sustain the practical rules of administration which he formulates; but to the student of constitutional history they are full of the interest which precious typical specimens have to the naturalist. In Tasmania and South Africa, in Canada and Australia alike, we see the progressive education of growing communities in free government, under the advice and guidance, never under the coercion, of the experienced statesmen of the imperial ministry of England. The power of the monarchy seems to be felt only to sustain a healthy growth, not to check it; to give dignity and safety to the colony, not to burden it; to help it forward toward maturity and self-reliance, not to make it timid and weak. No American can read this book without a new sense of the long distance, historically and politically, between us and 1776, and a clearer understanding of the reasons why no new Declarations of Independence have been published by British colonies.

A colonial governor, appointed as he is by the Crown, sustains to the parliament of the colony nearly the same relations which the sovereign at home holds to the imperial Parliament. There is this difference, however, that the governor is personally responsible to the appointing power and to the Parliament of Great Britain for his conduct in all that affects the general interests and relations of the empire, whilst the Queen is theoretically irresponsible, her ministry assuming the burden of answering to Parliament and to the country for the constitutionality of the acts advised by them. As to all merely local acts, whether administrative or legislative, the colonial ministry assumes responsibility as fully as the Cabinet in England. An examination of the powers and duties of a governor must, then, be twofold: first, with regard to his relations to imperial interests, and, second, with regard to his relations to the local legislature and the colonial ministry. There is also involved, of course, the delicate enquiry what his duty may be in any conflict of jurisdiction that arises between the colonial government and the imperial administration.

Each of these topics has its independent interest, but the central point of attraction is the discussion of the essential relations between the executive and the ministry, backed as the latter is always supposed to be by a majority in at least the popular branch of Parliament. A colonial governor is assumed to act, in all local matters, by the advice of a Cabinet which consents to be responsible for his acts. He is consequently no more answerable for his policy or conduct than the Queen herself. But since this irresponsibility is conditioned upon the fundamental principle that the Cabinet shall control the policy, or at least "advise and consent" to it, we are at once confronted with the question, Is the executive under this system a mere figure-head, a hollow pageant, or has it real and important duties and substantial influence upon affairs? The publication of Martin's 'Life of the Prince Consort' has been the occasion of a lively discussion in Great Britain, advanced Liberals insisting that the book reveals an effort on the part of the Queen and her late husband to renew the exploded theories of personal government, and to assume personal powers in the state beyond all recent precedent. Mr. Todd begins with a chapter devoted to this subject, in which he refers to Brougham, Grey, Russell, Derby, Gladstone, Disraeli, and Stafford-Northcote, statesmen of different parties, who have explicitly and clearly given testimony to the important and influential work the sovereign may do without transgressing the prescriptive limit which has been recognized since the revolution of 1688. But when it is admitted that the veto power can no longer be exercised, that the power of the House of Commons is practically final and conclusive over all administrative acts and the ministerial policy, and that the Crown cannot act at all except through the responsible ministry (the dismissal of the ministry being, perhaps, the single exception), Americans have found it hard to see what was left of the monarchy in ordinary times except a venerable form, *nominis umbra*. We could see that the perpetuity of the executive might be a safeguard if party strife should verge upon revolution, or afford a rallying-point for law-abiding and patriotic men if anarchy should threaten, and that a wise and constitutional king might then exert powers commonly in abeyance, with good results to the country and no injury to liberty. In the book before us, however, we must confess that we find strong side-lights thrown upon the discussion where we should hardly have looked for them; and in the examination of the sphere of action assigned to a colonial governor, who is in this respect the copy of the royal authority, we are free to admit that we find strong support for the doctrine that the vague term "influence," or the scarcely better-defined one "constitutional criticism," as indicating the sphere of the Crown, may practically and rightly include a public activity broad enough to satisfy the ambition of a large-minded man, and one that may be most advantageous to the country. It would be mere narrowness of mind to deny that a system such as Mr. Todd exhibits may, when fairly carried out, have merits which would be missed in a scheme by which the executive became the mere mouthpiece or the mere arm of power of a partisan ministry.

Let us see, then, what are some of the characteristics of the colonial executive as defined by law, and practically enforced by his instructions and by precedents.

First. He is carefully to avoid all partisanship, to remember that he represents the whole country and not a political party. He is to cultivate impartiality, to recognize the good there may be in all parties, to mediate between their leaders when he properly may, and to impress the people with his earnest desire to promote the general good.

Second. He is to be in fact, as he is authorized to be by law, fully acquainted with the administration of all departments of the Government by his ministers. It is his right and his duty to know all that is done and proposed to be done.

Third. With the impartiality and fulness of knowledge thus indicated, he is to give to his prime minister, as representing the Cabinet, the benefit of his best judgment and frankest criticism upon all measures and matters of business before him, in consultations that shall be hearty and unreserved, and in which his knowledge of affairs and his unbiassed opinions will, by the necessary laws of human nature, have weight in proportion to the sagacity and the good temper with which they may be urged.

Fourth. When a ministry has no longer a working majority to sustain it in Parliament, it is his sole prerogative to decide whether to give it the advantage of an appeal to the constituencies by means of a dissolution of Parliament, or to insist upon allowing the Opposition to exercise their constitutional right of forming a new Cabinet and attempting to carry on the government.

Without going further, it must be plain, to any one who has watched the progress of public affairs at home or abroad, that the position thus

* 'Parliamentary Government in the British Colonies. By Alpheus Todd, Librarian of Parliament, Canada, etc.' Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 8vo, pp. 607.

outlined will be influential or insignificant in proportion to the wisdom and strength of character of the incumbent. He may leave his permanent mark upon the institutions of a colony, and almost upon the character of its people, or he may be known only by his place in the chronology of the Blue Book. Inasmuch as the officers selected for this colonial work have generally been drilled in a severe school of administrative discipline, they have commonly proved able and ready; and the historical incidents cited by Mr. Todd show that they have usually exerted quite as important and marked an influence upon the colonies over which they have presided as any executive in any country ought to do; whilst the system has at the same time prevented any abuse of power, and has given to the local parliaments and cabinets ample checks upon any officials who have been disposed to be headstrong or dictatorial. Some of them, like Lord Dufferin in Canada, have left behind them a solid and well-earned popularity, based upon the belief of the people that they have brought statesman-like intellect, large experience in public business, and sincere interest in the welfare of the country to bear upon all its affairs, and to broaden the policy and liberalize the measures of their ministers.

The application of all this to the case of the Queen in England is very apparent. The characteristics of the gubernatorial office which have been given are only a transcript of those of the Crown in its relations to the British ministry and Parliament. Used as we are in this country to a strong executive, we can see no danger in the full exercise of these powers and influences in England, so long as the ultimate decision and personal responsibility therefor rest upon the Cabinet, and so long as Parliament is untrammelled in applying the remedy of ousting ministers who have lost its confidence, and of imposing upon the whole Government such principles and measures as the nation demands. There is no danger that this will cease to be the case till the people themselves lose their love of liberty, and of this there is no indication. The active participation in public business by the Queen and by Prince Albert in his lifetime seems to us to be thus shown to be a help rather than a hindrance to the various administrations that were formed; and if there have since been, as is sometimes asserted, instances of an attempted undue pressure of the Queen's personal opinions enforced by social penalties, these would only give cause for increased regret at the loss of so calm and rightminded an adviser as the prince. They could not affect the question we have been considering, for it is of the essence of the royal authority, as it has been shown, that it should win its results by wisely-directed influence and the force of sound opinion; and if ever the Crown should resort to other means it would, by abandoning constitutional methods, challenge opposition, stimulate the pride of opinion of ministers, and lose the only valuable vantage-ground it has. It would be in the untenable position of the older kings, from whom responsible government was won, without the strength which they found in the long acquiescence of the people under despotic rule. It would be the Crown and not the Cabinet which would come out of such a contest shorn of its prestige and its strength.

It was, no doubt, the intention of the framers of our Constitution that the powers of the President should be much more nearly those which we have thus described than the incomparably greater ones which he has often exercised. His veto power gives him a positive superiority in itself; but, apart from this, the shameless subjection of the whole civil service to the uses of party electioneering and party rewards makes it only a question of conscience as to how much dictation of measures he may exercise as the price of so much distribution of patronage. A Jackson and a Grant have been practically dictators, whilst a Hayes permits the current of public business to proceed more nearly as the Constitution intended. The "personal government" we experienced from 1870 to 1876 was something nobody would charge Disraeli with dreaming of, and the "Strong Man" cry of the present day shows that our people have quite as much need of studying such books as this we are noticing as the people for whom it was professedly written.

Woman's Work and Worth. By W. H. Davenport Adams. (New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co. 1880.)—This volume is a plea for the mental power of woman, and a very full statistical account of the higher educational institutions for woman in England. The plea is based on an historical statement of what woman has already accomplished—on her record, so to speak; it opens with a eulogistic reference to a great number of women who have been celebrated in history and fiction as exemplary mothers, wives, or maidens, with especial mention of the elderly members of the latter class, and proceeds to catalogue the names of more women who have written books than any biographical dictionary contains, and to gather up the somewhat scanty records of the sex in art and the anecdotes of its career upon the stage. From the multiplicity of facts thus painstakingly collected, and arranged amid an abundance of appropriate quotations from poets and clergymen, the author concludes that the mental inferiority of women hitherto is not a result of sex, but of lack of opportunity. He admits that these distinguished women are exceptional, but so, he says, are distinguished men; he takes no account of the fact that the exceptional men outnumber the exceptional women enormously, and that the work of the best among the latter remains inferior in excellence to that of the best among the former, and he probably ascribes these facts to differences in the surroundings and not in the physical structure. A man, nevertheless, who holds this sanguine theory must find it depressing to reflect that the tale of all the important achievements of woman in the liberal arts, and many which are unimportant, can be crowded into less than one-half of this volume.

The fact is that the plea for the higher education of woman does not need to be justified by showing her intellectual equality with man; if it is probable that valuable results will ordinarily accrue to women in consequence of their enjoying the same opportunities for mental cultivation that men enjoy, that is enough, and practically there is no longer any discussion of this question in intelligent circles. The movement in the interest of woman, in so far as it is an intellectual movement toward higher culture, or an industrial movement toward providing means of independent support for women who would otherwise be in want or idleness, is in the full career of success. The only practical questions in respect to it relate to the best methods of obtaining the desired educational results, and of directing the industrial activity of women into those channels where there will be the least competition of brute force and the most valuable reward for both the individual and society.

These questions are dealt with in the latter and better portion of Mr. Adams's book; or, rather, he does not so much deal with them as show by statistics what has actually been done in England for the education and employment of women. There is not anywhere else so full and complete a statement of the various schools, colleges, and societies which have this matter in charge, of their system of government, routine of study, examinations, and in general their methods and aims. As with all statistical statements, the value of this depends on the insight and knowledge of the reader; Mr. Adams does not ground any theory of his own upon the facts, but presents them for the information and guidance of men interested in the education of women. It is a pity that the volume was not cut in two, and the latter portion printed separately; but, apart from its sentimentality, the former portion is not without a certain value as a repository of anecdote and a cyclopædia of women's books. The author's acquaintance with this branch of literature is remarkably extensive, although he seems to be troubled by his not having read the poetical effusions of Mrs Monk, and confesses his fault "with shame." His literary judgments are not always sound, but as he quotes plentifully from better critics there is no great harm done. Finally, there is no mention whatever of woman's worth in politics, or her rights, duties, and privileges as a citizen.

The Crayfish: An Introduction to the Study of Zoölogy. By T. H. Huxley, F.R.S. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880. 8vo, pp. x.-371. Illustrated.)—The title of this work conveys very little idea of its scope or importance. Though modestly named "an introduction to the study of zoölogy," it discusses and solves, as far as possible with present science, all the general problems which have occupied the attention of zoölogists in recent times. It is in reality a model study in zoölogy. For advanced students, or instructors who make it their mission to train observers, its value can hardly be overestimated. There is probably no man living more competent than Prof. Huxley to write the story of an animal in all its bearings. His choice of the crayfish was evidently determined by the smallness of the genus and family to which it belongs, its wide distribution, and the ease with which it can be secured and handled. Beginning with common knowledge or natural history, the reader is led in the most natural way to the results of the latest researches in physiology, morphology, embryology, classification, distribution, and ætiology. The definitions and comparisons are of the clearest and most concise. From beginning to end there is little a student of moderate ability cannot comprehend. As in other of the author's works, there are innovations in regard to which there will be more or less difference of opinion. Names with which we have grown familiar are dropped for new ones, the uniformity of the series proposed instead being certainly in their favor. The author interprets the facts in his own way; and, where differing with others, devotes no space to proving them wrong. He does not

find as many somites in the body as Milne-Edwards. The eye-stalks are homologized with the legs. With a slight modification Müller's theory of mosaic vision is adopted. Notwithstanding the great amount that is new, one cannot avoid the impression that the work of others has been to a considerable extent ignored. This might have been prevented by references in the index and bibliography.

Discussing the question of the possession of consciousness or a mind, p. 126, we are told that

"At the most, one may be justified in supposing the existence of something approaching dull feeling in ourselves; and so far as such obscure consciousness accompanies the molecular changes of its nervous substance, it will be right to speak of the mind of a crayfish. But it will be obvious that it is merely putting the cart before the horse, to speak of such a mind as a factor in the work done by the organism, when it is merely a dim symbol of a part of such work in the doing."

And this after we have been informed, p. 36, that upon exuviation "the new integuments remain soft for a period which varies from one to three days; and it is a curious fact that the animal appears to be quite aware of its helplessness, and governs itself accordingly"—that is, exhibits the wildest terror at first, and gains confidence as its integuments harden; that, p. 38, the creature voluntarily amputates limbs to free itself when held by the claws, or to prevent bleeding to death when wounded; and that, p. 42, when the young are creeping about the mother, "if they spy the least sign of danger, or there is any unusual movement in the water, it seems as if the mother recalled them by a signal; for they all at once swiftly return under her tail, and gather into a cluster, and the mother hies to a place of safety with them as quickly as she can." These are not the actions of automatons.

Science and ordinary knowledge are well compared in the opening chapter:

"Common sense is science exactly in so far as it fulfils the ideal of common sense—that is, sees facts as they are, or, at any rate, without the distortion of prejudice, and reasons from them in accordance with the dictates of sound judgment. And science is simply common sense at its best; that is, rigidly accurate in observation, and merciless to fallacy in logic. . . . The course of nature as it is, as it has been, and as it will be, is the object of scientific enquiry; whatever lies beyond, above, or below this, is outside science."

Many persons will infer from this that, in the opinion of the author, whatever is supernatural is outside common sense.

L'Art. Tome XIX. (Paris: A. Ballue; New York: J. W. Bouton.—The dispersal of the San Donato treasures has dissipated the integrity of an important collection, and now the only place where these rarities can resume their old neighborhood and companionship is in the rich illustrated catalogue prepared by the publishers of *L'Art*, or, what is much the same thing, in the society of other good specimens among the pages of *L'Art* itself. This comprehensive journal has constituted its numbers the special chroniclers of the sale, whose great success has depended largely on its literary and illustrative aid. Thus, in the nineteenth quarterly volume there is a series of five chapters by Paul Leroy, entertainingly written, on the Pratolino and its gardens and its collections, and on the line of Princes Demidoff, Nicolas, Anatole, and Paul, who have successively filled it with treasure. Of these special chapters thirty-four pages are illustrated, many with several cuts apiece; and there are larger embellishments interspersed, of the full size permitted by the folio page of *L'Art*, now representing a Louis Quinze silver ewer, now etching one of the modish Louis Quinze philanthropy-pictures—in the false Greuze style, and playing off upon art the affectations of Rousseau in literature—such as Freudenberger's "Horoscope Realized," here copied; the collector indeed, as is apt to be the case with all votaries of the passion as such, has brought together a mass rich in all sorts of decadences.

The real strength of the volume, however, is the variety and versatility it contrives to show while so heavily handicapped with the duties of genteel catalogue-making. It would be hard to detect any present decline in the alertness of attention and the cosmopolitan interest always shown by this journal where matters of art are concerned. Thus, there is an article full of charm and home-feeling, by Alfred Robaut, showing Corot decorating his friend's country-house and a village church, and willingly committing himself, as the illustrations reveal, to figure compositions or views of unvisited capitals, because a dear companion or a rustic priest desired him. Another readable paper is Burty's on Edwin Edwards, an English lawyer-artist, whose twisted screens of boughs and twigs, making strange unities out of natural piecemeal, seem to have been inspired by Tissot. There is a historical study on Francesca da Rimini, by Yriarte, made acceptable in an art-journal merely by its illustrations, and annotating the unfortunate lady in the strictest prose; nothing, indeed, could light up better a great poet's mode of generalizing and concentrating facts than this contrasted chronicle, which shows Francesca's leisurely and protracted intrigue with a married brother-in-law. Another contribution to history, very fully illustrated, is the investigation of a drawing found not long ago at Munich (of which a copy was published in 1877 in the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*), supposed to represent Leonardo's lost statue of Francesco Sforza. This sketch has been variously asserted, since its discovery, to be by Pollajuolo or by a German, but the present writer, M. Courajod, makes out a strong case for its Italian origin at least, and shows its marked resemblance to various bits in Leonardo's authentic drawings. The series on "vandalism," which at various times has rapped the knuckles of various governments, is narrowed down to a simple complaint of the decay of a Florentine Del Sarto fresco, in the present volume, which otherwise contrives to fill its usual measure of spiced variety, notwithstanding San Donato.

The large etchings are of the greatest excellence, fully representing the art as known to-day in its most deliberate and least impromptu expression. Flameng copies the striking subject by Laurens, representing the deliverance of victims walled up at Carcassonne; in this picture, most sympathetically rendered by the needle, we see once again the painter's hesitation between true art and a tendency imposed on him by love of melodrama and literary vehemence. The etched portraits of Chardin, after La Tour, and Duquesnoy or Fiammingo, from Vandyck, are valuable documents exquisitely printed. In the full spirit of modern collectorship, and welcome to an enormous constituency no doubt, are the etchings of such sensational pictures as "Sarah Bernhardt," by Bastien-Lepage (etched by Champollion), "La Comtesse de V." of Duran (in aquafortis by Lurat), and Leibl's "Peasants," a painting which came to France for the Exposition like an invasion of the Goths, made instantaneous fortune and found prompt French purchase, and has erected Leibl proudly in French esteem for the remainder of time. One more etching of singular beauty is the plate by Waltner of Rubens's "Young Lions," declared by *L'Art*, and very truly, to be marvellous, and "quite exempt from that sorry, worn-out look, the result of hasty processes and studio *ficelles* or expedients, which make the commercial coppers of Waltner so unequal." This, one of several pictures of lions executed by Rubens in a series, is further declared by *L'Art* to be the best of the number, and is interesting to Americans, its replica from the Fesch gallery being now the property of our Metropolitan Museum, and one of the most vivid pictures there.

The volume succeeding the above-described, and forming the first quarterly instalment of *L'Art* for the present year, gives an appetizing hint of the editor's intentions for 1880. The series of papers by M. Eugène Muntz on old Florentine collectors, connoisseurs, and archæologists of the early Renaissance promises much on a fascinating theme. An article by M. de Rouchard on the fragmentary "Victory of Samothrace" perhaps shows a little natural French hurry to forestall, with the account of a striking Louvre acquisition, the importunate pride of Berlin in its Olympia statues and Pergamos frieze. "Mérimée as Art-critic," whose dry, cheerless sagacity would inevitably have fatigued Paris but for his habitual reticence, is discussed by M. Tourneaux with a heartiness and sympathy of which the subject certainly was not above the need. San Donato absorbs a share of the volume, with more of the agreeable narrative of M. Paul Leroy, and with good etchings by Mongin and Chauvel after Coypel's "Birth of Venus" and Philippe Koninck's "Guelderland."

A Handbook to Modern Greek. By Edgar Vincent, Coldstream Guards, and T. G. Dickson. With a preface by Professor J. S. Blackie. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.)—Probably very few of our readers know, or care to know, that the Greeks of the present day have two languages—namely, the language used by four or five million people, and the artificial language of newspapers and pamphlets, to which the grammar before us seems to be intended as an introduction. So far as *inflections* are concerned, this newly-made dialect has the appearance of ancient Greek, but its spirit is French, German, and even English. The writers of pamphlets and the editors of newspapers are, as a body, radically ignorant of the classical language. The words they use are picked out of French-Greek and German-Greek dictionaries. Not unfrequently they enrich their vocabulary by forming fantastic com-

pounds after the analogy of the principal languages of Western Europe, such as *ἀμεροληψία, impartiality; ἀρνησικυρία*, a president's *veto; ἐκδρομή, excursion; ἐμπεριστατωμένως, circumstantially; ἐτυμηγορία, verdict* of a jury; *ψυχραιμία, sang-froid*, and a host of others. Words like *ἔνστιγμα, instinct; στέμμα, stem* in grammar; *λάμπα, lamp; συμπίλημα, compilation*, owe their existence to ignorance. But how can the English Hellenists endure the *fashionable* use of the second person plural for the second person singular in a language purporting to be Greek?

A modern Greek grammar should represent the language of the nation as exhibited in its popular and original literature. To talk here about short syllables and long syllables is to propound riddles. The modern Greeks have no conception whatever of quantitative melody, rhythm, or metre. As to the obsolete letters, Digamma, Koppa, and San, they belong to palæography.

A few years ago it was asserted by a Parisian doctor that the New Testament was the first modern Greek book that ever appeared. Now all good scholars know that this book was written by Jews whose knowledge of Greek was small; and it is well known that the pagan Greeks of the second and subsequent centuries regarded its dialect with contempt. If the New Testament is the earliest specimen of modern Greek, how happens it that the style of the Greek Fathers, most of whom wrote in the language of common life, differs from that of the sacred books? We must state here that the Atticists of the second century attempted to revive the Attic dialect, of course without success. Not many years ago one of their descendants, Panagiótis Soútsos, a Phanariot, conceived the great idea—probably in connection with the other *great idea* (the restoration of the Byzantine Empire)—of restoring the language of ancient Greece. He was considered by his admirers as highly qualified to head this movement, for he wrote modern Greek verses (not poetry) with ease. Further, he knew more French than ancient Greek, and of course he could use French-Greek dictionaries better than anybody else. But his ignorance was exposed by one of the leading professors in the University of Athens. The modern Athenians have not yet learned that languages are not manufactured to order.

The Sidereal Messenger of Galileo Galilei, and a part of the Preface to Kepler's 'Dioptrics,' containing the original account of Galileo's Astronomical Discoveries. A translation, with introduction and notes, by Edward Stafford Carlos, M.A., Head Mathematical Master in Christ's Hospital. (London: Rivingtons; New York: Pott, Young & Co. 1880. Pp. xi.-111.)—The next best thing to having a fresh, youthful, and vigorous sensation is having an account of it. In 1609 Galileo was forty-five years old and a professor of mathematics in Padua, endowed with a doubting and active mind. He hears that a Dutchman (Lippersley) has made a telescope. He makes one, two, several himself, and finally succeeds in getting a glass which magnifies the diameters of things thirty times and their surfaces nine hundred times. Such a glass, as Kepler says, is "more precious than any sceptre; is not he who holds it in his hand made king and lord of all the works of God?" Two months after, he publishes his 'Siderius Nuncius' (Venice, 1610), and in it he tells what he has seen and done. The very title-page of it is the announcement of a new era: 'The Sidereal Messenger, unfolding great and marvellous sights and proposing them to the attention of every one, but especially philosophers and astronomers, being such as have been observed by Galileo Galilei, a gentleman of Florence, Professor of Mathematics in the University of Padua, with the aid of a telescope lately invented by him, respecting the Moon's surface, an innumerable number of fixed stars, the Milky Way, and Nebulous stars, but especially respecting Four Planets which revolve around the Planet Jupiter at different distances and in different periodic times, with amazing velocity, and which, after remaining unknown to every one up to this day, the author recently discovered, and determined to name the Medicean stars.'

The opinion of Pliny was still held that the markings on the moon were but the dim reflections of the seas and continents of the earth. Galileo showed that they were intrinsic to the moon, and were but surface features, like the Alps and Apennines. Ptolemy had registered the places of about a thousand stars; these and another thousand visible and as yet uncatalogued made up the stellar universe. Galileo added "an innumerable number." The Milky Way had been the dense vapors and exhalations from the earth, gathered in one place. Galileo "made its nature plain to the very senses": "the Galaxy is nothing else but a mass of innumerable stars planted together in clusters." The nebulous stars of Ptolemy, the Hyades and Præsepe, whose darkening betokened rain, were clusters of small stars close together. The number of planets had been seven—a mystic and sacred number, not to be altered. Here were four more in every way as good.

There are no modern discoveries which approach these in their liberating effect on the human mind. Galileo writes of them with sober joy like "a gentleman of Florence" as he was. His friend Kepler, who was living under the Emperor's sceptre and by his favor at Prague, shows more elation than the sarcastic professor of mathematics at Padua. Kepler quotes Galileo's letters to him in full, and is enraptured with the discovery of the phases of Venus (a death-blow to the Ptolemaic system, and a firm basis for that of Copernicus), with the tri-formed body of Saturn, but most of all with the discovery of the satellites: "No words can express my admiration of that chapter of the 'Sidereal Messenger' where the story is told of the discovery of another world, as it were, in the planet Jupiter."

To gain a brief space in which to consider his new discoveries, and yet to keep the priority, Galileo sends to Kepler mystical sentences in anagrams. Thus:

"Hæc immatura a me jam frustra leguntur o.y. [These things not ripe; at present (read) in vain (by others) are read by me]."

So that they may be in due time transposed into the order:

"Cynthiæ figuras æmulatur mater amorum [The mother of the loves rivals the phases of Cynthia; *i.e.*, Venus imitates the phases of the Moon]."

Once the ardent Kepler could not wait. Galileo's anagram:

"S m a i s m r m i l m e p o e t a l e u m i b u n e n u g t t a u i r a s,"

which was finally to be:

"Altissimum planetam tergeminum observavi [I have observed the most distant planet to be tri-form],"

Kepler put into the shape:

"Salve umbistineum geminatum Martia proles [Hail! twin companionship, children of Mars],"

and through a semi-barbarous Latin he thus announced the satellites of Mars two hundred and fifty years too soon.

The play of such emotions must be intensely interesting to every one. We care almost more to know what Galileo and Kepler felt than to know what they did. And one can conceive that here are almost the very words with which Galileo explained to the young Milton the discoveries of the optic-glass. No wonder he put them in his poem. They had captivated his imagination. Mr. Carlos has done well to translate this little work, and to join to it the fragment of Kepler's 'Dioptrics.' It cannot fail to be of lively interest to all who take it up. A strong light is thrown on the characters of both the philosophers, and the magnitude of their work is shown against its proper background. The book requires no technical knowledge to comprehend it, and it will be read with delight by any one who may take it up.

Sammlung von Gesaengen aus Haendel's Opern und Oratorien, mit Clavierbegleitung versehen und herausgegeben von Victorie Gervinus. (Leipzig: Breitkopf und Haertel.)—The widow of the distinguished German historian, Georg Gottfried Gervinus, has lately published seven small volumes, containing a most valuable and methodically-arranged collection of Haendel's arias and recitatives. We cannot do better than quote from her preface, somewhat at length:

"It was the desire of my husband that the arias of this collection should be published as practical illustrations of the theories set forth in his book, entitled 'Haendel and Shakspere,' and that they should appear in the order there indicated. Since his death it has been my most pressing and joyful task to carry out his wish. There were, however, two things which caused me some anxiety. How was I to explain the peculiarity in the arrangement of the arias? 'Haendel and Shakspere' is known to but few, and yet its essential idea, according to which this collection is arranged, was to be the basis for the comprehension of the whole. Therefore an epitome of the leading thoughts of that book, especially of the second division, seemed to me indispensable. In making it, however, I have nearly everywhere preserved the text of the original. Whether I have succeeded in making this introduction worthy of my husband has been, and still is to me, a source of painful misgiving. When, however, the publication finally became urgent, I felt compelled to take courage from the fact that a number of distinguished scholars had expressed their entire satisfaction with my work.

"The second difficult question still remained. How was the singer to get acquainted with the contents of the operas from which one hundred and forty-five pieces of this collection are taken? The English text of the oratorios has been made easily accessible by the publication of my

husband's translation. But Haendel's operas, with the exception of two, exist only in the original Italian text. While I was on a visit in Hamburg, where I had the privilege of consulting Haendel's own copy of his scores, this difficulty suggested the thought of going carefully through the operatic texts, noting the contents of the scenes, and then making the attempt to reproduce the text in narrative form, as briefly as possible, so as to enable the singer to form some conception of the situations and characters. I was the better satisfied with this plan, for the reason that I was led to believe that even in this condensed form the presentation of the operatic texts—which are nearly always attractive, rich in dramatic power, characteristic qualities, and scenic effect—might make considerable impression, and give an impulse towards both translating the operas and putting them on the stage."

In regard to the piano-accompaniment prepared by Mrs. Gervinus, it is arranged as simply as possible, so as to render it easy to the performer. Forty years' uninterrupted study of Haendel's music had fitted her well for this kind of work. Every one of the main works of Haendel is represented in this collection, which contains an interesting index of all his vocal works, besides the year in which they were composed, and the names of the poets who furnished his texts. We see at a glance that the Old and New Testament, Milton, Dryden, Congreve, Spenser, Alexander Pope, Metastasio, Paolo Rolli are the sources from which this many-sided and wonderful genius drew. His music touches and typifies every shade of feeling and passion—the most exalted joy, the deepest anguish, the love and the hatred of the human soul. No expounder of the New Testament has erected so sublime a monument to Christianity as he has done in his "Messiah." Judaism and its great historical characters are for ever glorified in his "Saul," "Samson," "Israel in Egypt," "Judas Maccabæus," and others. The beauty and loveliness of classical Greece have not been depicted in diviner form by the pencil of Titian and Raphael than by Haendel in his "Semele," "Herakles," and "Acis and Galatea." The names of almost all the great singers who sang the prominent parts of Haendel's operas under his personal direction in London are another interesting feature in this edition. The powerful influence that Italy and the perfect method of her singers exerted on the development of Haendel's genius will immortalize the names of Signora Cuzzoni, Maria Negri, Senesino, and others. The epitomes of the operatic texts are at the end of the seventh volume, and give in a condensed form a clear idea of situations, characters, and dramatic effect. Every true lover of classical vocal music will find a rich treat in the perusal and study of this collection.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Allaooddeen: a Tragedy, and Other Poems	(Smith, Elder & Co.)
Brace (C. L.), The Dangerous Classes of New York, 3d ed.	(Wynkoop & Hallenbeck)
Caird (Rev. J.), Introduction to the Philosophy of Religion	(Macmillan & Co.) $3 00
Gordon (H.), Alva Vine: a Tale, swd.	(American News Co.) 75
Lamb (Mrs. M. J.), History of the City of New York, Part 1, swd.	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)
Locke (J.), Some Thoughts concerning Education	(Cambridge, Eng.)
Markham (Capt. A. H.), Voyages and Works of John Davis, the Navigator	(Hakluyt Society)
Mills (Prof. C.), New Departures in Collegiate Control and Culture, swd.	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)
Mongredien (A.), Free-Trade and English Commerce, 7th ed., swd.	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin) 25
Morais (H. S.), Eminent Israelites of the Nineteenth Century	(Edward Stern & Co.)
Mrs. Beauchamp Brown: a Tale	(Roberts Bros.) 1 00
Schiller (F. von), Maria Stuart	(Henry Holt & Co.)
Sedgwick (T.), On the Measure of Damages, 7th ed., 2 vols.	(Baker, Voorhis & Co.) 13 00
Wainwright (Col. W. P.), Radial-Mechanics of Animal Locomotion	(D. Van Nostrand)

Christy Carew.

By May Laffan, author of 'THE HONORABLE MISS FERRARD.' 16mo (Leisure-Hour Series), $1.

Dobson's Vignettes in Rhyme.

With an Introduction by E. C. Stedman. Square 12mo, gilt, $2.

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Storm in the East. With 114 illustrations and 2 maps. 8vo, $3 50.

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of Common Things. 8vo, $3.

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

Ralph Waldo Emerson.

PORTRAIT ON STEEL, AFTER ROWSE'S CRAYON,

By S. A. SCHOFF.

Bust (just finished for the Concord Library) by DAN'L C. FRENCH.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 20, 1880.

The Week.

THE Whittaker case has reached what is doubtless its final stage, through the report of the experts employed to examine the handwriting. They were furnished with the note of warning which Whittaker said he had received and miscellaneous specimens of the writing of all the cadets, in numbered lots; but these lots were, as we understand it, differently numbered when furnished to each expert. The five experts have now reported, agreeing that the writer of the note of warning was also the writer of Whittaker's papers. A still more startling report was made by one of them, Mr. Southworth. He found that the paper on which the note of warning was written was torn off from a sheet on which Whittaker had begun a letter to his mother, and this from another on which there was in continuation some other writing of Whittaker's. In fact the note of warning was in one or other of two ways connected with three pieces of Whittaker's acknowledged handwriting. The announcement of this discovery produced a great sensation in court. Mr. Southworth, the expert, who is an elderly man, and, by the way, an old abolitionist, was so affected by it, after making it, that he took to his bed. Whittaker seems to have born it coolly, and is evidently a young man of great nerve and aplomb. The case against him now consists of this unanimous report of the experts; of Mr. Southworth's additional discovery; of the fact that though, according to his own story, hit on the head by an Indian club, his head bore no mark, though the club had blood on it; that though hit on the nose with a looking-glass, the glass was not broken or the skin of his nose abraded; that though choked into unconsciousness by pressure on his throat, his throat bore no signs of such pressure; that though cadets were sleeping in the rooms all about him, he made no outcry or other noise.

His own case is, that he cannot account for the failure of his head, throat, and nose to show marks of violence; that he made no outcry because his assailants had led him to fear that they would kill him if he did so; that the resemblance of the note of warning to his handwriting is the result of forgery; and that the paper on which the note was written must have been torn off from the sheet containing his letter to his mother by one of the conspirators, who stealthily obtained access to his drawer in his room. We must note here, however, that if the identity of the paper had been part of the conspiracy, the tearing would not have been made so smooth and true as to require close fitting to recognize it. In fact, the conspirators seem to have, according to him, made every provision for his ruin that human foresight could suggest. The effect of all this on public opinion at this writing is hardly ascertainable. That it was coming seems to have been perceived some days ago by that Son of Thunder, Mr. Martin I. Townsend, for he deserted the case.

As far as the reputation of the School and of its officers is concerned it is most fortunate that the experts have been unanimous about the handwriting, and that their report should have been confirmed by the discovery about the paper, as the judgment of the court, unfortified by these things, would hardly have disarmed Republican prejudice. We say Republican prejudice, because the believers in Whittaker's guilt are divided from the believers in his innocence largely by party lines, and the state of mind of both throws some light on the great mystery of Congressional committee reports, in which the majority and minority always draw diametrically opposite conclusions from the same facts, under a law of the human mind which is not much known to the philosophers. We must say of the officers of the School that they have borne themselves through this perplexing business, under a torrent of insult and abuse, with a dignity and patience which do great honor not only to them but to their profession and to the country. It now appears quite clear that they have from the beginning taken the utmost pains to get at the truth without fear or favor. The lawyers, on the other hand, have cut a somewhat ludicrous figure in the case. The two who appeared on the scene in order to show the soldiers how to detect crime appear to have united the heat and violence of a politician running for office with the perspicacious distrustfulness of a barracks washerwoman.

Whittaker's complexion and ability tend to confirm certain investigations of a *Times* correspondent who has had several years' experience in the South, from which it appears that there is something ethnological in the opposition to Grant which has unexpectedly manifested itself in various Southern Republican Conventions recently. Originally the "boom" placed large reliance upon Southern Republicans on account of the large proportion of negroes in that section of the party, the negroes being set down as solid for Grant. The discord manifested at the South Carolina, Georgia, and Mississippi conventions, and already visible on the Louisiana horizon, compels us to recognize the fact that, politically as well as ethnically, there are negroes and negroes. The *Times* reporter has discovered that the simple and honest and "full-blooded" are earnest advocates of a third term, and that the treacherous and cunning mulattoes are as unanimously opposed to it. Naturally, too, the "yellow men" are almost invariably to be found exercising their arts in favor of Secretary Sherman, who doubtless knows as well as the *Times* man that "the addition of white blood gives to the negro race more low cunning and what may be called 'smartness' than it does wisdom or any sense of honor," and unquestionably bears this in mind when he selects his "agents." In Mississippi these persons either acted "grossly and shamelessly," or displayed what is termed "double-faced neutrality," which is probably infinitely worse. In Louisiana, the yellow Chairman of the State Committee is also engaged in pulling wires for Sherman, but as he is being sharply watched by Pinchback—unaccountably a Grant mulatto—and others, he may come to grief.

The third-term movement received no greater impetus last week than the week before. Of four Republican State conventions, but one, Florida, instructed its delegates to vote for Grant at Chicago; Michigan, West Virginia, and Nevada being substantially solid for Blaine. In the Michigan Convention Professor Moses Coit Tyler presented the resolutions, which paid a tribute to the late Zachariah Chandler and requested the delegates to support Blaine as long as he should be in the field, which will be done by all except two or three district delegates; Senator Ferry's name was suggested for Vice-President, as was Thomas Settle's in Florida. The Wisconsin Democrats held an excited convention, and selected a delegation to Cincinnati which is supposed to be anti-Tilden if anything. In this State some of Blaine's supporters, who claim to be Independent Republicans, have publicly protested against the hostility to the "plumed knight" generally felt throughout the organization; a performance which suggests that the opportunity for capturing the Scratchers by the well-known strategy of putting on their livery temporarily has been curiously neglected.

Six speeches have been made in the Senate on the Kellogg case, by Messrs. Hill, Hampton, Carpenter, Pendleton, Cameron of Wisconsin, and Saulsbury, and all but the first and last were adverse to Mr. Spofford's claims. It is clear that whether or not the Senate can reopen its own *res adjudicatæ*, it will not do so in this instance. The opposition of Messrs. Hampton and Pendleton to a measure dictated by their own party as a means of keeping control of

the Senate, should at least be remembered to *their* credit if not to the party's. If it was only worldly wisdom, in which the Democracy has been so sadly deficient ever since it lost control of the Government, it would be a hopeful sign for both the party and the country. The Senate has passed the Post-Office Appropriation Bill, and the House the give-and-take River and Harbor Bill. The House has also voted in favor of adjournment on May 31; and since a test vote on Friday showed that there is no hope of tariff reform at this session, there is little doubt that the adjournment will take place at the date fixed, unless delay be caused by the bill to regulate the electoral count, which report says the President will make the excuse for calling an extra session if it be not disposed of now.

Postmaster James has justified our belief in his sagacity by notifying the President that he does not desire the office of Postmaster-General Key. President Hayes, on his part, has already reached a decision, contrary to the report that he intended to await the action of the Chicago Convention. His choice is Mr. Horace Maynard, American Minister to Turkey, who, being politically "from Tennessee," though a native of Massachusetts, would seem a very natural successor to Judge Key. He was, however, appointed to his present post by General Grant, and his selection now is (prophetically) not inconsistent with Mr. Hayes's alleged desire "to give the position to some one identified with the interests of the Republican nominee" at Chicago.

The correspondence between Secretary Evarts and Lord Salisbury about the incident known as the Fortune Bay outrage has been sent to Congress, but we have not at this writing seen anything more than the newspaper summaries of it. The controversy arises out of the fact that American fishermen attempting, in January, 1878, on the Newfoundland coast, to exercise the right of fishing conceded to them by the Treaty of Washington, and paid for with the $5,000,000 awarded by the Halifax Commission, were driven off by a mob of the local fishermen. This Lord Salisbury defends, if not justifies, by the argument that the American fishermen were violating provincial legislation in force when the Treaty was made, which forbids fishing on Sunday and the use of seines to catch herring between October and April, and the use of them in a certain manner at any season. Mr. Evarts replies that the fishing rights were bought from Great Britain in their simplest form, and without reference to local legislation. Lord Salisbury rejoins that they were bought subject to existing, but free from any subsequent, local legislation. Mr. Evarts concludes that in this shape they were worth nothing, and shall not be paid for any longer; so he recommends Congress to repeal the act admitting provincial fish and fish-oil duty free, and to apply the duties, as far as may be necessary, to compensating the sufferers from the Fortune Bay outrage.

There is strong reason for believing that Lord Salisbury's position was in part due to the necessity which the Tories thought the unpopularity of the Washington Treaty imposed on them of taking firm ground against all American claims arising under it. The concessions made by Mr. Gladstone's Government as to the *Alabama* claims have figured for several years among the "unparalleled humiliations" brought on Great Britain by the Liberals, and which it has been part of the Tory mission to obliterate. A renewal of the negotiations with the Liberals will probably bring about some arrangement which will render the continued observance of the Treaty satisfactory to both sides. Even if Mr. Evarts's position that the fishery rights were conveyed in their natural state be sound—and it doubtless is—local regulations which have for their object the preservation of the fisheries for the benefit of all who use them, whether natives or foreigners, are things which a civilized people can hardly refuse to agree to, however much they may resent having them imposed upon them. No regulations, however, will stand which are enforced, as in the Fortune Bay case, by a mob.

The liquidation of the "bull speculation" in stocks continued during the week in Wall Street, and there was a further heavy decline in prices. There are few leading stocks which are not 10 to 15 full points lower than early in March; many are 20 to 30 points lower, while some have fallen 40 to 50 points. The decline has been, as a rule, much larger reckoned by percentage than by "points." Naturally enough, this shrinkage in prices, which has been almost as great in the merchandise markets subject to speculation, has released a great deal of money that was used in speculation, and has diminished the amount needed to carry stocks and commodities. The result on rates is a decline for those on demand loans from 5 to 6 per cent. to 3 to 5 per cent. The New York banks, which were below the 25 per cent. reserve a few weeks ago, now have a surplus reserve of over $10,000,000. As money is now about as cheap in New York as in London, and as the imports of foreign goods continue very large, and the time of year has arrived when the exports of domestic products are comparatively small, the foreign-exchange market here is firm, although yet below the gold-exporting point. The market for silver continues dull and steady, at about 52*d.* to 52⅛*d.* in London. Here the "buzzard dollar" has a bullion value of about 88⅝ cents.

Prince Bismarck has lately been having a good deal of vexatious experience. He had hardly got the better of the Federal Council in the matter of the stamp-duty on post-office receipts when he was defeated in the Lower House in his Samoan scheme, described elsewhere by our Berlin correspondent. Close on this defeat has come the election of a Socialist deputy at Hamburg, of all places, by 13,155 votes, the Progressist candidate getting less than half that number, and the National Liberal only one-fourth of it. Hartmann, the successful candidate, got only 12,000 votes in 1878, so that it is plain that he and his principles are growing in favor. His victory is ascribed in part to the dissatisfaction of Altona, a suburb of Hamburg which lies within his district, with the prospect of being brought within the Zollverein; but after making all allowance for this, it furnishes an alarming proof of the progress made by Socialist ideas. Hartmann, too, has triumphed in spite of the fact that his electoral committee was arrested some time ago by the police, and he has been unable to circulate his views either by speech or writing.

The Irish Home-Rulers have been in active deliberation ever since the election, with the view of finding a basis for concerted action in the new Parliament; but the attempt thus far has been unsuccessful. Mr. Parnell has between thirty and forty followers who stick to him; but this is only about half the force, and the others have not as yet been won over, in spite of much conference. The main difficulty, apart from Mr. Parnell's arbitrary temper, seems to be his scheme of land reform, which he insists on converting into a party platform. It consists, in the first instance, of a stay law suspending for two years the right of ejectment from any holding valued at £10 a year or under, and suspending for the same period the right of recovering, for any holding, a rent higher than the poor-law valuation. Having in this way tied up the landlords for two years, he would have Parliament establish a commission empowered to lend money to all tenants wishing to purchase their holdings, the price to be fixed in all cases at a sum equal to twenty years of the poor-law valuation—the landlords to be compelled to sell. But even where the tenant did not wish to purchase his holding, the commission would have the right to force the landlord to sell it to them at the same rate, and then to let it to the tenant at three and a half per cent. on the purchase money. With this scheme the other section of Home-Rulers, led by Mr. Shaw, thus far refuses to have anything to do.

There is an anonymous article in the last *Fortnightly* on the English elections, which is popularly attributed to Mr. Gladstone, and both the matter and the manner leave hardly any doubt about the authorship. He ascribes the defeat of the Tories in part to the fact that they did not, during the last six years, represent the

traditional principles of the Conservative party as practised and preached by Sir Robert Peel, the typical Conservative statesman since 1832. These principles and characteristics were extreme purity in patronage; vigorous legislative activity; a rigid economy in expenditure; a regular maintenance of the principle that each and every year should square its own account; avoidance of all cause of collision with Liberalism in an open field; tenacious adherence to the parliamentary form of measures after they had once been proposed. Every one of these characteristics has been wanting, the writer maintains, in the Beaconsfield Conservatism, and he intimates pretty clearly that this latter Conservatism consisted simply of Lord Beaconsfield himself, and that the recent extraordinary victory of the Liberals was "the victory of the nation over an extraordinary man," and not the defeat of historic Conservatism.

The Tory papers continue to wage savage warfare on Mr. Gladstone for his apology to Austria. His offence is having officially apologized to a foreign Power for language spoken on the hustings to English voters, which his critics paint as one of the blackest offences known in English history. He unfortunately allowed it to be published without being accompanied by the rest of the correspondence, which contains, it is said, a full disavowal on the part of Austria of the designs against the independence of the Balkan Slavs which Mr. Gladstone had imputed to her. If this be true, the diplomatic triumph will fully atone for the indiscretion. Of course this last has been aggravated by Mr. Fawcett's, in his charge that the Tories kept back the news of the Indian deficit, which seems to have been really indefensible in its haste and rashness. The bitterness of feeling in Conservative circles in London against Mr. Gladstone seems to be on the increase, and finds vent in every sort of scurrility. The chances are, however, that this sort of thing if persisted in may rouse a counter indignation in the provinces which might take in expression a very Radical form. Lord Hartington appears to be covering Mr. Fawcett's retreat very effectively by publishing exposures of the financial operations of the Indian Government under the late Ministry. The Indian press is united in pronouncing the explanations of the blunder about the deficit as worse than the blunder itself, and it now appears that there has been something very like gross jobbery in the various contracts for supplies. A thorough exposure of these things will soon give the Tory papers more serious subjects for discussion than Gladstone's "unheard-of blunder" in the Austrian matter, or Fawcett's recklessness in the deficit affair.

The announcement has been made that the new editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette* will be Mr. John Morley, the well-known author and editor of the *Fortnightly Review*. Nothing could well be more satisfactory to the Liberal readers of that journal. Mr. Morley, who unsuccessfully contested Westminster at the late election, is not so famous in politics as in other fields, but there is no abler political writing in the English periodical press than his comments on the home and foreign politics of the month in the *Fortnightly*.

The Italian elections have thus far resulted in the return of 156 Ministerialists against 180 of all shades of opposition. As the Italian parties, however, suffer from an apparently incurable disease, to which "groups" is the best name that can be given, the election returns give no adequate idea of what the Ministerial strength will be when Parliament meets. The issue before the electors is nominally between the Left and Right, but then there are two "groups" in the Left, and Cairoli was overthrown by one of them combining with the Right, and of course he will be exposed to this danger again. Party discipline is still too weak in the Italian Parliament, and will continue to be until the voters punish members who desert their party without some reasonable and openly definable excuse.

The French Ministry has also been suffering from "groups." The bill regulating the right of public meeting gave the Commissary of Police the right of dissolving meetings under certain circumstances, and to this a portion of the Left moved an amendment which compelled the withdrawal of the offending section, and wounded the Ministry sufficiently to lead to the resignation of M. Lepère, the Minister of the Interior and of Public Worship. This is another illustration of the heterogeneousness of French cabinets, for it is said that the Ministry will be strengthened by his retirement, while he is alleged to have derived his strength mainly from Gambetta's favor.

The Porte has just had its first experience of the difference the change of Ministry in England is going to make to it. The Albanians were undoubtedly allowed to occupy the territory which the Turks had to surrender to the Montenegrins by a trick. The Turkish commander was bound by the convention to give the Montenegrin officer twenty-four hours' notice of his intention to evacuate his positions. He only gave six hours' notice, and the result was that the Montenegrin general was not able to reach them in time and with force enough to prevent the Albanians taking possession of them. As matters then stood, without the interference of the Powers the Montenegrins would have to conquer the ceded territory with great loss of life. The Turk, having had much experience of the delay which can be got out of the appointment of a commission of enquiry, gravely proposed that an international commission should be appointed to look into the business and see who was to blame. The Powers have, however, had enough of this. Italy and Austria have called on the Porte in a joint note to surround the disputed territory by a cordon of troops and see that it is forthwith evacuated by the Albanians, and England and France and Germany are supporting the demand. The chances are that the Turks will now say that they have not force enough for the job, unless they are frightened by the prospect of a foreign occupation. Mr. Goschen is on his way to Constantinople, and one of the signs of the alarm produced by his coming is that Osman Pasha, the Minister of War and hero of Plevna, has resigned. He was one of the most ignorant, brutal, fanatical, and corrupt of the Pashas, and the only one who of late has secured the punctual payment of his enormous salary. This he did by stationing a stout sergeant at the door of the Treasury on the first of each month with orders to seize all money coming in until his own dues were made up.

The latest news from China seems to leave little doubt that the war party at Pekin has gained the ascendency, and that war with Russia about Kuldja has been determined on, and, as a beginning, the ambassador Chung How, who negotiated the late treaty at St. Petersburg, and who has been in prison ever since, is to have his head cut off. As the hostility to Russia is only part of a general hostility to foreigners, some little anxiety seems to prevail among the foreigners at the Treaty ports. The principal fighting will, of course, be in Central Asia, and there seems to be no accurate information current as to the forces which either combatant can there bring into play. The Russian available force is known to be small, from the failure and recent slackness of the operations against the Tekke-Turkomans, and that of the Chinese is probably large, but how large nobody seems competent to say. The army which defeated Yakub Beg was certainly a formidable one, and the chances are that it has been increased and improved. If it should inflict a check on the Russians, or the Russians, through fear of a check, should for a time flinch from engaging it, the loss of prestige in the eyes of the Turkomans might be a very serious matter. That the war party really "mean business"—or, in other words, see clearly the seriousness of their undertaking—is shown in the announcement that they will continue to accept the services of foreigners in the army and navy. The London *Economist* foresees serious inconvenience both to the other European states and to the United States from the probable blockade of the Chinese ports by the Russian cruisers.

MR. SHERMAN'S FINANCIAL PROGRAMME.

MR. SHERMAN'S speech at the dinner of the Chamber of Commerce last week was doubly important as coming not only from the Secretary of the Treasury, but from a prominent candidate for the Presidency. It touched, too, on the two most important financial topics of the day, and indeed we may say the two most important topics of the day—the legal-tender question and the silver question. There are nearly $350,000,000 of promissory notes of the Government afloat. What is to be done with them? Are they to be kept afloat wholly or in part? Is the Government to take up the business of a bank of issue as one of its permanent functions, and, if so, under what conditions? There are $68,000,000 of silver coin in the Treasury vaults, and the quantity is increasing. What is to be done with this amount? Is it to be allowed to go on increasing under the present law? If not, what is to be done with it? Nobody is more competent to answer these questions than Mr. Sherman as Secretary of the Treasury, and nobody is under a stronger obligation to answer them fully and explicitly than a leading candidate for the Presidency who has made a specialty of public finance. We make bold to say that any man who aspires to the Presidency during the coming four years is bound not only to have matured opinions on these two subjects, but to put them before the voters with as much lucidity and frankness as he has at command. Here is what Mr. Sherman said on the first of them:

"A sound currency is one of the chief blessings of any country. But what is a sound currency? Is it one of gold, or is it of gold and silver, or is it one of either or both metals, supplemented by paper money issued by the Government or by private corporations? I take it that you mean by a sound currency a mixed currency of both coin and paper. But few in our day would be willing to dispense with paper money. It is as necessary in modern commerce as bills of exchange and drafts, but it must always be redeemable and promptly redeemed on demand. In this sense our paper money, since January 1, 1879, has been a sound currency. . . . I am one of those who believe that a portion of this paper money can properly and profitably be issued by the Government, but it should be carefully limited in amount and so guarded by coin reserves that it will be, without doubt or question, always maintained at par. And this paper dollar should have no false pretence about it. It should be what it purports to be, a promise to pay money and nothing more, depending for its credit and value only upon the sure and prompt fulfilment of that promise on demand. We want no 'fiat' money; but we want coin and paper money that rests upon the secured promise of the Government or of corporations that it can be converted into coin when needed."

Now, there is probably nobody in the United States who has given any attention to the subject, barring only a few of the more excitable and irrational Greenbackers, who would dissent from this definition of a "sound currency." A sound currency is, beyond all question, "a mixed currency of coin and paper," the paper being "always redeemable and promptly redeemed on demand." Mr. Sherman, however, must mean by redemption in coin on demand redemption in coin as valuable in the markets of the world as the sum expressed on the face of the note. He does not mean redeemable in *any* coin, or in coin of uncertain value, or coin which, though nominally of the value expressed on the face of the note, would really not bear in the market the value thus expressed. When he says, therefore, that "in this sense our paper money since January 1, 1879, has been a sound currency," he puzzles every one who has followed his financial utterances and who watches the financial phenomena of the day. Our paper money is since January 1, 1879, redeemable in two kinds of coin, one of which is twelve or fourteen per cent. less valuable than the other in the great markets of the world, and fluctuates in value from day to day; that is to say, if I take fifty dollars in paper for redemption to the Treasury, Mr. Sherman may at his discretion either give me for it fifty dollars in gold, which will be worth fifty dollars everywhere, or give me fifty dollars in silver, which will be only worth forty-four dollars everywhere. Therefore, it is impossible for me, as long as twelve per cent. of the value of my paper is dependent on his discretion, to call the United States paper a sound currency. Paper money which depends for its value in the hands of the holder on any man's discretion is not a "sound currency" in any sense of the term. It is true Mr. Sherman has used this discretion thus far honorably. He has not paid any note-holder against his will in depreciated coin; but he has warned the country within the past year that this discretion, which is all that now stands between the note-holders and a serious fall in the value of the Government paper, is passing away from him, and certainly will pass away unless the existing law compelling the coinage of $2,000,000 of silver a month is repealed. He has during the past winter pointed out clearly that we must stop coining silver, or to the single silver standard we shall surely come before long.

A currency whose future is clouded with this uncertainty cannot be called safe or sound. A sound currency is one the value of which in the future is not likely to be affected by any but commercial causes, such as the opening of rich mines or great improvements in production. Our paper money at present resembles the coinage of a barbarous nation whose ruler keeps threatening to adulterate it, and has the power to do so. Mr. Sherman, it is true, recognizes this difficulty in the situation. He declares that

"our dollar may be of either gold or silver, or both; but, if of both, a dollar of either must contain enough grains to be equal in value to a dollar of the other. Two yardsticks of unequal length will not answer among honest merchants. The sticks may be made of any kind of material, but they must measure alike. If the dollar in silver is not equal to the dollar in gold in market value, you must put more grains in the silver dollar or less in the gold dollar. As a great commercial and creditor nation, we want the best and the highest standard. We should lose money as well as credit by depreciating our standard of value. We could now convert our $68,000,000 of silver coin and bullion lying uncalled-for in the Treasury into silver coin of equal market value to gold coin, dollar for dollar, at a cost not greater than the so-called profit we have already derived from coining it. One month's surplus revenue will secure this result. We cannot have a sound currency until it is settled that the gold dollar and the silver dollar shall be of equal intrinsic or market value."

Now, as everybody, or nearly everybody, knows, the difficulty of the bi-metallic coinage problem lies, and has always lain, in the fact that although you may on a given day issue gold and silver dollars of equal market value, you cannot keep them equal in market value. On the day after, gold may rise or silver may fall. In the course of a year one of these two things is almost certain to happen. If this were not true the advocates of a single standard would not have a word to say for themselves. The leading bi-metallists propose to meet this difficulty by an agreement between all commercial nations which shall give silver coin a fixed and unvarying relation to gold coin, and *vice versâ*. Monometallists say this plan would not be efficacious, but all admit that no other would. Under these circumstances, one reads with amazement Mr. Sherman's proposal to solve the problem by making the silver dollar equal in value to the gold dollar *now* by enlarging the former. He does not say one word about the contingency that it would not stay equal, or make any suggestion for keeping it equal, and yet his speech was made to the Chamber of Commerce, or its leading members—or, in other words, to an audience every one of whom was aware that his plan would prove futile.

Coming to his second proposition, that a portion of the paper money of the country "can be properly and profitably issued by the Government, but it should be carefully limited in amount, and so guarded by coin reserves that it will be without doubt or question always maintained at par," we find the same vagueness and uncertainty. We venture to say that no financier in the world will deny the assertion that Government paper money, limited in amount and guarded by coin reserves in the manner described, could be both properly and profitably issued. This is about as harmless a proposition and as indisputable as that it is good for most men to be raised above want. What the country wishes to hear from Mr. Sherman is how he would provide and maintain this limit in amount, and how he would keep up the coin reserves to the desired amount. What the opponents of Government issues of paper say is, that the means of making these issues safe does not

exist; that Congress would be constantly tempted to enlarge the amount of the paper and use the coin reserves for other purposes than redemption, and would occasionally give way to the temptation. A financier who talks on this question is bound before all things to give us reasons for believing that this apprehension is not well founded. The course of Congress with regard to the currency during the last fifteen years, and the doctrines which have taken root among many politicians of both parties, and have found expression in party platforms, touching the powers of Government over money, have rightly or wrongly brought the most thoughtful portion of the business community to the conclusion that Congress cannot be trusted with the control of the currency. In order to shake this conclusion it is not enough to say that a safe Government paper currency would be a good thing. What the commercial world wishes to know is how in a political community like this such a currency could be made safe. A speech from Mr. Sherman on this point would be a very valuable contribution to the literature of the coming campaign, and we trust he will either make one or issue a pamphlet containing his views on the subject from his Literary Bureau.

THE MORAL OF THE WHITTAKER CASE.

THE Whittaker case may be said to have closed with the report of the experts to which we have referred elsewhere. It ought not to be dismissed, however, as a vulgar and unsuccessful attempt at imposture on the part of an audacious young rogue. It will long retain a good deal of interest and importance as an illustration of certain peculiar conditions of popular sentiment, which the historian will perhaps in no way be so well able to describe as by calling attention to the demonstrations which the trial has called forth. There can hardly be a doubt that the fraud was suggested to Whittaker by the numerous evidences which he met with or had heard of, if not of a certain demand for such outrages as that which he perpetrated on himself, at least of a great readiness on the part of the public to believe in their occurrence, and, indeed, of a kind of cultivated credulity with regard to them. He told one of the detectives last week that it was perhaps the work of some colored man for political effect.

How shrewd he was in his calculation the result proved. The news of what had happened in his room had no sooner spread over the country than he, a poor, unknown, and, as it now appears, by no means interesting or ingenuous lad, backward in his studies, and with few of the mental or moral qualities which fit a man for a soldier's profession, became almost in a single day a popular hero. Congress became excited over him, and threats of the abolition of the School in which he suffered wrong were uttered in the Senate. The press took up his cause with great zeal and virulence. Political conventions gave him a place in their platforms. Letters began to pour in on him by the dozen containing offers of sympathy and support. Thousands of people who had never before seen or heard of him became his warm friends, ready to help him with their purses, labor, and time. Nor was this all. It was assumed that the officers of the Academy, some of them men of high standing and of long and honorable service, were in a league against him, seeking his ruin and conniving at the persecution of him by his brother cadets. The brother cadets, too, were denounced *en masse*, as undoubtedly capable of the outrage on him although the proof might not be forthcoming, and the officers of the School were accused of deliberate attempts to prevent the production of this proof. One lawyer and United States District-Attorney went to West Point to look into the matter, and walked towards a public house, to which it was reported and believed the cadets were in the habit of repairing to hatch criminal designs. On the way he saw, or thought he saw, two men coming along the road on horseback. He concluded at once that they were United States officers engaged in pursuing and watching him, and, in order to throw them off the scent, he sat down and began—to whittle a stick. This tale was actually telegraphed to the press as an illustration of the desperation with which the authorities of the Academy were endeavoring to shield Whittaker's assailants. Another United States District-Attorney came on the ground by order of the Government, and at once assumed that these authorities were, while nominally conducting an enquiry under the procedure fixed by military law, really engaged in an attempt to conceal a crime, and proceeded to insult and inveigh against them on this assumption.

If all this had occurred *after* investigation there would have been nothing very remarkable or discreditable about it, but it occurred before investigation; it occurred before the public had any accurate knowledge of the facts, and before it knew anything of Whittaker's character. In fact, nothing certain about him was known except that the white cadets avoided his company, and it was assumed in the teeth of experience that all those who avoided his company because of his color were not only capable of breaking into his room, choking him into insensibility and gashing his ears, but were likely to do these things; the fact being that immunity from "devilling" and "hazing" is, it appears, one of the accompaniments or signs of the colored cadet's isolation. More than this, doubting his story, even in the presence of the strong air of improbability created by the facts, was for two or three weeks treated by many good people as an indication of sympathy with such deeds as he reported, and of hostility to the colored race. As the excitement grew, this conclusion was made to cover more ground, and a sceptical attitude towards the Whittaker case became presumptive evidence of dislike to the results of the war and all that this term implies. We have no doubt that so deep is the impression he has made by his very clumsy tale that thousands will refuse to be convinced by any evidence which can be brought against him. We have heard of one lady who declared that she would not believe him guilty even if he confessed. We have met a very intelligent man who believed that the evidence both of the doctors and of the experts in handwriting was simply part of the general conspiracy to ruin him, in which all the white men at West Point were engaged.

It is difficult when one sees this condition of the public mind to avoid considering Whittaker a sort of genius. It argued genius in a boy of his years to perceive that a vast store of mingled credulity and sympathy could be drawn upon for his benefit by the very simple process of making himself seem the victim of an apparently cruel, but in reality very trifling, assault. But the main interest of the incident lies in the light it throws back on the political history of the past ten years. Probably nothing has during that period so powerfully influenced American politics as the belief of the people of the North that the Southern whites were in the habit of committing outrages on the negroes on a great scale. That the Southern whites did commit a great many is unhappily true, but the number really committed would, if known, probably never have seemed anything more formidable than the unavoidable concomitants of a great social revolution, or have been treated as anything more than a sign of passing barbarism, like the violence in the mining regions. What gave outrages a great political influence, and made them the principal support for many years of some leading Northern politicians, was the exaggeration of their numbers and the embellishment of their incidents, into which both black and white politicians at the South were tempted by discovering the extent of Northern credulity with regard to them, and the feverish impatience with which the Northern public treated any doubt about them, or any demand for ordinary proof of them. And yet there was probably hardly one that did not need investigation. Stories of what occurred in remote parts of a region so thinly settled as the South would need close investigation anywhere. They needed it doubly when emanating from people with very low moral standards, and beset by very strong temptations to lie. In fact, most stories of outrages ought not to have been accepted, as the Whittaker case shows, without some knowledge of the character of the alleged victim and of the other witnesses. In most cases they were accepted without any sifting of testimony at all, on the mere word of somebody who wrote to the

newspapers. In some cases lists of murders, from one hundred to two thousand, were used on the stump, without names or dates, as having occurred in certain States, or within certain periods in divers States, and without any good reason for believing them beyond the fact that what was reported of the relations of the whites with the colored people made it seem probable that the former would freely murder the latter. One newspaper of high standing in this city published, without note or comment, a letter from a correspondent, alleging that Christmas day, election day, and, if we remember rightly, the Fourth of July, were in some parts of the South set apart by the whites for the murder of negroes, and were spent exclusively in this barbarous pastime.

Now, it is undoubtedly true that it is the prejudice against color and the wrongs inflicted on the colored race which have produced this great disturbance of the popular judgment in favor of color. But it would be well for those who find themselves wildly credulous with regard to injuries suffered by colored people, to remember that fanatical disregard of the rules of evidence for the benefit of color is as senseless as fanatical prejudice against color. There are plenty of facts which may be cited in support of each; but the friends of color have a distinct object in view, which its foes have not. They seek the elevation of the colored race, and it is worth their while to consider now seriously whether the time has not come when the negro himself will be benefited by their assuming a more judicial frame of mind with regard to him. All his legal disabilities have been removed. Abundant means of education are open to him. He is secured in the possession of all the money he can make, and all the honors he can win. In fact, he has become the pet of a large and influential portion of the community. Is it not time, therefore, to make him stand fairly and squarely on his own feet, and kill the prejudice against him in the only way in which prejudice is ever killed—by quality and performance? A state of public feeling which tempts a morbid youth at a military school either to escape uncongenial society or a puzzling examination by slashing himself and bringing false accusations against his comrades, and which comes near rewarding him with success, can hardly be called a healthy one. There are not many white men whose character would not be broken down by being surrounded by such fierce presumptions on the part of a large portion of the community as those which for a while converted Whittaker into a martyr. They constitute a standing incentive to fraud and deception and inertia. Nor, let us add, is the conscience of any one in a healthy state today who regrets that the detection of one tricky rascal in a gross imposture should have delivered four hundred young men from an odious suspicion, and yet we fear there are many—and not politicians either—to whom this detection has come as a painful disappointment.

BISMARCK'S DIFFICULTY WITH THE REICHSTAG.

BERLIN, May 4.

LAST week the debates and resolutions of the Reichstag offered more than the usual interest. All over the country two very important matters occupied general attention. The one was the Samoa bill, the other the interpellation as to the Government's new schemes in connection with the threatened attack upon the sovereignty of the free city of Hamburg. In both cases Bismarck's policy suffered a signal defeat.

As to Samoa, or, to use the official designation, as to the governmental support of the German South Sea Trading Company (*Seehandelsgesellschaft*), for the first time in many years a hitherto obsequious majority opposed the Chancellor's plans, and even the Conservatives did not fully obey his orders. German shipping merchants, as you know, about twenty years ago established a flourishing interinsular trade in the South Pacific. The leaders, of about ten large German firms, were the Messrs. Godeffroy, of Hamburg, who, on account of their prominence and liberality, were called the kings of the South Sea, and had their principal establishments, plantations, and warehouses on the Samoa Islands, of Steinberger notoriety. They imported all kinds of German and English goods, and exported tropical products, especially copra, which is an excellent ingredient for soap and oil manufactures. Last year the Godeffroys failed, not in the course of their legitimate business, but in consequence of bad speculations in mining and other fancy stocks. The high personal character of the gentlemen composing the firm, which is nearly a hundred years old; the generosity with which, in the days of their success, they had founded institutions of learning and patronized exploring expeditions; and the importance of their house to the foreign trade, enlisted the sympathies of all Germany in their misfortune. When in 1878 their first difficulties began, they succeeded in forming a shareholders' company at Hamburg, with a capital of five millions of marks (about $1,300,000), but they could only dispose of one million, and remained in possession of the balance. In 1879 new difficulties arose, whereupon new shares were issued to the creditors and mortgaged on their Samoa plantations. Among the creditors were the Messrs. Baring, of London, with a claim of £135,000. About the assets of the Godeffroys no positive data have been published. It is, however, calculated that they amount to some eight to ten millions of marks. Suffice it to state that the troubles of the house increased, and that finally, last winter, it did not have the means to pay its acceptances of 1,200,000 marks. A few months ago the German Government, induced by some large Hamburg houses, took an interest in the continuation of the Samoa establishment, caused a new company to be formed with a capital of ten millions of marks, and promised a guaranty of three per cent. for twenty years on such capital, provided that on or before May 1 the Reichstag should sanction the agreement and furnish the necessary funds. The amount of the acceptances was to be paid immediately, and would be lost if the bill were rejected by the Reichstag The financial agent of the Government, the Prussian Trading Company, which has been and still is at the head of the syndicates for placing the Prussian and German loans, managed the execution of the plan, and easily persuaded its friends to participate in the company, holding out as a threat that foreign Powers would swallow the great establishments created by German intellect and energy. Bismarck himself signed a letter appealing to the patriotic feelings of the public and soliciting subscriptions to a national enterprise, which "guarantees only three per cent.," in order, as the letter says, "to prevent wild speculation on 'Change"! Thus far all was well, and the necessary sums were soon subscribed; but the Reichstag, on April 27, by 128 votes against 112, refused to ratify the promise of the Government. Consequently the scarcely-created company has lost its 1,200,000 marks, and must go into liquidation.

The bill was chiefly defeated by the able speeches of Deputies Bamberger and H. H. Meier. The latter is one of the leading German merchants, president of the North German Lloyd, and the senior partner of a large Bremen shipping-house. While the exposition of the representatives of the Government was rather given to sentimental phraseology and poetic exaggerations, and their assertions did not contain any proof, except some hearsay evidence of marine captains and German consuls, Mr. Meier proved that the investment was in every respect unprofitable, and wrong in principle as well as in its effects; showed that both England and the United States had rejected the offer of annexing Samoa; and nobly protested against the support of a mercantile enterprise by the Government, as leading to the demoralization of the merchant and to the ruin of trade. The speeches of Mr. Bamberger were of even a higher order. He is not only an experienced merchant, having been at the head of a large Paris banking-house, but one of our most prominent political thinkers and economists. By the philosophical training of his mind, his scholarship, his essays on banking and the gold standard, his pamphlets on the great political questions of the day, he ranks among our leading public men. Besides, Mr. Bamberger is a ready debater, who joins sarcasm and wit with a great positive knowledge of facts. Thus it was easy for him to destroy every statement of the imperial commissioners, among whom especially Mr. Reuleaux, just returned from the Sidney Exhibition, made a very poor figure. Mr. Bamberger denounced the bill as an anachronism and quixotic in all its particulars. He declared most emphatically and eloquently that the German people neither needs nor wants colonies nor protectorates over foreign islands, and that still more it detests Governmental Socialism, which benefits some people out of the pockets of other people, and which in principle is no better than the wildest dreams of a red Socialist. If German trade and German merchants command the respect of the civilized world, it is chiefly on account of their never having claimed Government protection, and of having grown by their own exertions. There is, for instance, no German steamship line that has ever applied for subsidies. Even the new protective era will not be powerful enough to uproot these cherished convictions and honorable traditions.

A still more important matter than the defeat of the Samoa bill is the

motion laid before the Federal Council (Bundesrath) by Prussia, asking for the annexation of the city of Altona with a part of the Hamburg suburb, St. Pauli, to the Zollverein. The cities of Hamburg and Altona adjoin, and both are free ports. Altona is Prussian and has some 60,000 inhabitants; Hamburg is a sovereign Hanse Town with more than 300,000 inhabitants. As to their commercial importance, they rank like Brooklyn and New York. Bismarck, in forcing his protective policy on Germany, desires to and must include Altona in the Zollverein, in order to prevent smuggling, as his organs say, but, in fact, for the purpose of collecting more duties and of compelling Hamburg to follow Altona. The proposed measure aims to draw a boundary-line between Hamburg and Prussia. St. Pauli lies just between Hamburg and Altona, and is the headquarters of the Hamburg sailors. It is the seat of several ocean steam-navigation companies—as, for instance, the packet line to New York—of the observatory, of sugar-refineries, breweries, large stores and warehouses. According to a statement recently made, there pass every minute of the day, on the average, two hundred persons and ten carriages and carts through the principal thoroughfare between Hamburg and St. Pauli. To take the latter from the former and submit it to another system of customs is about the same thing as to declare New York a free port with the exception of the three lower wards of the city. Hamburg (just like Bremen) owes her wealth and prosperity to her exceptional position as a free port, which has been solemnly guaranteed to her by the imperial constitution. According to Article 34, Hamburg and Bremen remain free ports outside of the boundary-line of the Zollverein until they move for admission into the latter. Their commerce is, of course, of general German importance; attacking Hamburg, therefore, means injuring the vital interests of Germany. Under the present high protective tariff Hamburg is less than ever inclined to avail herself of her vested right, but Bismarck, without asking the consent of the authorities of the city, assumes a non-existing constitutional power over Hamburg, and provokes indignation even among those of her citizens who thus far have been his stanchest friends. His Commissioner in the Reichstag haughtily admitted the designs of his master, and, instead of answering the interpellant, sneeringly added that they were an internal affair of the Federal Council, which did not concern the Reichstag.

"Affairs here," writes a friend of mine, a patriotic Hamburg citizen, "begin to assume a very serious shape. The exasperation against Bismarck finally endangers the Empire, as it fortifies all the centrifugal tendencies of state sovereignty. Our Senate is, of course, indignant at the 'crimen læsæ majestatis,' and mentally sees itself degraded to the magistracy of an insignificant inland town. When, about twenty years ago, Hanover objected to the building of a bridge over the Elbe, all the world cried contemptuously about the nuisance of petty principalities; but now? It may be that real unity can be achieved only by *one* despotic will, which, undivided by party strife, knows how to carry its point. We all know that Bismarck wants to increase and strengthen the power of the Empire; we therefore doubly deplore that he destroys his own work."

The general question is now, whether the Federal Council will do what Bismarck directs it to do. If the law be broken to a free city, why not in the same way to any duchy or kingdom or any other member of the Empire? If Bismarck in the case of Hamburg can, like Jackson, interpret the Constitution according to his understanding, can he not as well extend this interpretation to princes and kings? Not a single member of the Reichstag defended the constitutionality of the Chancellor's proceedings; on the contrary, all were unanimous that without the consent of Hamburg not the smallest particle can be taken from her territory. I apprehend, however, that the Federal Council, out of subserviency for its master, will not dare to protect the constitutional right of our greatest commercial community. "When they see," a member of the council of his colleagues remarked the other day, "Bismarck's white cuirassier cap hanging on the wall of the anteroom they forget all their plucky intentions and most obediently eat dust." In the meantime matters go on in Hamburg as if there were only one will in the Empire. Prussian customs-officers receive their orders and instructions directly from the Berlin Foreign Office, and are forced to carry through the annexation of St. Pauli. Mr. Boetticher, the Oberpraesident of Schleswig-Holstein, the adjoining Prussian province, and Mr. Wenzel, the Prussian minister at Hamburg, are willing tools in Bismarck's hands; they direct and control the custom-house collector, who has expressly been sent to Altona for the specific purpose of creating an accomplished fact.

Since the opening of the present session the Reichstag has not yet seen the Chancellor. He never goes out, receives the Emperor and the several princes at his house, entertains his friends, takes his daily walks in his garden, which is surrounded by high walls, and makes his communications through his subordinates, who never muster so much courage as to make even a modest objection. The natural consequence is that there is much delay and loss of time, that business stagnates, that no plan in the direction of public affairs is laid out, and that, in spite of the most earnest endeavors, no satisfactory result can be attained. Bismarck wants to have everything for himself and to do everything himself, which is simply impossible. To conclude with an historical parallel: Germany in her present state of mind feels like Prussia in the last days of the reign of Frederic II. The immortal merits of the king and the great success of his foreign policy were overlooked on account of his narrow-minded home policy, of the annoying chicanery of his customs-officers, and of the clumsiness of his dependent subordinates, who interfered everywhere and kept the machine running, but suppressed all individual life. ? ?

RAILROADS AND BRIGANDAGE IN SICILY.

PALERMO, April 29.

RAILROADS are great instruments of contrast. I have just made the run from Paris to Naples and Sicily without stopping anywhere, except at Bologna for a day; and coming directly from Naples to Palermo, I find myself in a country which in the last century, and even at the beginning of the present, seemed almost inaccessible to a Frenchman. A railway is in course of construction from Palermo to Trapani; it is not yet open to the public, but I was, by special permission, taken over a great part of the line, and nothing can equal the beauty of the scenery of this Sicilian coast. The railway runs from Palermo between the sea and the great marble mountains which surround the island. These places are all familiar to me, but I was charmed to see in a rapid succession, and like a changing panorama, the Favorita, where I once liked to gather the wild roses growing freely everywhere; the little islands called Isole delle Femine, with their ruined towers built in old times against the Saracens; the huge marmorean cliffs, which seem like gigantic pedestals for the temples of the gods; the little coast towns, which look at a distance like the towns of Algeria, with their terraces and their white walls, in which there is only one door and one window. Half-naked children were seen, browned by the sun, in picturesque attitudes; the peasants at work in the fields looked with astonishment at the little locomotive dragging only two cars, and gliding over the new line. The oxen, the goats themselves seemed surprised. The road was not difficult to build: there is all along the coast a flat little plain, which makes a natural platform between the sea and the mountain; there are only here and there small viaducts or bridges over torrents. I was told by the chief engineer that the road will not cost more than $25,000 a kilometre. The land was not dear, and the juries of "expropriation," or damages, which are formed nearly as they are in France, are not yet accustomed to levy blackmail on the railway companies, as they are doing in some parts of France, especially in the south, where they fix extortionate prices on the land which becomes necessary to the great railway companies.

A visit to the temple of Segestum, which used to be a great affair before the railroad was constructed, will now become much easier, as there is a station near Alcamo, which is not far from the temple. After the ruins of Girgenti, of Syracuse, and of Taormina, there are none in the island which better deserve a visit. Instead of stopping first at Alcamo, you can stop also at Partenico, the reputed birth-place of the famous Laïs. All these villages look like Arab towns; they are clusters of white houses, and have a severe appearance. Alcamo is a name which dates from the time of the domination of the Saracens; the old olive-trees, with their quaint trunks, which have been cut a hundred times and which have the most extraordinary forms, are still called here the *Saraceni*, and are said to have been planted in the time of the Saracens. The peasants used to wear the vulgar Norman cotton night-cap, and, indeed, we saw it in use by the workmen at the unfinished stations. The traces of all the successive invasions are to be seen everywhere; but, on the whole, the country has eminently what may be called a Grecian look: the immense olive-groves, the mountains, the large herds of goats or of oxen, the sky, the names of many places, all recall the times when the Greek colonies were flourishing in the island. There is a certain sort of impropriety between the whistle and noise of the locomotive and the Olympian calm of the scenery. You cannot help thinking of Theocritus, of Virgil; you would not be much surprised to see a fawn appear behind a hedge, or nymphs dancing on the soft turf under the pale-green olive branches.

With all its natural richness the country is poor, owing to many causes, which it would take too long to explain in detail. Only a few years ago it was still in a feudal state. When the Normans invaded the island

they divided all the land into three parts; they gave a third of it to the Church, they kept a third of it, and allowed the people to keep the rest in copyhold. The great estates of the conquerors were soon let in other copyholds; the peasants continued to till the land, to plant the olive-tree or the vine, but they ceased to be proprietors; they are even now *censitori*—that is to say, they pay the lord of the land a perpetual rent, but they have no property even in the trees which they plant. They have no interest in the improvement of the land. This state of things is slowly changing: after the revolutions which made the new Italy, the lands of the Church, which in Sicily were enormous, were confiscated and sold; a law was passed which allowed the copyholders to buy the freehold of the land at a rate which was very favorable to them; the *censo*, which is generally very low, as it is very ancient, was capitalized at five per cent., and the payment could be made in Italian five per cent. stock, taken at par; at the time when the law was passed the Italian stocks were very much below par, and they are still so, though they have risen greatly. Nothing was wanted in order to give full effect to this law but a national bank which could make loans to the copyholders and help them to buy the freehold; but the most intelligent proprietors have themselves helped the peasants—they have made allotments in their own estates, and diminished the area of their copyholds. In the course of time it may be expected that the peasants in Sicily will become small proprietors. The nature of the country is eminently favorable to direct proprietorship; the plain of Castellamare is like a vast garden, where nothing is seen but olive trees and vineyards.

Progress, however, is very slow in these southern countries; everything here is still as it was when I made my last visit. Last night I heard an improvvisatore, an old man who works all day in the fields at the rate of twenty-five cents a day, who never eats any meat, and who lives entirely, like all the "hands" in this country, on oil, bread, and wine. This old peasant spoke for more than an hour; he improvised—that is to say, he made variations on the old themes of the Romance novels; he spoke of the siege of Jerusalem, of Vespasian, of the destruction of the Holy City, of the Crusades, of Ruggiero, of Fieramante, of Saladin, of Saint-Denis of France. All these stories of battles, of duels between Christian knights and huge Saracenic giants, form a sort of ground on which the minstrel can work almost *ad infinitum*. I could not help admiring the ease, the *naïveté*, the diction of this poor old laborer; he spoke, and spoke for ever, and there was always a new torrent to be crossed, a new queen to be delivered, a new duel to be fought. The attendants of the estate had all been allowed to enter the great hall when the improvvisatore spoke; and the children had gone to sleep under the monotonous music of the improvisation; the men and women continued to give full attention; they heard these stories of chivalry, as the French say, with all their ears. The old man went on and on, and I understood better than I had ever done how traditions are kept alive in semi-barbarous countries; how so many poems, how the 'Odyssey' has come down to us through centuries. The legend is impressed in the popular mind by the poet; the improvvisatore does not really improvise, he simply piles words, without end, on the legend.

You can hardly speak of Sicily without speaking of brigandage. I am told that the island has never been as free from it as it is now; the railways will be fatal to this old institution, and will do more against it than all the *carabinieri* and *bersaglieri*. There is one now between Palermo and Girgenti; the connection between this line and another line which goes from the centre of the island to the eastern shore is not yet made; you have to take a carriage and to spend three hours in it in order to join the latter. This point is still a dangerous place, a "scandalous" place, to use the Sicilian word. A sum amounting to $30,000 was taken a few weeks ago on its way to the railway officers. A fortnight ago there was a great trial at Palermo of a band of twenty-two *ladroni*, and three of them were condemned to death. They will probably not be executed; there has been no capital execution in Sicily for a number of years. When the Italian unity was achieved the code of Tuscany, which prohibited capital punishment, became practically the code of all Italy with regard to crimes. There is a great movement now in Italy towards the practical re-establishment of capital punishment; but so far the Sicilian brigands have had the benefit of the mildness of the Tuscan code. The story of Leone, the famous brigand, and of an Englishman named Rose, has been made known everywhere. Mr. Rose was taken by Leone as a hostage, and his family were obliged to give Leone $20,000 in order to save him. Leone was the last famous brigand in the island; he was a man of some education, and had been, I am told, an officer in the wars of independence. He had an American carbine in the style of a revolver, which made him very dangerous. He was excessively brave, and he was all alone when he captured Mr. Rose, who had a number of people round him at the time. He was finally surrounded in a cornfield by a detachment of soldiers, who shot into the centre of the field as long as they saw anything move. When there was no longer any motion they entered the field and found Leone dead. Let us hope that he will not soon have a successor. In the interior of the island there are regions where the brigands are much more powerful than on the coast. I am told that they are levying blackmail on all the *curatoli*, the agents of the landlords who live at Palermo, and that there are parts where the landlords dare not go in person, for fear of being seized. The *curatoli* represent the state of things in very black colors, in order to pay as little as possible to the landlords. The brigands in these regions are really only tax-gatherers, who levy taxes after the state. Under such conditions, it is not to be wondered at if the interior is in a very barbarous state. No progress is possible where property is not safe, and where there is a whole class of people who live by rapine.

Correspondence.

A BLAINE MEETING IN CHICAGO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There was a clattering of chairs on the hard floor of the reading-room in the Grand Pacific Hotel, and a sudden movement towards the hall occupied by the Young Men's Blaine Club. Mr. Eugene Hale, of Maine, had arrived fresh from the dull campaign in Michigan to impart his enthusiasm to the young volunteers in Illinois. I did not take notes at the time, but after a week's travelling and meditation give a report of Mr. Hale's speech from memory and to the best of my ability:

"I am glad to meet the young men of Chicago. I am in communication with the young men all over the country, and I assure you the young men are all for Mr. Blaine. It is the young men who do the work of the campaign. It is the young men like you who are to carry the coming national elections. Our candidate is the candidate of the young men. The next few days will show you that the young men who do the work of the campaign [or caucuses, I cannot remember which] are all for Mr. Blaine. Where are the young men who are not for our candidate? They are not to be found. It is young men like you who are to win in the next election. The tide is rising for our candidate, and it is a tide of young men. The young men who are not for Mr. Blaine are too few to be heard from. The young men are all in favor of our candidate. We shall hear from the young men more and more."

That was all (the speech was even devoid of statistics); but to expound this momentous theme required a full half-hour. There was no principle enunciated to fire our young blood. *Our chief* was not described as a statesman interested in any far-reaching plans for the good of the Republic, but simply as "our candidate." For what reason he is our candidate we have not yet been informed. Are not young men expected to have ideas?

A Young Republican.

CONCERNING A NOTE IN DEXTER'S 'AS TO ROGER WILLIAMS.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* for December 25, 1879, I called attention to Note 478 in Dr. H. M. Dexter's 'As to Roger Williams.' In this note Dr. Dexter, referring to the whipping of Obadiah Holmes in Boston in 1651, says:

"Arnold thinks he was cruelly whipped [*Hist. R. I.*, i. 235]. But Clarke says: 'It was so easie to me that I could well bear it; yea, and in a manner felt it not'; and that he told the magistrates after it was over: 'You have struck me as with Roses' [*Ill Newes*, etc., 22]. Dr. Palfrey suspects the executioner had orders 'to vindicate what they thought the majesty of the law at little cost to the delinquent' [*Hist. N. Eng.*, ii. 353]."

As I showed in my former letter, the words quoted in this note are not the words of Clarke, but of Holmes. Since Dr. Dexter's attention was called to this fact he has made three attempts to correct the note. In the *Congregationalist* of August 1, 1877, he made this statement:

"I said Clarke because I meant Clarke, as I was referring in general to Clarke's book [*Ill Newes*], which contained Holmes's letter. The oversight which I committed was in neglecting to add in parenthesis the name 'Holmes' after 'he,' thus: 'and that he (Holmes) told,' etc."

The note as thus amended read:

"Arnold thinks he was 'cruelly whipped' [*Hist. R. I.*, i. 235]. But

Clarke says: 'It was so easie to me, that I could well bear it; yea, and in a manner felt it not'; and that he (Holmes) told the magistrates after it was over: 'You have struck me as with Roses' [*Ill Newes*, etc., 22]."

Two years later Dr. Dexter again explained this error in names. He said:

"In citing from Clarke's *Ill Newes from New England*, etc., the author [of 'As to Roger Williams'] wrote: 'Clarke says, 'It was so easie to me that I could well bear it, etc.,' when he should have written, 'Clarke makes Holmes say, 'It was so easie to me that I could well bear it,' Holmes being the party concerned, and not Clarke, who was describing what occurred."

The note as thus amended read:

"Arnold thinks he was 'cruelly whipped' [*Hist. R. I.*, i. 235]. But Clarke makes Holmes say: 'It was so easie to me that I could well bear it; yea, and in a manner felt it not'; and that he told the magistrates after it was over: 'You have struck me as with Roses' [*Ill Newes*, etc., 22]."

As I showed in the *Nation*, December 25, this emendation left the note in a more objectionable form than at the first, for Clarke was now made the garbler of Holmes's words, when, in fact, as a reference to Holmes's letter in Clarke's *Ill Newes*, or Isaac Backus's *History of New England*, will show, it is Dr. Dexter himself, and not Clarke, who *makes* Holmes say, by omitting a part of his statement, what he did not say.

And so we have another correction of this note which appeared in the *Congregationalist* of May 5. Dr. Dexter now says: "As Holmes's letter is printed in Clarke's book, he, by a not unnatural oversight, used the phrase, 'But Clarke says,' when he meant to say, and should have written, 'But Holmes—in Clarke—says.' Beyond this he has no confession to make." The note thus amended reads:

"Arnold thinks he was 'cruelly whipped' [*Hist. R. I.*, i. 235]. But Holmes—in Clarke—says: 'It was so easie to me that I could well bear it; yea, and in a manner felt it not'; and that he told the magistrates after it was over: 'You have struck me as with Roses' [*Ill Newes*, etc., 22]."

It would seem that a more proper citation would have been, "But Holmes, in a letter to certain prominent Baptist ministers in London, says"; but it is doubtless as much as could be expected that we have now the confession that it was Holmes who said: "It was so easie to me," etc. Beyond this, Dr. Dexter says he has no confession to make.

Now if Dr. Dexter's note, as thus amended, means anything, it is this: Arnold thinks that Holmes was "cruelly whipped"; but there is another view which one may take of this affair. Indeed, Holmes himself is a witness to the fact that the punishment was made easy by the magistrates, who sought to vindicate the majesty of the law at little cost to the delinquent. Dr. Palfrey suspects that the magistrates had orders to this effect.

Unfortunately, however, for Dr. Dexter, what Holmes said, in his letter from which the quotations in note 478 are taken, is this, the italics being my own:

"And as the man began to lay the strokes upon my back, I said to the people, 'Though my flesh should fail, and my spirit should fail, yet my God would not fail.' So it pleased the Lord to come in, and so to fill my heart and tongue as a vessel full, and with an audible voice I broke forth praying unto the Lord not to lay this sin to their charge; and telling the people that now I found he did not fail me, and therefore now I should trust him for ever who failed me not; for in truth, as the strokes fell upon me, I had such a spiritual manifestation of God's presence as the like thereof I never had nor felt, nor can with fleshly tongue express; and the outward pain was so removed from me, that indeed I am not able to declare it to you; *it was so easy to me that I could well bear it; yea, and in a manner felt it not*, although it was grievous, as the spectators said, the man striking with all his strength (yea, spitting in his hand three times, as many affirmed) with a three-corded whip, giving me therewith thirty strokes. When he had loosed me from the post, having joyfulness in my heart, and cheerfulness in my countenance, as the spectators observed, I told the magistrates, '*You have struck me as with roses*'; and said, moreover, 'although the Lord hath made it easy for me, yet I pray God it may not be laid to your charge.'"

There is more than an error of names in this note. If Dr. Dexter had quoted the whole paragraph—indeed, if he had finished the sentence from which his first quotation is taken, it would have appeared that Arnold was right when he said Holmes was "cruelly whipped," while the sentence from which the second quotation is taken shows that in Holmes's view the punishment was made easy, not by the magistrates but by the Lord, who did not withhold his support in the hour of his servant's trial.

What now has Dr. Dexter to say to this charge of misrepresentation? This:

"He had no purpose himself to go into the discussion of the quality of Holmes's whipping, or to express any opinion about it, or him—except that he had just before complimented him as 'made of sterner stuff' than his colleagues. He did express none. He cited Arnold's view—which is the common one—on one side, and Dr. Palfrey's on the other, simply adding the citation from Holmes's letter which led Dr. Palfrey to suggest a judgment different from Arnold's."

Let us see. Here is the note as now amended:

"Arnold thinks he was 'cruelly whipped' [*Hist. R. I.*, i. 235]. But Holmes—in Clarke—says: 'It was so easie to me that I could well bear it; yea, and in a manner felt it not'; and that he told the magistrates after it was over: 'You have struck me as with Roses' [*Ill Newes*, etc., 22]. Dr. Palfrey suspects the executioner had orders 'to vindicate what they thought the majesty of the law at little cost to the delinquent [*Hist. N. Eng.*, ii. 353]."

Who is it that remarks, in opposition to Arnold, "But Holmes—in Clarke—says," if not Dr. Dexter? There is no allusion to Dr. Palfrey's view until we come to the last sentence in the note. Nor here is Dr. Dexter fair in his reference to Dr. Palfrey. What Dr. Palfrey says is this: "When he [Holmes] relates that the scourging which he endured 'was so easy that he could well bear it; yea, and in a manner felt it not,' and that he told the magistrates, 'You have struck me as with Roses,' the reader ventures to hope that the executioner had been directed by his superiors to vindicate what they thought the majesty of the law at little cost to the delinquent." It would be considerable of a venture for the reader who has Holmes's letter before him to indulge such a hope as is here suggested. It is founded on Holmes's words, and they certainly awaken no such hope. The point, however, that is noticeable here is this, that Dr. Palfrey's phrase, "the reader ventures to hope," is magnified by Dr. Dexter into "Dr. Palfrey suspects," so that the reader is doubly misled; he is first told that Holmes himself declares that his punishment was made easy by the magistrates, and then he is told that Dr. Palfrey "suspects" that the magistrates were instructed to make the punishment easy.

I am aware that Dr. Dexter says he has no confession to make beyond that which he has already made. A recent note from one of the first historical scholars in New England is before me, in which he says: "I have read your letter in the *Nation* in reply to Dr. Dexter, and it seems to me that his course in the affair has been wholly indefensible." Unless it is defensible another confession is in order.

H. S. Burrage.

Portland, Me., May 11, 1880.

Notes.

J. W. BOUTON will shortly publish 'Freemasonry Older than Obelisks, Pyramids, and Mounds,' by John A. Weisse, M.D.——Wynkoop & Hallenbeck, New York, have brought out a third edition of Mr. Charles Loring Brace's 'Dangerous Classes of New York, and Twenty Years' Work among Them,' which appeared originally in 1872. Twenty pages of a miscellaneous but kindred character have been added. The usefulness of works of warning like this will cease only with the existence of the "dangerous classes."——'The Metric System and Interchange of Weights and Measures,' a practical text-book with examples, by D. Beach, jr., and E. A. Gibbens, has just been published by G. P. Putnam's Sons. ——Appendix No. 15, Report of 1876 of the U. S. Coast Survey, consists of an account of "Measurements of Gravity at Initial Stations in America and Europe" undertaken by assistant C. S. Peirce—namely, through "oscillations of the same pendulum at those fundamental stations of Europe [Geneva, Paris, Berlin, and Kew] where the chief absolute determinations had been made and whence pendulum-exhibitions had set out, and at a station in America [Hoboken] which would become the initial one for this continent." A note on the theory and economy of research, Appendix 14, also by Mr. Peirce, has by application a direct connection with the foregoing experiments. The closing sentence is pungent: "It is to be remarked that the theory here given rests on the supposition that the object of the investigation is the ascertainment of truth. When an investigation is made for the purpose of attaining personal distinction, the economics of the problem are entirely different. But that seems to be well enough understood by those engaged in that sort of investigation." ——In the second volume of the *American Journal of Mathematics* Mr. Peirce prints, by permission, a noteworthy paper on "A Quincuncial Projection of the Sphere," with a corresponding chart, in which the whole sphere is represented on repeating squares, the angles are exactly pre-

served, the curvature of lines representing great circles is for the most part very slight, and the exaggerations far less than in the stereographic or in Mercator's projection.——The *Dial*, "a monthly index of current literature," appears in neat shape with broad margins, and with a character of its own (Vol. i., No. 1, May, 1880, pp. 24. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.). It contains an interesting account of the *Dial* of Emerson and the Transcendentalists, several reviews, notes, bibliographical lists, etc. We learn from it that Mr. J. J. Lalor is at work on a translation of Dr. Ludwig Nohl's condensed biographies of the great composers prepared for the popular "Universal-Bibliothek."——The *Harvard Register* for May announces the several Harvard summer courses in science, viz., botany, chemistry, and zoölogy.—The Newport Historical Publishing Co. propose, if they receive sufficient support, to issue a quarterly magazine devoted to the history of that and adjacent towns. The importance of it is assured from the fact that it will be the medium of publication for Dr. Henry E. Turner's "carefully-compiled record of the births, marriages, and deaths of Newport, Middletown, and Jamestown, from the town and church records and graveyard inscriptions," to which those of Portsmouth, etc., will be added. Dr. Turner, who, by the way, will edit this periodical, has in press his 'Settlers of Aquidneck.'——A work on the history of Socialism in North America, by Heinrich Semler, a San Francisco German, has been published by Brockhaus.

—The first annual report of the Executive Committee of the Archæological Institute of America has reached our table. It shows a membership of upwards of 120, and an income of about $2,500 from this source alone. The work of the year has been the procuring from Mr. Lewis H. Morgan of an essay on the "System of Housebuilding practised by the Indians," which is printed in connection with the report; the rendering of assistance to Mr. Joseph Thacher Clarke during his explorations in the Archipelago and along the coasts of Greece and Asia Minor, as the result of which we have "Archæological Notes on Greek Shores, Part I.," the second paper of the volume; and the commissioning of Mr. W. J. Stillman to visit the gigantic ruins at Monte Leone (province of Grosseto) in Italy, and make a report upon them, also printed here. The Institute is ready, during the coming year, if supplied with the requisite means, to employ a qualified agent to study the life of the village Indians in Colorado and New Mexico, and to undertake exploration of a nameless (but selected) site in Greece. Four thousand dollars are required for the former enterprise, and eight thousand for the latter. The Institute offers to share its finds with such institutions as are ready to contribute to the expense of the expeditions. The establishment of scholarships of archæology at Harvard, Yale, Columbia, and other colleges is urged, and a membership of one or two thousand declared necessary for the proper support of the Institute. We discover an unkind allusion to a Western ex-Senator in the remark—"The same barbaric spirit that asks 'What have we to do with abroad?' asks also, 'What have we to do with antiquity?'" But this ought not to cost the Institute any friends in that quarter. The Executive Committee consists of Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, President; Martin Brimmer, Vice-President; and Francis Parkman, H. W. Haynes, Prof. W. W. Goodwin, Alexander Agassiz, and Prof. Wm. R. Ware. The Treasurer is Mr. O. W. Peabody, and the Secretary, Mr. E. H. Greenleaf, whose address is Museum of Fine Arts, Boston.

—Mr. F. W. Christern sends us the first *fascicule* of the fifth revised edition of Vapereau's 'Dictionnaire Universel des Contemporains.' The editor sets forth at length in his preface the great historical events which have occurred since the previous edition (1870), and the consequent changes involved in the present work. The latter, for example, includes all members of the French Parliament; all the French bishops, no longer grouped under the heading "Clergy"; the most prominent cardinals only, instead of a collective article; all the members of the French Institute and its 238 correspondents. To make room for this expansion the names of persons who died before January 1, 1872, have generally been excluded; but the very first name in the Dictionary, that of Aa'li Pasha, is an exception, and so are Gen. Robert Anderson, Auber, and Charles Babbage. A comprehensive necrology at the end of the volume will atone for the omissions. The longest article (4 pp.) is devoted to Alexander II. of Russia, already needing an addendum for the more recent attempts on his life; the next longest (3½ pp.) to the late Odilon Barrot, whose political vicissitudes during his long life warranted this distinction. Among the American names newly admitted are Louisa May Alcott, T. B. Aldrich, S. Austin Allibone, Susan B. Anthony, Spencer F. Baird (whose succession to Prof. Henry is not chronicled), Dr. F. A. P. Barnard, Henry Barnard, and H. W. Bellows. The death of Jacob Abbott happened, perhaps, too late for notice. Mr. Alexander Agassiz's services to science are signally underrated in the sole mention of his taking control of the Penikese school after his father's death. Gen. Banks's stalwartism is put to the blush by a belated record about his having "withdrawn from the Republicans in order to get in with (*se rapprocher*) the Democrats." Among the additional foreign names we remark Wm. Allingham, Elizabeth Garrett Anderson, Joseph Arch, Walter Bagehot, S. Baring-Gould, Lady Barker, Peter Bayne, Barodet, Franz Abt, J. Alzog, Gen. Alvensleben, the Baedeker, L. Bamberger, Bebel, Edmondo de Amicis, Bakunin, etc. Abd-el-Kader still triumphs over the necrologists. The work will be completed in ten parts by September 1.

—A paper by Mr. Simon Sterne in the April number of the *National Quarterly Review*, on "The Railway Problem," is an interesting statement of the question as it concerns New-Yorkers without attempting any solution of it. Mr. Sterne was the counsel for the Chamber of Commerce during the nine months' investigation of the charges of that body against the railroads of this State, and is of course familiar with enough specific details of the subject to make the general review he gives extremely suggestive. He recites the history of the relations between Government and railroads in England and in this country with considerable fulness, and apparently regards the British Commission as essentially an anticipation of what we shall come to in America ere long. The principal mistake made in dealing with railroads in both countries, according to Mr. Sterne, has resulted from the original misconception as to their true function, which was supposed to be, in 1835, "the transportation of passengers and, under some circumstances, the conveyance of light goods." Another cardinal error was the notion that the economic law of competition would apply to and beneficially regulate railway freight charges; as Mr. Sterne points out: "In railroading, the vanquished continue in business after, as before, insolvency—freed, however, from the obligation to pay interest on bonds and dividends upon stocks; and become more formidable rivals than they had previously been," as a receiver can run his road for operating expenses, whereas a solvent road must earn interest and dividends as well. Combination is so easy and effective in no other business. By a compact between the roads New York City may at any time lose all the advantages with which nature has furnished it. The results of discrimination in freight charges promised to be the extinction of "certain large industries" of this State as well as to work disastrously in many minor ways. The system of discrimination, moreover, is particularly detrimental, owing to its irregularity and, indeed, lack of any system. In fine, Mr. Sterne's article is a dispassionate review, summarizing some points and amplifying others, of the proceedings before the Hepburn Committee, with which our readers must be more or less familiar, but which it is convenient to have here epitomized by an authoritative and competent hand. Mr. G. R. Blanchard replies to Mr. Sterne in an equally elaborate article entitled "Politico-Railway Problems and Theorists," which is a good example of skilful and ingenious destructive criticism. It is not perhaps as illuminating to the disinterested reader as more conspicuous candor would have made it; if Mr. Sterne is one of those "to whom a railway problem is hasheesh," the fact is one to be deplored rather than exulted over, we should say.

—The performance of a translation of "Cymbeline" in a Hindu playhouse is described by a writer in the May *Macmillan*, who enjoyed in being present an opportunity not often open to Europeans, he says. The theatre was a temporary building of bamboo and canvas; the stage, a white-washed sand-bank; and some twenty petroleum lamps suspended overhead, the "foot-lights." The audience numbered about five hundred men and children, women seldom appearing in such public places, although the playbill set down the price of admission for "respectable ladies" at four annas, and "disreputable ditto" at eight annas. They were not at all "averse to chaff," and all, as well as most of the actors, including *Imogen*, chewed betel-nut. The performance lasted from 9.10 P.M. to 2 55 A.M., and was introduced by a choric hymn to the god Narayen, and some buffoonery by way of prologue. The play proper was a close translation of "Cymbeline," although the adapter had cut out "the whole of that most un-Shaksperian vision in Act v., his *Deus ex machinâ* being supplied by a voice from behind the scene"; had "made the king a ludicrously contemptible personage," whose uxoriousness greatly delighted the spectators, "henpecked husbands being no rarities in the East"; had heightened *Cloten's* idiocy considerably; had replaced the dirge beginning "Fear no more the heat o' the sun" by a long disquisition from *Bilarius* on the doctrine of metempsychosis; and made various minor

modifications. As in Shakspere's time, all the female parts were acted by boys. There was little or no gesticulation, which want was, however, partially atoned for by the great reserve and dignity of the actors. The part of *Imogen* was played with great skill and sympathy, according to the writer, and the refinement of acting required in the disguised part of *Fidele*, considering that the actor was a boy and had to assume the rôle of a woman disguised as a boy, was illustrated with peculiar success. All the scenery and stage accessories are described as very simple and primitive, but the costumes were very rich and elaborate. "Every player from first to last knew his part thoroughly and spoke it faultlessly."

—In the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for April 15, M. A. Geffroy discusses a recent Italian work (by Signor Bertolotti) on the Cenci family, and thus helps to destroy one of the most popular of historic fables, according to which, to borrow M. Geffroy's summary, Beatrice Cenci, "young, beautiful, pious, a miracle of virtue, did, it is true, commit the crime of parricide, but only in heroic defence of her honor. To her youth and beauty the famous portrait of the Barberini palace bears witness. Guido Reni, moved by love and pity, penetrated into her prison on the eve of her execution and reproduced upon his canvas her pure glance, her innocent and gentle features." But, to begin with, there is no evidence to show that Francesco Cenci, though a bad man, attempted the particular crime which has served as justification for his daughter's act, and the accusation seems rather to have been an invention of the defendant's counsel at the last moment, for no mention of it was made during the trial, nor does it occur in the brief. It also appears that Beatrice was not so young as commonly stated, and by no means "innocent"; for her will shows that she had borne a son, whose father was probably the steward Olympio—the servant who actually killed Francesco—and the confinement which she suffered at her father's hands may be accounted for by his natural desire that she should not repeat her misdemeanor. The scandal attaching to the action of the pope in the case vanishes also in the light of the documents discovered and printed by Signor Bertolotti. According to the law of the time the property of an executed person fell to the state, so that the pope would have had no need to confiscate it as alleged. But he really remitted the forfeiture of a large part of the property; the widow of Beatrice's brother got back her husband's share, the creditors were paid, and so were Beatrice's own bequests. The way some of the Cenci property came into the hands of the Borghese was by regular purchase, as is proved by the conveyances here printed. Finally, Guido Reni did not come to Rome till the reign of Paul V., probably in the year 1608—*i.e.*, nine years after Beatrice's death—and the portrait does not seem to have received its present label till the beginning of this century.

—The Norwegian constitution is the only one under which the relations between the executive and the parliament are similar to those existing in this country. The king names the ministers, and these are independent of the parliamentary majority. On the other hand, the Government cannot dissolve the parliament, and the passing of a bill by three successive parliaments (now lasting three years each) overrides the king's veto. But upon one important point the constitution is silent: it says nothing about the ineligibility of the ministers to seats in parliament, nor does it either allow or forbid their sitting in it *ex officio*. In Norway this matter has seemed to both parties of greater importance than it has here, and a controversy about it has been going on for more than fifty years. In 1821 the Government first brought in a bill to permit the presence of the ministers, and the effort was repeated every year till after 1860, the proposition being as regularly rejected. The alleged reasons were that the ministers would assume too great a share in the debates, and that there would be reason to fear their personal influence. In 1861 the Stang ministry entered office, and has stayed, with slight changes, till the present day. Its policy has been a continual effort to increase the power of the crown, in which it has been steadily aided by the reputable part of the press, but opposed by the parliamentary majority, which, owing to the distribution of seats, by no means represents the popular majority. What interests us, however, is the action of this ministry with reference to sitting in the parliament: it at once reversed the policy pursued by its predecessors, holding that, if brought into constant contact with the members of parliament the ministers could not preserve so independent a position, and would often be forced involuntarily to yield to the arguments of the Opposition. The increased Liberal majority gradually came over to the same view, and in 1872 passed the bill formerly desired by the Government by a vote of 80 to 29. It was, however, vetoed, the advisers of the crown demanding a good deal of further legislation as the price of its assent: their own eligibility to parliament, and the creation of the office of deputy to each of the ministers, who should attend to office business while his chief was attending the session, being the most important. In 1874 a new parliament passed the bill by a vote of 74 to 35, and in 1876 a third parliament, by 82 votes to 29. But this third passage was vetoed as the previous ones had been, on the ground that the measure was a change in the constitution, and did not, therefore, come under the provision of that instrument regulating the veto power. The Opposition won also the election of 1879, and it is not expected that the parliament which met February 2 will accept the last veto as final.

—Much attention has of late been given, both in Scandinavia and Germany, to the study and interpretation of the remarkable Icelandic mythological and legendary lays variously known under the titles of the 'Elder Edda,' the 'Poetic Edda,' and 'Sæmund's Edda' (Sæmundar Edda). These investigations have been rendered possible by the publication, in 1867, of a most careful edition of the text of the eddic lays by Professor Sophus Bugge, of the University of Christiania. The *Nation* (No. 760) has before alluded to the fact that Dr. Gudbrand Vigfússon has shown that the elder Edda, in its existing shape, originated among the Norse population of the Scottish Isles, and that they contain many Keltic proper names. Dr. A. Edzardi, of Leipsic, who has written a series of critical articles for the *Germania*, which he modestly styles "Kleine Beiträge zur Geschichte und Erklärung der Eddalieder," has been engaged in another branch of eddic study almost equally novel. In a careful investigation published towards the close of last year in the *Beiträge zur Geschichte der deutschen Sprache*, edited by Paul and Braune, he shows that the verse of the Edda and the skaldic lays has been largely influenced by the metrical system of the Keltic bards—a fact which, of course, is an additional argument in favor of Dr. Vigfússon's theory of their origin. Meanwhile Dr. E. Wilken has brought forward another, but less tenable, hypothesis relating to the eddic lays. In the introduction to his text of the younger or prose Edda ('Die prosaische Edda im Auszuge') he attempts to prove that the lays of the elder Edda are founded on lost sagas—that the Völsunga Saga, for instance, instead of being a later production based on the lays, is the type of many older prose works, mostly no longer existing, from which the poems are derived. The corrupted style of the Völsunga, however, shows that it is a far later production, and the Sæmundar Edda contains abundant internal evidence that we now possess it—mutilated and imperfect as it is—in the form or dress given it by its original compilers. The venerable and labor-loving Dr. F. W. Bergmann, of the University of Strassburg, continues his eddic criticisms with unabated vigor. Since 1838 he has published eleven volumes, either in German or French, all treating of the Eddas. The latest one is styled 'Die Edda-Gedichte der nordischen Heldensage,' and treats mainly of the Sigurd (Siegfried) cyclus, the Gudrun cyclus, the Atli cyclus, and the other legendary groups of eddic lays. In his forthcoming 'Gedichte der Skalden' this acute and ingenious critic will examine the skaldic poems outside of the Edda. The increasing interest in these early Icelandic monuments is plainly shown by the fact that, in spite of the excellence of Simrock's version of the two Eddas (which has just reached its seventh edition), two other German translations of the Sæmundar Edda have appeared—one by Dr. A. Holtzmann and the other by Hans von Wolzogen. A third has been begun by a female scholar, Rosa Warrens, of Berlin, who has published a rendering of that exquisite fragment, the "Hamdismál" ('Das Lied von Hamde,' Berlin, 1879). In Denmark Dr. Brönsted is carrying still further the researches of Bang and Bugge.

—M. Alphonse Wauters, archivist of Brussels, published in 1878 a volume upon the municipal history of his native country so important that it deserves mention even at this late date. It is entitled 'Les Libertés Communales : essai sur leur origine et leurs premiers développements, en Belgique, dans le Nord de France, et sur les Bords du Rhin,' and is in two volumes in large octavo. It covers more ground than its title promises, being in effect a history of the duchy of Lower Lotharingia and the lesser states into which this was divided, to the close of the thirteenth century. Its defect, indeed, if it may be called such, is that the main topic of the work is sometimes almost swamped in subsidiary matter, especially in a frequent tendency to digression. Moreover, it lacks an index, although there is a tolerably good table of contents. With these defects it still is, no doubt, the best history there is of the communal movement, which was one of the most important chapters in the

municipal history of the middle ages. This is a field of history which Augustin Thierry made peculiarly his own, and his graphic narration of its incidents is not superseded by any later account; nor is his theory of its nature, as associated with the *guild*, or sworn brotherhood, rejected, although he rather exaggerated its application. The most important result of M. Wauters's investigations is expressed in a sentence on p. 366: "if these [the communal movements in Belgium] are compared to the revolution of which Picardy and the Isle of France were the theatre, this last will be found far less intense and far less fruitful in results." In truth, while Thierry begins the movement with the communal revolution at Cambrai (1076), M. Wauters shows that many towns of Belgium—among them Ghent, Bruges, and Liége—had municipal governments at a considerably earlier date. The peculiar importance of the work here done is in showing the political and municipal development of these provinces—partly French and partly German in nationality and in national relations—which were on the border-land between the two great kingdoms, and in a sense independent of both. It was this that gradually drew them together, made them the seat of the great duchy of Burgundy, and finally gave them a united national life.

EUGÈNE DELACROIX.*

THE death of Eugène Delacroix at the age of sixty-five, though distinctly one of the gravest losses French art has suffered in our generation, was hardly to be called premature, and was a loss only in the sense that any unnecessary limitation of the number of works of a man so distinctly the child of the finest and truest artistic inspiration is to be regretted, in the interest of the world of art. He was, by the fragility of his constitution and the terrible wear and tear of a most vivid imagination and a most impulsive temperament, doomed to give out early, and his work bears the impress of a morbid nature tinged by physical peculiarities which, adding to its individuality, adds also to the charm of it for those who enjoy art that runs out of the common rut of academic affiliation.

This strange beauty which, to the greater part of even the Parisian public, was "caviare"; this at times weird and always fitful and inexplicable fascination, which is the guarantee of the permanent power and value of Delacroix's work, is better understood when one has read the personal record of his life contained in his letters. Child of a wayward and eccentric muse, frank and entire in his abandonment to her inspiration, it was impossible that he should ever be understood by any public without a long and authoritative course of training, because there is no public taste which has not been formed on precedent and example, and Delacroix had no precedent or example in all that was peculiar to his artistic nature. There was in his painting the broad trait of musical (in want of a better word analogical to what *we* know as music, and applicable to painting, but which the Greek included in the same word as pertaining to the Muse) tendency as opposed to the naturalistic or scientific, which Venetian art has established as the true aim of the colorist; but, besides that, there was the peculiar and wayward charm we find in all barbaric art, and most strongly in the Persian carpets and embroidery—a sad, minor scale of color, plaintive, and telling of loss and poetic pain. There were the passion and energy of a nature driven by a flow of ideas too strong for its mechanism to control properly and profit by, and towards the close a morbid insistence on his idiosyncrasies, showing the failing of his hand to execute what his imagination developed as rapidly and vehemently as in his youth.

This is the picture of him in his youth by Philarète Chasles:

"I was at the Lycée with this boy, with olive complexion, flashing eye, mobile features, cheeks hollowed early, and delicate, mocking mouth. He was slender, elegant in figure, with abundant curly black hair, which betrayed a southern origin. . . . Eugène Delacroix covered his copy-books with drawings and caricatures. . . . From his eighth and ninth year this wonderful artist reproduced attitudes, invented curves, drew and varied all outlines, pursuing, torturing, and multiplying them under all aspects with a persistence resembling fury. Everything in Delacroix was vehement, even his friendship, which he kept for me until his death."

The flashes of light one gets on the true character of this great genius here and there through the letters clear up, bit by bit, the portrait indicated in his works and in this sketch. The first bit is from his youthful struggles, with the painfulness of which, in the case of most young French painters, those who know the inside of the great ateliers are acquainted. One of his comrades says:

"We ended by making drawings of machines to attach to the patent papers. I did the linear drawing and Eugène the coloring, the various tints of the wood-work. All this had a certain brilliancy. When I took him the price of his work he was perched in the great gallery, at the top of an immense ladder, copying heads from the "Marriage at Cana" by Veronese. I believe it was the first money he had gained with his pencil, imitating wood, iron, etc., and tinting it with water-color. We were very merry in having earned twelve louis, amusing ourselves in our little chamber and pitying the poor fellows who were obliged to carry out our designs."

In 1821 began the aspirations of the young artist (then twenty-three) to see Italy and the great work of the great masters—aspirations which ran through all his life, to find their last expression combined with the search for health in the final breakdown of his constitution. His only voyages abroad were one to Morocco and one to London. In England he found a new vein of art, which he characterizes, as he does most things he criticises, with the large and generous feeling of a man who conceives no jealousy for the success of another and a different talent.

"I have been," he writes to his friend Soulier, "to Wilkie's, and I had not before appreciated him. His finished pictures did not please me, but in fact his sketches and beginnings are above all praise. Like all the painters of all ages and all countries, he spoils regularly the beautiful things he does. . . . No one has ever rendered the eyes, especially of women, as has Lawrence, and his half-open mouths are perfect. He is inimitable."

A letter to the *Artiste* on the *concours* for young painters is too long to be quoted entire, too solid and logical to be excerpted intelligibly; but in one passage of it Delacroix paints his own nature with such aptness that we must give it:

"The artist, shut in his studio, inspired over his work to begin with, and full of that sincere faith which alone produces great work, happening to look outside of it to the place where he will figure and the judges who await him, finds his movement checked. His eye saddens over his work; too great disparagement awaits this chaste child of his enthusiasm; he lacks the courage to follow it in the career which he sees opening for it. He becomes then his own judge and executioner—he changes, he spoils, he tires himself, he wishes to civilize himself and to polish himself in order not to displease."

One feels that he is only recounting his own experience and pains.

In 1858 he returns, in a letter to M. Sylvestre, to the English painters:

"I have no desire to go back to London; I should find there none of my souvenirs, and, above all, I should not find myself the same to enjoy what one sees at present. The school has changed. Perhaps I should find myself obliged to break a lance for Reynolds, or for that enchanting Gainsborough whom you so justly love. Not that I am the enemy of what is now done in painting in England. I have been struck by the great conscience which this people brings even into matters of the imagination. It seems that even in aspiring to exaggerate details they are more within the limits of their genius than when they imitate the Italian painters and the Flemish colorists. But what matters the exterior? They are always English under all this apparent transformation. So, in place of making the *pastiches*, merely, of the early Italians, as has become the fashion with us, they mingle with the imitation of the manner of these old schools a sentiment entirely personal; they add the interest coming from the passion for painting, interest which is lacking in general in our cold imitation of the rules and style of the schools gone by. . . . Constable, admirable man! is one of the glories of England. I have already spoken to you of the impression he made on me when I was painting the "Massacre of Scio." He and Turner are true reformers; they got out of the rut of the old landscape painters. Our school, which now abounds in painters of talent in this branch, has greatly profited by their example. Géricault came back completely upset by one of the great landscapes he sent us [apparently alluding to a picture Constable sent to the exhibition at Paris]."

In reply to a complimentary letter of one of his fellow-painters, he says:

"You ask if I have a secret: it is the same as that of the people, unfortunately few, whose greatest *finesse* consists in always telling the truth. We have been too often told that without certain artifices painting cannot have its full value. In carefully studying Nature, which makes no efforts to produce an effect, we see that it is to following her step by step rather than adding or correcting that we must apply ourselves. There is a man who produces light without violent contrasts, who represents the open air, which we have always been told is impossible; it is Paul Veronese. In my opinion, he is probably the only one who has discovered the whole secret of Nature Without imitating his manner exactly we may pass by many ways where he has placed genuine lights (*flambeaux*)."

But to show the real meaning of our master when he talks of Nature, and the imitation of her, we must give the cross-light of another passage, also addressed to a painter:

"I have many times taken the liberty to advise artists who paint landscapes not to live continually in the country. The presence of Nature deprives us of any initiative, and it seems to me almost impossible, in

* 'Lettres de Eugène Delacroix (1815 to 1863).' Paris: A. Quantin; New York: F. W. Christern.

presence of the perfection she offers always, not to believe yourself inferior whenever a certain inspiration impels you to make a sacrifice. The system of simple studies from nature seems to me infinitely preferable, as well as leaving the subjects you wish to imitate, of which the memory then only preserves the salient characters."

The neglect of Delacroix while alive, coupled with his extreme modesty in his self-appreciation and his consciousness of his own defects as well as the excellences of others, makes of these letters a record as painful as any in the artist life of the past. He was five times a candidate for the Academy before being elected, four times deferred to men whose names for the most part we do not know. He was rarely able even to secure the notice of the jury of the Salon for the pictures he recommended. He lived with a narrow circle of admirers in a wilderness of antipathies and animosities—himself hating no one, abusing no one, if we except Ingres, whose work he abhorred. The promise made of a work which shall bring to light Delacroix's note-books and literary work, his appreciations of art and artists, offers a hope of one of the most valuable contributions of the century to art literature.

THE EARL OF BOTHWELL.*

THE guilt of Mary, Queen of Scots, will never cease to be a subject of vehement debate; for even if the most positive new evidence for or against her should be discovered, it is certain that this would by no means end the controversy, but only change its object. The new documents would be unhesitatingly declared to be forged. Their production would therefore only open a new chapter in the endless debate. The question remains, nevertheless, one of the most fascinating in the whole field of history, and a large number of readers and students will welcome the appearance, in English, of so important a work as that before us.

Professor Schiern's special service is, as might be expected, in that chapter of the history which was enacted in his own country. Bothwell's residence, imprisonment, and death in Denmark have been made by him the subject of exhaustive research, and it is not likely that any new evidence can be discovered bearing upon these. The most important point here is Bothwell's so-called "testament," or confession, exonerating Mary from all guilt in the matter of Darnley's death. In this matter Mr. Schiern agrees fully with Mr. Burton—indeed, his researches form in part the ground of Mr. Burton's conclusion—that the confession is not genuine. The fact that King James, when he passed a winter in Denmark in 1589-90, found no such evidence of his mother's innocence, both these historians regard as conclusive proof that such evidence did not exist.

This Danish episode occupies, however, only a small portion of the book—four chapters out of twelve—the earlier chapters being devoted to the previous career of Bothwell, and his relations to Mary. The entire question, therefore, of Mary's guilt is discussed with great thoroughness and impartiality; but the result is singularly indecisive. Our author divides the question in two—whether she had a share in the murder of her husband, and "whether she had before the death of Darnley thrown herself into the arms of Bothwell" (p. 159). And of these two questions he decides the first in Mary's favor, while in regard to the second he appears on the whole to be against her. At all events, after going through the whole earlier history until the abduction, and carefully considering her demeanor at the time of the abduction, he adds (p. 245): "The opposition which she there exhibited to Bothwell was at all events so small in comparison with her former brave behavior during the catastrophe which put an end to Riccio's life, that this weakness becomes the weightiest—and properly the only incontrovertible—reason for assuming an earlier and more intimate understanding between her and the Earl than she has plainly admitted." That is, Mary is acquitted of murder, but is found probably guilty of adultery. We must say that this conclusion seems to us a very lame one. The case against Mary in regard to the murder of Darnley is at any rate so strong on its face that her defenders—like Mr. Hosack and Professor Schiern—find their strongest argument to be that of improbability. In their unwillingness to believe so heinous a crime they find for every damaging fact explanations which are certainly plausible and, taken in detail, almost convincing. But add this motive, and the improbability vanishes. If Mary was guilty of adultery with Bothwell, it was no more unlikely that the two should plot together to put her husband out of the way than that the same thing should be done by the dozens of wretched pairs of whom the annals of crime are full. That she was a crowned queen made no difference.

The conclusion reached is due, we think, to the fact that Prof. Schiern, in considering the question of Mary's complicity in Darnley's murder, treats the casket letters as if they were practically the only source of evidence. He has no difficulty in showing, as Mr. Hosack has done, that these might have been forged; it is, by the way, a striking fact, that the work of Mary's apologists consists almost wholly in showing in detail that every item in a long and strong chain of evidence may be explained away. Each one may be explained away; but when it comes to explaining away all of them, our sense of the power of evidence is shocked. Now, the casket letters may have been forged, but even without them the case against the queen is still exceedingly strong. In fact, these letters contain no evidence at all of a plot to murder—only one little hint to "find some invention more secret by physick"; and the silence upon this point is one of the strongest arguments for their genuineness. Surely if Morton, as Prof. Schiern believes, forged these documents, or got them forged—for it was too delicate work for the rough Morton—he would have made at least this point sure. The Earl of Morton is accused of the forgery, as being the person into whose hands the casket first fell; and we are assured that he was capable of the act, by proof drawn from the fact that when in England in 1571 he was asked by the English Government to communicate the contents of a letter he had received from Denmark, and, in complying with the request, "deliverit a copie, omittand sic thingis as we thocht not meit to be shawin" (p. 137). We will not defend this deceit, but surely it was a very slight matter compared with the deliberate fabrication of these letters.

The casket letters therefore are, if genuine, direct proof only of Mary's relations to Bothwell; they add nothing whatever, except a motive, to the evidence of her share in Darnley's murder. The account of the murder is related by Prof. Schiern much as it is by Mr. Burton; he makes no attempt, as Mr. Hosack does, to throw doubt upon the testimony in regard to its incidents. Here, however, he misses the very strongest point of the argument. The conspirators were engaged, while Mary was in her husband's room, in carrying the powder into her room, which was directly under his. She then, he says (p. 205), "came down from the king, and past her room, which, if she had been able to enter, she would now have found filled with gunpowder, etc." "Had been able?" What does this mean? Who could prohibit the Queen of Scotland from entering her own bed-room—unless, indeed, as the testimony asserts, she had sent her keys to Bothwell? But whatever the cause, the fact that the conspirators, knowing that she was in the house, ventured for such a purpose to take possession of the room which she, if innocent, might reasonably have been expected to enter at any moment, is a fact that can be explained only as Mr. Hosack does, by throwing doubt on the evidence; and this is a thing which we can do wherever we please, and so get rid of all the historical evidence that we do not fancy. In like manner, Mr. Hosack says not a word of the point brought up by Mr. Burton, in which the casket letters receive remarkable confirmation from independent sources. In short, if we merely look at the sequence of events: that the woman whose husband was murdered on the ninth of February married his murderer on the fifteenth of May; if we consider the reluctance with which she consented in March to bring the accused man to trial; and consider further that her estrangement from her former husband was notorious, while for her last husband she had an affection amounting to infatuation, we shall hardly be inclined to think that this fondness dated from a forcible abduction less than a month before the marriage; and we shall see in the whole series of events a cumulation of evidence which does not need the casket letters to strengthen it. If these letters were forged, they were forged to support a proposition which hardly needed support, by men who thoroughly believed the truth of the charge which they were making.

* 'Life of James Hepburn, Earl of Bothwell. By Frederik Schiern, Professor of History in the University of Copenhagen. Translated from the Danish by the Rev. David Berry, F.S.A. Scot.' Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1880. 8vo.

BURNETT'S RECOLLECTIONS.*

THE taste for biographies and that for books of travel, though not identical, may easily be coincident, and they should both be satisfied by an author who can write in his preface:

"I was born a pioneer, as Nashville at the date of my birth [Nov. 15, 1807] was but a small village, and Tennessee a border-State, but thinly populated. I have been a pioneer most of my life; and whenever, since my arrival in California, I have seen a party of immigrants, with their ox-

* 'Recollections and Opinions of an Old Pioneer. By Peter H. Burnett, the first Governor of the State of California.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880.

teams and white-sheeted wagons, I have been excited, have felt younger, and was for the moment anxious to make another trip."

Mr. Burnett's story is, in fact, typically American in its constant succession of removals—from Tennessee to Missouri; from Missouri to Oregon with the first overland caravan, by whose arrival the population of that Territory was more than doubled; and finally to California. The migration began with his father and father-in-law, both Virginians; today all his brothers and sisters who survive are, like himself, dwellers on the Pacific coast. Our author's shiftings were the result of an honorable sentiment now little regarded in his native State—viz., that one should keep faith with his creditors. In this he was but following a maxim of his grandfather and namesake Hardeman, whose injunctions to his posterity were: "First. Pay your honest debts. Second. Never disgrace the family. Third. Help the honest and industrious kin." The best way for Mr. Burnett to incur debt proved to be to engage in mercantile business, and the obligations thus contracted before his thirty-seventh year were not discharged till his forty-fifth, in which interval he was lawyer, farmer, office-holder, and gold-digger.

While Mr. Burnett was a hotel clerk at Bolivar, Tenn., he used to see and hear speak the leading men of the State in that day. Of Sam Houston and Davy Crockett he says:

"Houston, then in the prime of life, was a tall, noble Virginian, possessing a most commanding figure and voice, with a bold, flowery, and eloquent style of oratory. He had a great command of language, and spoke slowly, emphatically, and distinctly, so that all could hear him and all wished to hear him. Newton Cannon was a very plain, earnest, forcible, and rapid speaker, a strict logician, but not a popular orator. While Houston and Cannon were speaking no one ever laughed, as they never dealt in amusing anecdotes. General Houston never succeeded at the bar. His mind was not of a legal cast. . . .

"David Crockett was a man of another cast of mind and manner. He possessed a fine natural intellect, good memory, and great good-nature. He had treasured up all the good anecdotes he had ever heard, and could readily relate many striking incidents of his own career. He was deficient in education, and had no practical knowledge of statesmanship; but he was willing and able to learn, and had the patience to bear ridicule and reproach for the time being. He was an off-hand speaker, full of anecdotes, and kept a crowd greatly amused. His comparisons and illustrations were new and simple, but strong and pointed. Few public speakers could get any advantage of David Crockett before a crowd of backwoods people. His good-natured, honest, jolly face would remind one of Dryden's description

"'Of Bacchus—ever fair and ever young.'"

The picture of life in Missouri at the time of its admission into the Union has features over which it would be pleasant to linger. When in 1822 Mr. Burnett's father removed from Howard County on the Missouri to Clay County, the household goods were towed by men from the bank in flat-boats, and the journey occupied forty days. The chief trade was in skins, honey, and beeswax; cotton was a staple article of production, and domestic manufactures embraced not only cloth, but shoes. Broadcloth was so seldom seen that country ministers held up the innocent wearer of it in open meeting as acting contrary to the spirit of the Gospel. "Fisticuff fights," in most of which "both parties were severely bruised, bitten, and gouged, and would be weeks in recovering," were "very common," especially at militia trainings. But a deeper interest attaches to the expulsion of the Mormons from Missouri, which was timely for Mr. Burnett, as it gave rise to much litigation by which he profited on beginning to practise. He was counsel both for and against the Mormons, and marched against them as part of the militia, after Bogard's bloody defeat by the Danites. This exciting episode is related at considerable length. Smith's portrait is worth reproducing:

"Joseph Smith, jr., was at least six feet high, well-formed, and weighed about one hundred and eighty pounds. His appearance was not prepossessing, and his conversational powers were but ordinary. You could see at a glance that his education was very limited. He was an awkward but vehement speaker. In conversation he was slow, and used too many words to express his ideas, and would not generally go directly to a point. But, with all these drawbacks, he was much more than an ordinary man. He possessed the most indomitable perseverance, was a good judge of men, and deemed himself born to command, and he did command. His views were so strange and striking, and his manner was so earnest, and apparently so candid, that you could not but be interested. There was a kind, familiar look about him that pleased you. He was very courteous in discussion, readily admitting what he did not intend to controvert, and would not oppose you abruptly, but had due deference to your feelings. He had the capacity for discussing a subject in different aspects, and for proposing many original views, even of ordinary matters. His illustrations were his own. He had great influence over others. As an evidence of this I will state that on Thursday, just before I left to return to Liberty, I saw him out among the crowd, conversing freely with every one, and seeming to be perfectly at ease. In the short space of five days [after arrest on account of the Danite affair] he had managed so to mollify his enemies that he could go unprotected among them without the slightest danger."

When Mr. Burnett set out for Oregon to help settle the pending fate of the Territory in favor of American ownership, it was "proposed that we should adopt either the criminal laws of Tennessee or those of Missouri for our government on the route"; just as, when it came to establishing a provisional government in Oregon, the non-local laws of Iowa were adopted for convenience. There is in the account of the untried journey to the Columbia River a primitive charm, which is felt also in the subsequent narrative of the overland journey from Oregon to California. The following characteristic incident belongs to the earlier one:

"We passed through some most beautiful valleys, and encamped on a branch of the Powder River, at the Lone Pine. This noble tree stood in the centre of a most lovely valley, about ten miles from any other timber. It could be seen, at the distance of many miles, rearing its majestic form above the surrounding plain, and constituted a beautiful landmark for the guidance of the traveller. Many teams had passed on before me; and at intervals, as I drove along, I would raise my head and look at that beautiful green pine. At last, on looking up as usual, the tree was gone. I was perplexed for the moment to know whether I was going in the right direction. There was the plain beaten wagon-road before me, and I drove on till I reached the camp just at night. That brave old pine, which had withstood the storms and snows of centuries, had fallen at last by the vandal hands of men. Some of our inconsiderate people had cut it down for fuel, but it was too green to burn. It was a useless and most unfortunate act."

A large part of the chapters relating to Oregon is occupied with a defence of the author against charges made in Gray's history of the State. Mr. Burnett's tone is noticeably moderate in this discussion, but we can hardly pronounce candid his excuses for introducing and getting passed a barbarous bill excluding not only slavery but free or freed blacks from the Territory. The law was quickly amended, and then repealed before it could take effect; all which, Mr. Burnett says, is the same thing as if it had never been enacted and (morally) as if it had never been conceived.

Excellent stories about the trappers of the Rocky Mountains find their counterpart in tales of the mining camp and of the curious state of society in California in 1848. With these two extracts we must take our leave of a work which can be recommended without reserve as a wholesome and entertaining contribution to the history of the present century:

"About the last of July the immigrants across the plains began to arrive [at Sacramento], and among them was James S. Thomas, from Platte City, Missouri. I had known him for about three years before I left that State for Oregon in the spring of 1843. He was then a poor young lawyer of admirable character, and was highly esteemed by all who knew him. . . . I at once inquired the time of his arrival, and he informed me it was the previous evening. He said he was *very* anxious to be at work. I at once asked him what he had, and he replied, some mules and a wagon. I said: 'Go sell everything and then come to me, and I will do the best I can for you.' That day he sold everything, and came to my office next morning. I said to him: 'We are to elect a magistrate to-morrow, and I will attend a meeting of citizens called for this evening to make a nomination, and will procure your selection if I can. In case you are selected, my brother-in-law, John P. Rogers, my son, D. J. Burnett, and myself will close our office, and give you one day's electioneering.'

"I attended the meeting and made an earnest, vigorous speech for Thomas, and he received the nomination. Next day we had a warm contest at the polls, as his competitor was well known in the city. Many objected to Thomas upon the ground of his profession. To this objection I replied that while I had nothing to say in defence of lawyers as a class, I would say that Thomas was among the best of his profession. He was elected."

"When I arrived at Sacramento City, I found melons in market. An old man of the name of Swartz cultivated several acres in melons that year, on the west bank of the Sacramento River, at a point some five miles below the city. These melons he sold readily at from one to three dollars each, according to size. From the sale of these melons he realized that year some thirty thousand dollars."

Sister Dora: A Biography. By Margaret Lonsdale. (Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1880.)—This is a republication of the sixth English edition of Margaret Lonsdale's life of the remarkable woman, Dorothy Pattison, known as "Sister Dora." Sister Dora was the youngest of ten sisters in a family of twelve children of Hauxwell, England. She was delicate as a child and subject to severe illnesses, which increased rather than retarded the natural activity of her mind. As she grew up she became stronger, and at twenty was even a leader in all out-door sports. Educated but undisciplined, and chafing under the restraint that inaction seemed to impose upon her great bodily and mental powers, it was

natural that, having won her father's reluctant consent after her mother's death, she should leave home and choose a work which her duties as a clergyman's daughter among the poor had rendered familiar to her. She taught the parish school at Little Woolston for three years very successfully, at the same time attending to the sick and poor of the village till her own health gave way. After her recovery she carried out a wish she had long entertained and joined the Protestant Sisterhood of the Good Samaritans at Coatham. Here she was employed alternately in hospital and private nursing, until her work finally centred in Walsall, where she assumed the entire charge of the nursing in the accident hospital, which contained twenty-eight beds. Indeed, she devoted all her powers, her wit and cheerfulness, her skill as nurse and surgeon, her religious faith and her unequalled physical vigor, to the care of the "Black Country" miners, and to the elevation of their life after their discharge from the hospital. Such a life precluded of necessity the formation of any friendships that could return to her the support and sympathy of which she was herself unselfishly prodigal, and when she met a man who was, her biographer says, "her superior in every respect but one—he had no faith in revealed religion," it is not surprising that she returned his devotion with a passion that made it impossible for her to recover completely from the shock of being compelled—on account of his infidelity—to give him up. She had in consequence a severe and nearly fatal illness, and from that time her self-sacrifice became a reckless disregard of her health which was "painful to witness." In June, 1878, typhoid fever having broken out in the hospital, it was closed, and she took a short rest, visiting Paris and London, but studying surgery even there. She had, however, not long to live, as she and her physician alone knew, since cancer was making rapid progress, and she returned to Walsall in October to die two months afterwards. Her last words were: "I have lived alone—let me die alone"; repeating the last until they were obeyed. The narrative is wanting in literary form, sometimes is grammatically awkward, and from beginning to end is marked by a naïveté that seems to be the result of a very slight sense of humor; now and then a touching picture is spoiled in this way, as, "she has been known to sleep with a burnt baby on each arm" (p. 103). It is conspicuously dispassionate, however, which is a rare merit in works of the kind, and which, it need hardly be said, adds greatly to the force of the book.

Rowlandson, the Caricaturist: A selection from his works, with anecdotal descriptions of his famous caricatures and a sketch of his life, times, and contemporaries. By Joseph Grego, author of 'James Gillray, the Caricaturist, his life, works, and times.' 2 vols., with about four hundred illustrations. (New York: J. W. Bouton. 1880.)—Thomas Rowlandson was one of the three famous caricaturists whose work belongs to the years, otherwise tolerably barren of art, in Great Britain at least, from 1785 to 1820. Gillray and he were born and their work began to attract attention at about the same time. In 1785 Rowlandson was twenty-nine years old, and Gillray not much older. The third of the triad was not yet living, but in 1811, when Gillray laid down his graver for ever, Rowlandson was still in his prime (indeed, "Doctor Syntax" belonged to that year and the years before and after, and the "Dance of Death" had yet to come), and in 1811 George Cruikshank was already a formidable author of political squibs. It is remarkable, too, how much similarity there is in the work of the three. Differences, of course, we expect to find among them; but they resembled each other in a way not often seen. The two seniors led different lives. Gillray was an engraver with a natural gift for caricatures, so that he found his comic pay better than his high-art productions. Rowlandson was a water-color painter of originality and feeling, and possessed of a power over landscape art which might have led him to great excellence in that direction; but, always in need of money to supply costly dissipation and waste, he was easily brought to doing whatever would pay the most readily. And there were publishers who saw to it that he should do nothing but work for them.

Mr. Grego has now published studies of both of the older caricaturists. The newly-published study of Rowlandson, which is before us, consists of two large square volumes, crowded with outline illustrations. Considered as a Life of Rowlandson, it does not give many incidents or traits which are not in the most accessible works, in Redgrave and Bryan and Nagler. Considered as an account of his engraved works, it is a little unequal and a little informal. Some prints are described at length and others only named; the sizes are not given, nor are the descriptions of such a character as to allow of precise identification of a doubtful print. There is no continuous numbering; so that this work does not constitute a catalogue by whose numbers the separate works can be known—as, "Grego 1212," and the like. Moreover, it is expressly stated that completeness has not been found obtainable. A collector of Cruikshank, for instance, needs Mr. Reid's book for the proper identification of his acquisitions; but the collector of Rowlandson will not be the better for Mr. Grego's book, except (and it is an important exception) as a suggestive guide to his researches and enquiries. Collectors, indeed, would seem to be chasing a will-o'-the-wisp when they ask for complete collections of Rowlandson, whether ready-made, for their study, or practicable to be made anew. Mr. Grego relates his experiences in this matter—how no collections at all approaching completeness exist in public museums; how some great private accumulations were inaccessible to him; how he suspects the existence of whole series of caricatures which he has never seen; how he concluded that it was his own collection upon which he must rely, and how he tried to bring that up to approximate completeness, in spite of high and increasing prices and a very scant supply. All this, and indeed the whole book, is very interesting. Those who like history in its "original packages" will enjoy the description of rare political and social caricatures which they will never see, and occasional reproductions of them.

The four hundred illustrations seem to be reproductions by some one of the many modern processes based upon photography. They are not as clear and sharp as they might be, and, when the picture is greatly reduced in scale, this want of clearness is a serious defect. But still, four hundred reproductions, accurate as far as they go, of originals often wholly unobtainable, generally very rare, and never common, have a definite and a not small value.

Contemporary Portraits: Thiers, Strauss compared with Voltaire, Arnaud de l'Ariège, Dupanloup, Adolphe Monod, Vinet, Verny, Robertson. By E. de Pressensé, D.D., author of 'Jesus Christ: his Times, Life, and Work,' 'The Early Years of Christianity,' etc. Translated by Annie Harwood Holmden. (New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 1880. 8vo, pp. 400.)—Besides the "portraits" enumerated in the title-page this book contains two articles of a more properly historical character, "The Antecedents of the Vatican Council" and "The Culturkampf in Germany." Nearly one-third of the volume is devoted to subjects of almost general interest; the latter two-thirds bring before the reader "three eminent representatives of French Evangelical Protestantism and one great English preacher." They do more than that—they bring before us, under traits to a great degree common to Monod, Vinet, and Verny, the author himself, an equally eminent representative of conservative French Protestantism. Every part of the collection, which consists of recent contributions to periodical literature, will be found interesting by readers to whom analytical character-sketches of men, times, and tendencies are more enjoyable than amusing anecdotes varnished into a semblance of biographical history; but intrinsically the most valuable portions are those in which the eloquent writer, in depicting the growth, mental struggles, and final development of a few contemporary heroes of Christianity, reveals the traits of his own religious ideal.

His own orthodoxy our author broadly unfolds when, speaking of Verny, he says:

"We fully endorse the saying . . . : 'There is a faith which saves, but there is no dogmatism which saves.' He failed, however, to define with sufficient distinctness, apart from all human systems, what is that saving faith which is the essence of Christianity. . . . It is based upon positive facts; its essential feature is a great miracle, wrought by the Son of God, who 'died for our sins and rose again for our justification.' 'He who believes not that life is come into the world in Jesus Christ, he who thinks he can go to the Father otherwise than by the Son, the Son of the living God, is not a Christian.'"

This saving faith, however, is not to be a blind, traditional belief, according to M. de Pressensé. On the contrary, it must be the fruit of freedom, search for truth, and conviction.

"Timid believers," he says, "seek to stifle doubt by a practical exercise of faith, and flee scientific enquiry as they would the plague. They do not see that in this way they put unbelief in the place of doubt; for the man who is afraid of his own thoughts and dares not look scientific objections in the face, is an unbeliever. It is by the strangest perversion that the stultification of the mind can be mistaken for sanctification, and that the abnegation of intelligence can be supposed to be a Christian virtue. There are pious ignorant people; but ignorance is not in itself pious."

And these views he applies, without reserve, to the relation of man to state and church:

"If man has in his conscience a sufficient criterion of truth, if he is by his very nature in harmony with it, truth cannot be forced upon him

under any pretext by a power outside himself. . . . The magnetic needle does not need to be turned to the pole by force; it tends toward it by a necessity of its nature, and thus becomes the mariner's guide. So it is with the soul. It has a tendency towards the pole of truth, all the more sure because it is spontaneous."

Like Vinet, M. de Pressensé is "as impatient of the yoke of intolerant orthodoxy as of that of the hierarchy," and does "not find the truth embodied in the form of a *systematic creed* even in the Bible itself, which speaks with supreme authority on matters of faith." It is perhaps needless to add that he condemns Bismarck's *Culturkampf* almost as much as the dogmatic enunciations of Pius IX. M. de Pressensé is thus a zealous champion both of faith and freedom; and his championship is marked by the best moral qualities of a leader: ardor tempered by toleration, partisanship restrained by charitableness. The last-named virtue, however, is perhaps too far stretched in some of his biographical sketches. His "Thiers" is all but a panegyric, although the founder of the French republic was never a model of a Christian, and only in his last years an advocate of republican liberty; and Voltaire and Dupanloup—men of the most antagonistic tendencies, though of tendencies equally repugnant to the author—are judged with a mildness which the mere admiration of genius and *esprit* does not sufficiently justify. Strauss alone, the assailant both of Christianity and France—of the latter in 1870—may be said to be treated without favor, though also *sine ira*. The spirit that pervades the whole book is noble, the style is beautiful throughout, and the light thrown upon the evangelical movements of our age—especially in France, Switzerland, and England—must be welcome to thoughtful readers of every shade of religious opinion. The philosophy, however, which underlies the Christian speculations of the author must be said to be merely a philosophy of sentiment. His dogmas are based neither on logical nor on historical deductions; they grow subjectively out of his conscience and pious reverence. He rejects eternal punishment as he rejects critical negation—as repugnant to his feelings; he accepts the supernatural Christ because he feels "lost" without him.

The translation is excellent, but it is to be regretted that the book has not gone through a better revision. We find "Seignior" for Senior (p. 3), "Wissemberg" for Wessenberg (pp. 49, 62), "Hæfel" for Hefele (p. 64), "Reimarius" for Reimarus (p. 86), "Misckiewitz" for Mickiewicz (p. 250), "the 17th of July" for the 25th (p. 8), "1860" for 1866 or 1867 (p. 19), "twenty-three departments" for twenty-six (p. 25), "old president" for ex-president (=*ancien président*, p. 33), "1848" for 1847 (p. 51), and many similar misprints or slips of the pen. "Deism" sometimes incorrectly alternates with "theism," and by a slight anachronism Gibbon is made to figure "at the commencement of this century" (p. 252).

Le Peuple et la Langue des Mèdes. Par Jules Oppert. 8vo, pp. xi.-296. (Paris: Maissonneuve et Cie. 1879.)—There seems to be a fascination about that magnificent inscription in three cuneiform languages for whose preservation Darius planed the almost inaccessible side of the mountain of Behistun. Sir Henry Rawlinson's last published work was a new translation of the text of which he took squeezes about forty years ago; and now M. Oppert—whose first work that we remember, published in 1847, in the days when he wrote in his native German, was on the phonology of the language of the Persian column, and whose first work in French, published soon after, was still devoted to the Achæmenian inscriptions—returns in his latest volume to the same subject, and, under the title given above, discusses the language of the second column of the Behistun inscription. The first, or Persian, column was first translated; the third, or Assyrian, did not long baffle research; but the second, the language of the Turanian Medes, has been much more difficult, owing to the fact that in deciphering it it was not practicable to compare it with any other known language, so that to very few scholars did it seem worth while to expend the labor which must bear small fruits, however successful. De Saulcy, Westergaard, and Hincks, however, made a fair beginning, as did Sir Henry Rawlinson, although the latter in this, as in other fields, gave very inadequate returns to the public from his ingenious studies. To Mr. Norris, the learned author of the 'Assyrian Dictionary,' we are indebted for the work, published in 1853, 'Memoir on the Scythic Version of the Behistun Inscription,' which has remained by far the chief authority on the subject to the present day, as Haug added nothing, and Holtzmann, in his later and more elaborate attempts of 1862 and 1870, only erred where Norris was correct, and added a few good copies of minor inscriptions.

Having given equal attention to all of the three languages of the Achæmenian inscriptions, Oppert has advantages over any other scholar in their translation, and the present work on those in the Median tongue marks a great advance on Norris. Besides the great Behistun inscription of Darius, son of Hystaspes, the Medic texts include a very short one of Cyrus, seven other rather long inscriptions of Darius, six of Xerxes, and two of Artaxerxes Mnemon, most of them bilingual or trilingual. An extremely interesting point, anticipated, however, by Oppert in 'Records of the Past,' vol. vii. p. 109, is his announcement that there is a distinct mention of the Avesta in the last paragraph of the Median column. Here both the other texts are mutilated. He thus translates it:

"And Darius the king said, By the grace of Ormuzd I have made also a collection of texts in the Persian language, such as previously did not exist. And I have made a text of the Law [Median *ukku*, found in another passage as the translation of the Persian *abasta*, the original of Avesta], and a commentary on the Law, and the benediction and the translations. And I have written and promulgated it all. Thus I have re-established the old book in all the lands, and the people accept it."

Another point that will invite hostile criticism, we think, among scholars of the old Persian is his translation of a Persian text of Darius at Persepolis, in which he finds a mention of Ahriman under the title of "The Other One," *Aniya*. Apart from this, the monotheistic character of the Medic, as of the other texts of the Persian kings, is very striking. Accompanying M. Oppert's translations of these texts are a grammar and a glossary, which sufficiently justify the judgment of the alliance of the Medic with the Uralo-Altaic languages.

On Mr. Spencer's Formula of Evolution as an exhaustive statement of the changes of the Universe. By Malcolm Guthrie. (London: Trübner & Co. 1879.)—Mr. Spencer's 'First Principles' have received first and last from the critics about as complete a pulverization as often befalls a philosophic work. No critique has been as acute and dispassionate as that which Mr. Guthrie presents in these two hundred pages. That the impartiality of tone is somewhat voluntary and affected is more than probable. No critic, after proving the first fifty statements of a writer to be utterly idiotic, can possibly feel as if the fifty-first might very likely be a gem of wisdom, and ought to be approached and analyzed with all the forms of respect. Yet this is the manner of Mr. Guthrie from page to page of his work. The reader ends by finding it rather dry, and longs for a somewhat broader and more sweeping touch. Mr. Guthrie shows that Spencer has not started from "the homogeneous," as he professes, but assumes a differentiation ready-made at the beginning of the universe, thus admitting an arbitrary principle. He proves elaborately Spencer's failure to deduce the evolution of vital organization and of consciousness from other data; he then tries to amend the Spencerian formula, which even amended remains but a partial and vague description of the world's changes; and in an appendix of seventy pages he analyzes the other principal criticisms of Spencer's philosophy.

On the whole, we must say that there is a certain Scottish lack of lightness and humor in the work—an over-thoroughness which makes the reader's sympathies lie rather with the victim of so elaborate a post-mortem examination. Do negative polemics on such a scale, after all, pay? And is it not breaking a butterfly upon a wheel to take two hundred pages to argue down such flimsy vagueness as the 'First Principles'? No philosopher achieves such vast popularity as Spencer except by reason of some real merit. Mr. Spencer's principal merit is his pluck in *trying* to do what every philosophy must do—to formulate the phenomenal universe in a simple, positive, dogmatic way. His next merit is that he is profuse of facts familiar as well as remote, and untechnical in his manner of exposition. When another author shall arise, who, standing as little aloof from the plane of the popular intelligence as Mr. Spencer, shall make a synthesis as truly complete as his is spuriously so, as distinct in its formulation as his is equivocal, as consistent as he is incoherent, that author will easily drive Mr. Spencer from his stronghold in the popular imagination. But so long as the acuter minds content themselves with simply pooh-poohing and sneering, so long will their voices be unheard and Spencerism fill its broad berth. What matters a little more or less of vagueness in a philosophy which, after all, provisionally performs its fundamental function—the function of speaking the people's language, of enveloping the world in a single conception, and of deriving our own ideals of duty and the facts of objective existence from one and the same principle? When the philosophy of the critics performs this function better, their critical labors will not be needed, for the so-called synthetic philosophy will simply be outgrown.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 27, 1880.

The Week.

THE bearing on the fortunes of the various Republican candidates of the composition of the Chicago Convention ought to be known by this time pretty accurately, but in reality nobody has anything to say about it which can be implicitly relied on. The main fact is that only three Northern States, New York, Pennsylvania, and Illinois, are pledged to Grant, and it is certain that in the two former a considerable number of delegates will refuse to be bound by their instructions. What the delegates from the other States will do is, of course, also very uncertain, so that he would not be far wrong who treated all the figuring and calculating done by our esteemed contemporaries as absolutely worthless. That there is formidable and growing discontent with the operations of the Grant managers is plain enough, but whether it will show itself at the Convention, and if so how, who can tell? The most suggestive fact in the political doings of the past week is the addition of Illinois to the list of States governed by Bosses. Illinois has hitherto been very free and American in its political ways, but Logan has now been fairly installed as its Boss, with all the powers and privileges belonging to the office. It must be admitted that anybody over whom Logan reigns has sunk pretty low.

The Illinois Republican Convention has eclipsed every other during the past week in interest and importance. All the necessary particulars in regard to it we have given in another place. If the *milieu* of the National Convention is likely to have any influence on its decisions, the slight put upon the Cook County delegation must be considered ill-advised. The prominent sentiment in Chicago is favorable to Blaine rather than Grant, who will have to rely chiefly on the backing of the *Inter-Ocean*. The *Tribune* of that city, which is greatly incensed by the late proceedings, points out that Logan failed to gain admittance to the Convention as a regular delegate, having been defeated in his own home; "so he ordered one of his Jackson County creatures to step down, and he stepped into the Convention as a 'proxy.'" This circumstance has been overlooked in the special despatches of the New York *Times*, in which Logan's behavior has been vastly complimented; but we observe that when the boot is on the other leg the *Times* can see an impropriety as quickly as any other partisan. Thus, when the Louisiana Republican Convention assembled on Monday, we read that "Deputy-Collector Dumont, one of Sherman's most active agents, called the convention to order, and was named as temporary chairman. *He was not by right a delegate, having been defeated in his district*, but his name was forced upon the roll, as was anticipated by the Grant men.' The Grant men, we observe, always anticipate something when they find themselves in a minority. Judge Beattie endeavored, in that interest, to nominate a chairman of his own, and a rush was made for the stand by himself, Pinchback, and the nominee, and, failing to reach it, they bolted, held a separate convention, nominated sixteen Grant delegates to Chicago, and followed the Illinois example of dispensing with a platform. The regular convention went calmly on with its work, with ex-Governor Warmoth for a presiding officer. The delegates were uninstructed, and stand seven for Sherman, seven for Grant, and one for Blaine; while Senator Kellogg, who is one of them, and who received a testimonial of renewed confidence in the resolutions, may no doubt be trusted to go with the strongest battalions.

Mr. Bayard's Deputy-Marshals Bill has been passed in the Senate after strenuous opposition from Mr. Hoar and Mr. Edmunds. Mr. Hoar contended that it was dangerous to introduce into the public service the practice of dividing executive offices between the two political parties. Executive officers ought to be selected for their efficiency without reference to party. This is quite true. If Mr. Bayard's bill created new offices, or organized a new public service, Mr. Hoar's objections would be fatal. Unhappily, its sole object is the remedy of a gross abuse. The reason—to which the Republican Senators never so much as alluded—why the Democrats are drawing the deputy-marshals from the two political parties and giving their appointment to the courts is, that the Republicans have made a practice not only of drawing them from one party only, but largely from the rascals of one party, to do the work of seeing that both parties get fair play. It can hardly be unknown to Mr. Hoar, too, that their superior officer, at present the U. S. Marshal, is always a partisan, and often a rabid partisan, and is rarely appointed for anything but his partisanship. In fact, the only positive and distinct impression one gets from reading the Republican speeches on this subject is that anything the Democrats propose relating to elections must needs be wrong. We have heard as yet of no attempt to meet Democratic precautions against partisanship by taking the whole service out of politics, which is the only real remedy for existing evils.

The same observation may be made with regard to the bill, also introduced by the Democrats, taking away from the United States marshals and deputies the power of arrest on election day without legal process. The power of arrest without process on election-day may be very necessary, but it is not a power which ought to be committed to an officer whose bread and butter are dependent on the result of the election, nor to his deputies appointed for one day, without reference to their character and as a reward for "working" in the service of one party. To ask the Democrats or any party to submit to this arrangement one day longer than they can help it, is utterly unreasonable. It is very curious to see how in the debates both sides manage to avoid all mention of the radical cure, and content themselves with exchanging, at short range, charges of intended villany.

The Morgan Electoral Vote Resolution, regulating the manner of counting the vote at the Presidential election, has also been passed in the Senate by a party vote. Its leading provisions are, that when only one list of votes from any State has been received it shall not be rejected without the concurrence of both Houses; but any vote on the list may be rejected with such concurrence and the remainder of the list be received. When more than one list is received from any State, if both Houses do not concur in receiving any of such lists, all will be rejected. The plan is substantially that of the late Senator Morton. It was opposed by the Republicans on various grounds—such as that such work as this ought to be done by a Constitutional amendment or an act, and not by a resolution establishing a joint rule; that though it is true that in the days of Republican control of Congress the vote was counted under a joint rule, yet that rule was a hastily adopted expedient to meet some objection of President Lincoln's about signing a bill relating to his own re-election; that if the two Houses are allowed to reject the vote of a State it places the result at the mercy of an unscrupulous party majority when both Houses are in the hands of the same party; that it is true that this state of things prevailed when the Republicans controlled both Houses, but the Republicans were good men, while the Democrats are bad men, and cannot be trusted with a Presidential count. Senator Edmunds made the hardest fight against it in favor of his own plan, which takes away from Congress all power of rejecting a State vote, and obliges each State to provide by law for the decision of contests before sending the list to Washington. The Democrats did not answer their opponents on this resolution any more than on the Deputy-Marshals Bill, fearing that they might be "stirred up" for campaign purposes.

The doings of the Alabama Republican Convention at Selma were of a very pronounced character. The situation was complicated by the fact that the State Executive Committee was anti-Grant, while a large majority of the delegates were for him. The Committee would apparently have disregarded this difference if it had felt able, but being without a Boss it could only delay organization a few hours and then succumbed. The Chicago delegates chosen by the districts were not only bound to support Grant, but were made to pledge themselves openly before the Convention, and finding two Sherman men who refused to bow the knee, they incontinently dismissed them and appointed two of the faithful in their place. It is clear that if the Chicago Convention should take it into its head to "go behind the returns," and listen to the complaints of disfranchised districts, there would be plenty of occupation for the Machine of a novel and interesting nature.

The Kellogg case has been set aside by the Senate in a spirit not friendly to its revival, and fatal to the hopes of his prosecutors. No doubt the Senator from Louisiana owes his escape to the refusal of a certain number of his Democratic colleagues to violate the understanding by which he and Butler of South Carolina were seated in the summer of 1877, Patterson purchased immunity from the legal authorities of that State by voting for Butler, and the balance of power in the Senate passed from the Republican to the Democratic side. This understanding has been frequently denied in the recent debates, but it was an open secret at the time, and Patterson's disloyalty to his party was explicable on no other ground. Last Friday the New York *Sun* published a series of private letters addressed by Patterson to Gen. H. C. Worthington, from June to October, 1877, before and pending the former's indictment for felony, and clearly foreshadowing the bargain which was to save him from being taken back to South Carolina for trial. Worthington was Collector of the port of Charleston, through Patterson's Senatorial patronage, and had been, if not as deep in the mire of corruption as that illustrious carpet-bagger, sufficiently so to make it necessary that they should pull together, especially if Worthington was summoned as a witness, and to make a call on him for aid to meet counsel fees seem perfectly proper. "In all these matters," writes Patterson, September 15, "you got as much as I did, and invested nothing. You have as good and better office than mine, and it cost you nothing, and yet I am to bear the brunt of the fight and all the expense."

Patterson believed, and wrote Worthington, that his tracks were pretty well covered if Niles G. Parker's "books for 1871–72 were gone"; but he did not cease to be anxious till he had had an interview in the fall with Judge Humphreys, one of Grant's disreputable appointees, who, he reports, "fully understands the case, and will do what is necessary," as he did, by refusing to surrender Patterson on Gov. Hampton's requisition. "I now feel perfectly easy and happy since I saw Judge Humphreys yesterday," he says in the letter already quoted, "and don't care a damn." In an earlier epistle he relates how he was "bad struck" by a "splendid-looking girl in the Ninth-Street car," and on following her up found her to be a "friend" of Worthington's, for whom he offered to try to get an office. In short, the whole correspondence reveals the degraded character of this harpy, who for years exploited the State of South Carolina by means of the President, the Federal offices, and the army and navy of the United States; who was, up to the first of December, 1877, defended by almost the entire Republican press as an upright and much-slandered man; and who would be prevented from taking advantage of the Grant restoration not because of his rascality, but because he "went back" on his party to save himself from the penitentiary.

During the early days of the week at the Stock Exchange there was a gradual improvement in the tone of the stock market, and an advance in the prices of the principal stocks; and appearances indicated that after eight weeks of great depression a recovery had at last begun. This was the situation when news came that the Philadelphia and Reading Coal and Iron Company had suspended payment. The stock of this company is owned entirely by its creator, the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad Company; on the following day the announcement of the suspension of the latter was made. The effect on prices in Wall Street was a decline in Philadelphia and Reading Railroad stock from 48½ per cent. (the stock before the general break-down of prices during the last eight weeks having sold above 70 per cent.) to 17¼ per cent. The other coal stocks fell 2½ to 4 per cent. in the first two days after the Reading suspensions, but before the close of the week 12¼ to 24 points. This decline caused such an unsettled feeling in the stock market, and such a general apprehension of failures, that leading stocks in no way connected with the coal trade fell 1 to 9½ per cent., and this, it will be remembered, after a previous decline ranging from 10 to 45 points. The effect of the Reading suspensions on the coal trade, while opinion is not unanimous on the subject, is generally thought to be favorable, for the reason that the property will now be relieved of the pressure of a large floating debt, said to be not far from $8,000,000, and which, although reduced from what it was, has driven the company into sacrifices necessary for its existence but prejudicial to the coal trade at large.

The story of the Reading is a very simple one. Before Mr. Gowen came into control the company had a profitable business as a coal-carrier, and had a very high credit in the foreign as well as the domestic markets. Mr. Gowen conceived the idea of extending the company's business, reasoning that its credit could be profitably applied to the purchase of coal-lands and the mining of coal, and also to the consumption of coal in the making of iron. In short, he reasoned that if such large profits could be made in carrying coal there might as well be added to these the profits to be derived, first from mining coal and, secondly, from consuming it in making iron. He started on this theory by organizing the Philadelphia and Reading Coal and Iron Company, which was owned and its debts guaranteed by the railroad company. This new company bought at the high prices then current all the coal-lands to be had, until the Reading was the largest owner of anthracite coal-lands on this continent or in the world. It is said that the lands owned by the Reading contain a supply of anthracite coal sufficient for the world's demand for half a century. The debt created by this coal-land investment had of course to be carried. It was a question, with all except flighty enthusiasts, whether the business of the Reading would yield enough to carry this debt, even if "times should continue good." As it was, the panic of 1873 was followed by depression in the iron trade and in the coal trade, and four years ago it was as clearly demonstrated as it is now that the net profits of the company could not overtake the interest on the debt created to enable the company to go into the coal business on the magnificent scale which Mr. Gowen had planned. He was sanguine, however, and fertile in expedients, and "shinned" along until the floating debt of the company had got up to about $10,000,000. A year's good business reduced this somewhat, but he appears to have become convinced that no business which it was possible for the company to do would be sufficient to carry existing obligations, and on the 21st instant "the sponge was thrown up," and paper given for current supplies went to protest. It would have been better for all concerned if the inevitable had been recognized four years ago, and the business world had been spared the spectacle of the failure, in good times, of a company whose ruin was wrought in the wild days before the great panic of 1873. The capitalization and debt of the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad Company in 1872 amounted to $73,486,997; the annual report for 1878, the latest we have at hand, shows that the same items were $120,875,100, or nearly $47,400,000 increase in seven years.

The question what to do with the silver which the Treasury is coining at the rate of $2,000,000 a month is becoming very serious. The Assistant Treasurer here, being asked whether he could accommodate a little more of it, has reported that he has 500 tons

of it in store now, and that if he took any more of it he would run some risk of bursting his vaults. It now has been demonstrated that it is useless to try to get it into circulation, since what goes out from the Treasury comes rapidly back again. Nevertheless at the Chamber of Commerce dinner the other night Mr. Sherman made no allusion to this state of things, and talked vaguely of making a silver dollar big enough to be equal in value to gold, or, in other words, proposed to recoin this huge mass of metal, which in big dollars would be even less acceptable to the public than it is in little dollars. Mr. Halsted, of Cincinnati, and Mr. Medill, of Chicago, the great silver apostles of the West, are silent too. They never explain to their deluded followers how it is that the people do not hanker after their Fathers' Dollar, for which their newspapers fought so fiercely two years ago. Nor can they excuse their silence by pleading the absorbing interest of the Presidential nomination, because the silver question is one of the great questions of the canvass.

Whenever the Presidency is in question Senator David Davis is apt to be heard from in the most obliging manner. A correspondence which has the stamp of the manufactured article appeared on Monday, between the Senator and "a constituent, a friend, and an honored citizen of Illinois," whose perfect right to ask for the former's views on public questions is allowed with absolute courtesy. Senator Davis thinks the country wants peace from sectional strife; that the Republican demand for a strong government "means substantially a centralized government, destructive of home rule in the States," and would logically end in the overthrow of the Republic; that the same ruin would attend the third-term innovation; that the growth of great corporations is a cause of alarm, and that a struggle is impending between them and the people, which "will be watched by every patriot with intense anxiety"; that subsidies are sources of corruption, and ought to be forbidden; that the remaining public lands should be sacredly reserved for cultivators of the soil; that the tariff should be subjected to a revision "at once searching and fair," and without delay, the newspaper, school-book, Bible, and salt of the poor man being singled out for mention as inexcusably burdened; that the public debt should be rapidly extinguished, and with it the preferred class who live on incomes and free from taxes; that the cost of government can be greatly reduced by retrenchment; and that "elections ought to be exempt from the presence of any menacing force and to be free from the contamination of corrupt returning-boards." Senator Davis will be glad to cast his vote for any candidate who will in good faith strive to carry out this policy. His views are not so peculiar that he need despair of having a chance to do so. The most noticeable thing about them is the absence of all reference to the currency, though Judge Davis has been hitherto "the Favorite Son" of the Greenbackers.

The Toronto *Globe* makes a good point in reply to the American claim in the Fortune Bay affair, by showing that Mr. Foster, the American counsel at Halifax, argued against the profitableness of the herring-fishery, on the ground that it "could not be carried on successfully under the provisions of the Treaty," because we "could not go in shore and seine herring," which is, we believe, one of the things the American fishermen were doing when attacked at Fortune Bay. But this does not dispose of the fact that the provincial fishermen took the law into their own hands, nor is the American fishing on Sunday in disregard of the local law, as the *Globe* maintains, like an attempt to "land canned lobsters on Sunday at an American port in resistance to the custom-house officers." The landing of canned lobsters is an operation which requires the participation of the custom-house officers. The main importance of the point about the Sunday laws, however, lies in the test it will afford of the extent to which the value of the fisheries is lowered to Americans by local legislation. If the operation of the Sunday laws and laws prohibiting seine-fishing was not contemplated by the Treaty, the Americans have either not got what they paid for or have paid too dear for what they have got. In the meantime a bill has been introduced in Congress by Mr. Loring, of Massachusetts, reimposing the duty on fish and fish-oil, the abolition of which was provided for by the Treaty of Washington.

The Gladstone Government has given offence to some of the strong Protestants by appointing Lord Ripon, who is Catholic, to the Governor-Generalship of India, and has been vigorously remonstrated with thereupon, and has had Mr. Gladstone's pamphlet on the 'Vatican Decrees' quoted against it. In fact, this appointment is said to have been one of the causes of the defeat of Mr. McLaren, the new Lord Advocate, in the Wigtown Burghs in Scotland. Another section of Liberals have been somewhat offended by the retention of Sir Bartle Frère at the Cape of Good Hope, where he is superintending the erection of the new Confederation. But both of these things probably conciliate far more voters than they offend. No one really doubts Gladstone's hostility to the Papacy or his disapproval of the Zulu War, but a great many have of late doubted his moderation and toleration and practicalness, and these will be somewhat reassured by his sending a good man to India without reference to his creed, and by his keeping a good man at the Cape to do special work, in spite of his having acted recklessly in another matter. The religious question has come up in a curious form in the House of Commons, by the refusal of Mr. Bradlaugh, a very violent Atheist, to take the oath, no form of affirmation having as yet been provided there for those who do not believe in God or a future state, though there is such a form in use in the courts. Bradlaugh would probably get through more easily if he were not also a prominent apostle of some unpleasant doctrines about marriage, and had not published a book attacking the present dynasty.

Nothing positive has as yet transpired about the result of the proposals made by England to the Powers for bringing united pressure to bear on Turkey in order to secure the full execution of the Treaty of Berlin. Mr. Gladstone stated in the House of Commons on Tuesday that until definitive answers were received Mr. Goschen would not receive his final instructions. The latter has made a long visit to Baron Haymerle at Vienna, and it is likely enough that the report that he found him cautious and disinclined to energetic action, is true. It is difficult to see how much pressure on Turkey could fail to end in some form of coercion—probably the formation of an international commission to administer the finances of the Empire, which would be neither more nor less than taking possession of the Government. This would inevitably precipitate some kind of decision as to what should take the place of the Sultan. The idea of the present British Ministry undoubtedly is that the Christian populations in Europe should take his place, through some sort of political organization under the protection of the Powers; but this is probably not the plan of Austria. She may not know as yet what she wants to do in the Balkan region, but she probably does not by any means wish to see it settled now that she can never do anything. The chance that there will be a general conference, however, appears strong.

The Italian elections are over, and it is now admitted that the result puts the Ministry in no better position than before; that is, its majority, if it have one, is, at best, very small—not over 33, it is said; but it is in dispute whether it has any majority at all. The Right makes claims which, if well founded, will reduce the 33 to 8, and there is, therefore, a strong prospect of a renewal of the old faction fighting. Nor is any marked change in the situation likely to be effected until the suffrage is extended. This would doubtless give an overwhelming preponderance to some party, but whether it would be the Radicals of the Left or to a new Clerical party is very doubtful. The Italian Kingdom, such as it is, has been made by the middle and upper classes. What the peasants would say about it is still undetermined.

PRESIDENTIAL NOMINATIONS BY BOSSES.

PROBABLY few of our readers have followed the process by which the Illinois Republican Convention was made to send a delegation to Chicago pledged to support the nomination of General Grant. The full details would be wearisome to any but a professional politician, but its main features were these: General Logan is the State Boss, and has the usual Boss's control of the State Committee, and the State Committee has the direction of the organization of the Convention. Accordingly, when ninety-two delegates from Cook County who were opposed to the third term presented themselves, they were, by order of the State Committee, refused admission by muscular doorkeepers, thus securing a majority of those already within to the third-term party, which proceeded to make the remaining arrangements. A resolution was passed binding all delegates to abide by the action of the Convention —*i. e.*, not to appeal against its decisions to the National Convention—as a condition precedent to their claims being considered by the Committee on Credentials. The majority being thus in full possession of the machinery, the Cook County contest was settled by admitting some anti-third-term delegates, but not too many. The Convention was now organized, and proceeded to the single business before it, that of sending a delegation to Chicago instructed to vote for General Grant, the minority being allowed no representation in it, and all attempt to appeal from the decision to the National Convention, or to make any pretence of deliberating in the National Convention, being rendered futile. The general effect is that forty-four Illinois delegates—the choice not of the Congressional districts but of the Machine—go to Chicago not to confer, or listen to arguments, or hear the views of delegates from other States, but to cast a vote which might be cast by one man, or might instead be enclosed in an envelope to the Chairman of the Convention. We need hardly add that no platform was adopted. It would be ludicrous for a body of this sort to put forth a platform, and it had sufficient sense of humor to be aware of the fact. Logan has thus been more successful than either Cameron or Conkling. He has attempted more and accomplished more, and may be set down as the principal member of the third-term "syndicate."

This, of course, does not make General Grant's nomination certain, but it somewhat increases the chances of it in two ways. It makes a considerable addition to the number of his "first, last, and all the time" supporters, and thus brings him considerably nearer the majority, and it will probably affect the imagination of the unpledged delegations sufficiently to make them more easily carried away by the current which always sets towards the candidate who seems to be the winning man. This influence will act with considerable force even upon the Northern delegates; with the bulk of the Blaine and Sherman delegates from the South it will probably be still more powerful. The Southern delegates do not expect to contribute anything towards the success of the Republican candidate at the polls, and consequently enter the Convention without any sense of responsibility. No nomination will make their work in the campaign either heavier or lighter. The reports that the whites in some Southern States are likely to support Grant are, of course, mere electioneering canards. These delegates, too, are not, it must be said, a very estimable body of men, or noted for their independence of character. The great bulk of them are sorely pressed to make a living, and are not very particular as to how they do it. Promises of office are therefore likely to make a very deep impression on them, and probably not a few are open to persuasion in a more substantial form. It is to them of the last importance to support the man who seems before the Convention most likely to be nominated, and this consideration will be as weighty with the delegates now pledged to Blaine or Sherman as with the others. So that it is not unreasonable to expect, as a consequence of the preparations of the "syndicate," a rush for Grant on the first ballot, which *may* carry him in. Should this rush fail, and his prestige be thus shaken, and time be given for a little sober thought as to the probable effect of his nomination on the party fortunes, the tide would very probably turn against him.

But we have no intention of now playing the prophet. Nobody can prophesy with much confidence about any convention, and least of all about a convention containing so many discordant elements as the one which is to meet at Chicago. Everything is possible in such a body, and a dozen different things are equally probable. What we wish to point out is, that the mode in which it has been made up makes it less of a deliberative body than any national convention which has hitherto met. This is due not simply to the fact that the candidates have never before received so much discussion previous to the meeting of the convention, but also to the fact that the candidates themselves or their chief followers have labored with a zeal and openness in packing it such as candidates have never before ventured on. "Packing" may seem to some a hard word, but every deliberative body is packed in so far as it is made up of persons bound beforehand to decide in a particular way on a particular question, without regard to evidence or opposing arguments. In this case the proper work of the convention was begun months ago in the primaries, and was completed, as far as it could be completed, in the State conventions, so that if the friends of General Grant could have had their way entirely, nothing would have been left for it to do but to count the votes. The kind of nominating machinery, in fact, which they evidently aim at, and mean to achieve if they can keep the Republican party long enough in power, and can secure the right kind of Presidents, will be composed of State conventions elected by "fixed primaries," and managed by a State Boss forming one of a "syndicate" or "group" of senators. These will select the candidate beforehand, and communicate his name to their respective State conventions, and see that the proper vote is forwarded to the national convention, though we should think it doubtful whether that body would be kept up. From the Boss point of view it is, in fact, already useless.

That this is not an extravagant view will, we think, be acknowledged by any one who reflects seriously on the kind of men the three Republican Bosses, Cameron, Conkling, and Logan, who have charge of the Grant movement and will be the ruling spirits of his Administration if he is elected, are, and recalls the means by which they have secured the mechanical support of their respective States for their candidate. We all know what their methods of political management are, and we have from these methods some notion of what their political ideals are. Even twenty-five years ago we presume the most pessimistic American would have refused to believe that such men could in that short period become the leading figures in the best of the political parties of the day, and would have so far got rid even of outward respect for the American processes of free election, free debate, and fair voting as to prepare nominations in the fashion recently practised at Harrisburg, Utica, and Springfield. Nevertheless, we all see it now with our own eyes. Moreover, the candidate they are putting up has within a year publicly announced his great admiration for them and confidence in their statesmanship. Even of Logan, whose political career, coupled with his gross ignorance, has long made the intelligent people of his own State blush, General Grant has very recently said that "no man is more trustworthy." The chief consideration for Republican voters, therefore, in view of all these things, is, in case the Boss programme at Chicago is successfully carried out, how they will prevent the Boss system of nominations from being perpetuated and perfected. To elect a candidate thus presented to them is not only to invite its perpetuation and perfection by the Bosses now in the field, but to offer the strongest inducement to the coming generation of politicians to train themselves to be Bosses and practise Boss arts.

It must be observed, too, that all the devices by which it was sought in the beginning to disguise the real nature of Grant's candidature have been laid aside, and it has been finally produced as the naked product of "management." The popular-enthusiasm device was abandoned as soon as the conventions met, and, indeed,

had to be abandoned in view of the opposition with which the scheme met. The preservation-of-the-Government-against the-ex-rebels device and the negro-protection device have also been abandoned, the candidate himself having openly declared, as the result of personal examination, that the South is loyal, orderly, and prosperous. The Syndicate, too, have ceased to proclaim that it is not really a third term which they propose, inasmuch as one term of another President has followed General Grant's first two terms. To make a real interval between these terms and the one now asked for, the Opposition ought to have come into power. For all the purposes of the great argument against a third term President Hayes's Administration has been a continuation of General Grant's. The office-holders whom President Hayes found in office formed a vast electioneering machine constructed in the course of eight years by the master hands of Senators Morton, Conkling, Chandler, and others, and Mr. Hayes has not disturbed them, and has done nothing, or next to nothing, to change their ideas as to the conditions of their tenure. His efforts at reform in the New York Custom-house, praiseworthy as they may have been, have had little or no influence in shaking the confidence of the official mind in the permanence of the "spoils" system. The election of Mr. Cornell to the Governorship of New York, with the hearty and open support of the Administration, after setting the President's attempt at reform at defiance, has far more than convinced the civil service that the introduction of competitive examinations into one custom-house does not mean any radical change in the conditions under which places in the public service generally are hereafter to be won and kept. That election would, in fact, have been sufficient for the purpose, even if the President, by his use of patronage at the South and elsewhere, had not justified the worst practices of the Bosses in their own States. Accordingly we find that at all the conventions which have been "fixed" for Grant the Federal office-holders have been active and prominent. At Springfield the temporary chairman and foremost "manipulator" was Mr. Raum, the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, and the rest of the Federal office-holders in the State were among the delegates who did Logan's bidding. They did it in the full belief that next March he would be the person on whom their bread and butter would depend. Common prudence, therefore, required that they should be there and do as they were bid, so that, in so far as his influence in securing a renomination through the abuse of official patronage is concerned, General Grant has to all intents and purposes occupied the Presidential chair ever since March, 1876. It is for the voters to consider what their chances of influencing the Republican nomination in 1884 will be should he, nominated in this way at Chicago, be elected, and his Machine pass for the next four years into his hands, emboldened and encouraged, as he will be, by this full condonation of the faults of his Administration; and into the hands of the Senatorial Group, emboldened and encouraged, as they will be, by the success of one of the most audacious *coups* ever perpetrated in politics.

THE PROSPECTS OF THE LIBERAL GOVERNMENT IN ENGLAND.

THE defeat of Sir William Harcourt at Oxford and the loss of the Wigtown Burghs and Sandwich by the Liberals in England since the general election have been leading some of the Conservatives to flatter themselves that a "reaction" is setting in, and that the constituencies after two or three weeks' experience of the Gladstone Ministry already begin to be sorry for putting it in office. The losses are due in two cases to a departure on the part of the Tories from the settled usage of English politics, which, both as a matter of courtesy and convenience, forbids opposition to the re-election of a member after he has taken office. It is considered, in the first place, unfair to put a member to the expense and trouble of a second contest simply because, owing to the victory of his party, he has taken office under the Crown, and when he is presumably much occupied with its duties. In the second place, the whole country is interested when the Opposition comes into power in having it form its Cabinet and get to its work as rapidly as possible, and consequently in having the members of the new Cabinet saved from the worry of further electioneering. That this usage should have been violated in Sir William Harcourt's case is a sign both of the exceeding bitterness which marked the late conflict, and of the depth of the Conservative hostility to him personally. He has been during the last six years the most provoking of the critics of the late Government. The exposures made by other Liberal orators were perhaps more powerful and searching, but they needed more information to produce their full effect. Sir William's attacks consisted mainly in ridicule in its most effective form, and he found his raw material in Conservative speeches and state papers, which he produced on the spot, so that his hearers did not need to bring much equipment of their own with them in order to enjoy the fun thoroughly.

There is, however, apart from the peculiarly intense hostility of his political enemies in his case, a reason for the disposition to contest ministerial re-elections to be found in the exceeding smallness of the Liberal majority in a good many boroughs and some counties. One has, in fact, only to run over the returns very cursorily to see the immense power which is now in the hands of the "Scratchers" in England, as well as here. Thirty-seven of the Liberal seats were won by a gross majority of 1,742 votes, or an average of forty-seven in each. In eight of these the Liberals triumphed by majorities of ten and under. One division of the county of Norfolk was carried by a majority of one. Sir William Harcourt carried Oxford City by ten majority only. Wigtown Burghs, which the Liberals have just lost, was only carried at the last election by twelve in a total vote of 1,288. Mr. Gladstone only carried Midlothian by 211 in a total vote of 2,947. It can be easily seen what a powerful temptation both to corruption and to a fresh trial even without corruption these small majorities furnish. The revelation in a city like Oxford, which is not remarkable for its electoral purity at best, that only ten men had to be won over to turn the scale the other way was, of course, more than Sir William Harcourt's opponent, Mr. Hall, a wealthy and popular brewer, who owns most of the public-houses and makes nearly all the beer in the place, could stand. He says he has been impelled into renewing the contest by his deep conviction that the new Government is given over to "infidelity and extreme Radicalism," but we may be allowed to doubt whether he would not have let religion and social order take their chance if he had had to deal with an adverse majority of five hundred.

Of course, it may be said that these small majorities show that there has been no such overwhelming turn of the tide against the Beaconsfield Ministry as the Liberal gain in seats would seem to indicate. The mere gain in seats, however, is only one of the indications of the magnitude of the Liberal triumph and of the strength of the Liberal hold on the country. Another and very important one is the increase in the area over which this triumph has been achieved. The Liberals have never been strong in the county constituencies, the landed interest being in them predominant and the county electoral qualification being still much higher than that of the boroughs; but they have now gained forty-five county seats, and have more county members than they have had since the first Parliament after the passage of the Reform Bill of 1832. Moreover, the total Liberal vote in 1874 was 1,436,215; in 1880 it was 1,882,847, an increase of 446,632, or 31 per cent. The total Conservative vote in 1874 was 1,222,205; in 1880, 1,418,442, an increase of 196,237, or only 16 per cent. In countries in which Parliamentary government has been as long and as firmly established as it has been in England and the United States, nothing but some home question of extraordinary interest suffices to move from its allegiance the bulk of either party. In fact, so strong is the yoke of political habit that nothing seems to produce much impression on the real main body. No blunders on the part of their own leaders and no persuasion on the part of the opposing leaders seem sufficient to seduce them from the ancient ways, unless some extraordinary crisis like our late civil war super-

venes. Decisions on nearly all important questions submitted to the country are really decided by a small body of what may be called outsiders, on whom habit sits lightly, and who devote themselves with more than usual eagerness to political observation and criticism. In England Lord Beaconsfield has been turned out of office and Mr. Gladstone put in his place, and the policy of the Government on the Turkish question, on the Indian question, on some important questions of taxation, on the question of land tenure, and probably others, has been either reversed or greatly modified by a body of 464,405 persons out of a total of 3,038,726 registered voters.

Party government is, in other words, government by a very small minority of voters of more than ordinary moral sensitiveness and intellectual activity, who watch legislation and administration day by day with more than ordinary vigilance, and form judgments on the policy and character of statesmen, which they execute with complete indifference to traditions, and often, it is true, with complete indifference to remoter consequences. The average voter, who marches in the centre of the party column and exerts no direct influence on the result, is not troubled by ministerial mistakes or immoralities in any particular year. He is governed by what he considers the tendencies of the two parties, and cares comparatively little about their specific acts. One, he thinks, from what he knows of its spirit and general aims, would surely in the long run lead the country to ruin, and it is about "the long run" he concerns himself when he votes. Those who are disposed to be unhappy over the reflection that the fate of free nations rests in the hands of so small a proportion of their people, and that the "disorganizers" and "bolters" have so much to do with the real work of government and the ever-faithful so little, may console themselves with Selden's observation upon the practice of ecclesiastical councils in reaching the most solemn decisions through a majority vote, and ascribing it to Divine inspiration—that "the odd man is still the Holy Ghost." The Gladstone Ministry has, it is true, to face a good many perplexing questions, and has behind it a party which is much more critical and exacting, and much more eager for a positive domestic policy, than its opponents. It has, too, to solve a good many serious problems created by its opponents; but there is not the least likelihood that it will suffer gravely in public estimation until it has done badly the work of at least one complete session of Parliament. The public patience with it, too, will be strengthened by the reflection that the Conservatives have now no leader, for Lord Beaconsfield's work is over, and Lord Salisbury is, for the present at least, fatally discredited by his evasions and equivocations about the Berlin Treaty, and Sir Stafford Northcote is an acknowledged failure. Somebody will have to be produced by them capable, in the general estimation, of holding the confidence of the country at the head of the Government before the Liberal hold on power will be seriously challenged.

HENCHMEN.

TWENTY-FIVE years ago if you spoke to an American of a Henchman he would have understood that you were making an historical allusion, and that you had in mind the follower who, in the feudal or clan state of society, either stuck close to his master's haunch when out walking, or stood by his side at his meals in the great hall, to repel any sudden outburst of treachery or insubordination. At this moment, however, the term designates a very familiar figure in American politics. An American statesman of any prominence, especially from a large State, is now more in need of Henchmen, and employs a much greater number, than any feudal baron or chief of clan ever did. The Henchman is, in fact, a necessity of what is called "machine politics," or, in plainer language, of the present mode of getting and keeping high office. He appeared on the scene naturally and inevitably as statesmen ceased to rely for office on personal appeals to the public, and on the exhibition of their powers in legislative and administrative work. The Machine of a successful politician consists of a body of persons scattered over his State, who see that the primary meetings are controlled by his friends, and that the right men are sent up to the county and State conventions, and that at the elections the needed influences of whatever nature are used either to bring voters to the polls or keep them away, for, strange as it may appear, the Machine sometimes works for defeat as well as for victory. It is very often necessary to the maintenance of a politician's influence that an election should be lost, in order to show how necessary it is to party success that his wishes should be complied with in making nominations or distributing patronage, and in this case the action of the Machine is, if we may use the expression, reversed. The great man himself retires to his home, and makes an ostentatious display of indifference to the result, and he triumphs by the overthrow of his party at the polls. All this organization is kept up by Henchmen—that is, by a body of men devoted to the statesman's person and fortune. They are not always needy. Sometimes they are men in easy circumstances, but with a longing for a political career, and who are satisfied that the surest road to public life lies through taking service with the Boss or leading politician of the State, and paying close attention to his interests. More frequently, however, they are, as their mediæval prototypes were, really poor and dependent on getting some office for their bread, and know of no way of getting it but by "working" for the Boss. The Henchman proper must, however, be distinguished from the "worker." The "worker" occupies a more subordinate and, it may be, only a temporary position, and often only serves for a single canvass, has no personal intercourse with the Boss, and is only known to him through the Henchman. It is the Henchman who corresponds with the chief, and goes on to Washington or elsewhere to see him when any emergency arises, and who waits for him at the station or the hotel when he comes to visit his territory. He keeps him advised of the state of feeling in the district; revises the lists of voters and "reliable men"; finds out why this one is sulky, and what that one needs to make him zealous; "confers" with the editors; inspires the articles in the Organ; watches any symptoms of local revolt, and determines whether it is to be feared and quelled at the outset, or despised and let run its course; makes the needed arrangements for the primary meetings, and has the programme of proceedings ready and sees that it is carried out.

A Henchman of the highest class, of course, ought to have an office, either in the custom-house or the post-office, in order, in the first place, to be relieved of all anxiety about his livelihood and to have a pursuit which will make no serious demands on his time, and, in the second, to give him control of a certain number of "workers," who are similarly provided for. His personal intercourse with his chief is like that of the original Henchman, that of an humble but devoted friend. His main business is to report facts and execute orders. Opinions of his own on policy he rarely has, as he really pays little attention to politics. He adopts unhesitatingly those of the Boss, and promulgates them as the orthodox doctrine. In conferences with him he is apt to be submissive and receptive. Some Bosses will not tolerate any other attitude. The Henchman pours out the ice-water and passes round the cigars, and orders the carriage, and sends the telegrams, and is always ready to travel at a moment's notice. His baggage mostly consists of a small carpet-bag, and indifference to personal comfort has, in fact, to be one of his specialties. Sometimes he has to submit to frightful public snubs from the Boss, but he knows better than to resent them. The return the Boss makes for all this is an absolute devotion to the Henchman's interests in the way of getting him appointments or nominations to office, and keeping him in office after election or appointment. The unwritten law of the relation is that the Henchman can in no way but through want of fidelity forfeit his claim to the Boss's support. No proof of official incompetency, or dishonesty, or negligence can release the latter from the obligation to defend him by every means in his power, "first, last, and all the time," against all comers, whether superiors, inferiors, or equals. A Boss may neglect, and sometimes does neglect, every other duty of his place, but never this one, because his continuance in public life depends on it. A Boss who did not stand by his Henchmen would soon find that his political career was closed, and could not be reopened, because no Henchman of zeal and capacity will serve a Boss who is capable of "going back on him."

With the political Henchman most of our readers are familiar to a greater or less degree. Probably but few of them outside of the great cities are aware, however, that the growth of very large fortunes has produced a class, already considerable in numbers, of social Henchmen or household retainers of very wealthy men, who render services to the person whom we may call their Patron corresponding to those which the political Henchman renders to the Boss. The social Henchman is usually, if not young, on the sunny side of fifty, a bachelor, and is generally

a man who has at one time either enjoyed a patrimonial fortune, or has pursued a profitable business and lost it through extravagance or unfortunate speculations. The class has consequently grown greatly, if not come into existence, since 1873, and its members are usually men who began life in the golden years between 1860 and 1870, and learned in them to love good cookery, good wine, well-made clothes, and good horses. For it must not be supposed that mere loss of fortune fits or disposes a man to be a Henchman. Love of luxury and inability to face the world without it are essential qualifications for the career, and so is a certain amount, the more the better, of social experience. A Henchman is, in fact, hardly up to his duties if he has not travelled, and has not a tincture of arts and letters, or, in default of these, intimate acquaintance with all the physical pleasures to be got out of money, and does not make a good figure at a dinner and card-table, and has not a tolerable eye for a horse. He must reflect some credit on the Patron in the presence of company, besides ministering to his amusement and convenience. He must dress well, be good-looking—though on this point Patrons are not exacting—and be of a cheerful and obliging disposition. Of course, it rarely or never occurs that a Henchman is formally engaged as such. The Patron is often a friend of his before he lost his money, whose house he has been in the habit of frequenting, and whose jollifications he has shared. Occasionally, again, the Patron is a new man, who has recently made his money, and to whom the bright world to which the money introduces him is strange and bewildering and full of pitfalls which fill him with despair; and the Henchman comes to him first as an amusing and instructive guest and adviser, and then gradually takes the place of a major-domo or social factotum. Twenty years ago, as we have said, the Henchman on losing his money would have sunk out of sight; but he is now saved by the fact that the establishments of many of the rich men have, one may say, outgrown the manners of the country. There is no regular household provided by usage and tradition for men possessing the great fortunes which are now numerous on the Eastern coast, and in no country can a rich man who lives handsomely and on a great scale get along without a class of retainers to stand between him and menial servants and the petty and coarser cares which beset even the most gilded life. He consequently provides himself with Henchmen almost without thinking about it, under the unseen law of supply and demand. The Henchman gets into the way of making him long visits, and then of staying with him indefinitely, and making himself generally useful. In the old days, before the *diners à la Russe*, he would have carved as the aides-de-camp used to do. He now gives advice about the dinner and the table-appointments and the guests, or about furniture and pictures and liveries. He goes with the Patron's wife to the theatre; he calls at stores to see why things have not been sent home, and finds out where there is a choice lot of wine to be had. He buys or hears of remarkable horses, and tries them. He is excellent company in a yacht, if the Patron keeps one. He brings home the club-gossip, and plays a good hand at whist. If the Patron is a drinking man, he covers up or extenuates his excesses. One of his most useful functions is, however, boasting about the Patron, and in households where several Henchmen are kept the power of this boasting is enormous, and does much for the Patron's reputation. When four or five Henchmen go down to the club and tell stories of the Patron's enormous wealth, of the immensity of his operations in stocks, of the size of his last month's butcher's bill, or of the stock of wine he has just laid in, and of the plans he has in mind about house-building or about horses, the effect of their combined efforts is naturally very great, and produces on the bystanders somewhat the effect of a good brass band.

There are, we imagine, very few Henchmen who are absolutely destitute. Many of them have enough for plain living in cheap lodgings, and the position of these, of course, is not uncomfortable. It gives the Patron some little respect for them, and affords them a retreat in case he grows tired of them or they incur his displeasure. But the life of nearly all of them is at best trying. The Patron, especially if he is a self-made man, is apt to be a little hard in temper and deficient in self-control. He cannot, in such a case, wholly rid himself of contempt for people whom he secretly thinks of as "suckers" or "bummers," and considers that he "owns." His requests for services, therefore, tend to take the form of orders and to find expression in peremptory tones, which the Henchman may, in an unguarded moment, be stung into resenting; in which case, of course, he is instantly dismissed. The chances of giving dissatisfaction, too, in the performance of the numerous and delicate duties which fall to the Henchman's lot are very great. Slight disagreements about trifling details, misunderstandings about instructions, excess of liberty in the use of the Patron's stores, or difference of tastes about a guest are constantly impending, and are always serious when they occur. How an absolutely penniless Henchman manages to get pocket-money without a total loss of self-respect we do not know, but we fancy a really kind-hearted Patron in these cases provides him with some simulacrum of employment from which he draws a small salary. There is something very touching, too, in the way in which the Henchman tries to preserve his dignity by generally speaking of the Patron by a nickname or diminutive—"Jim," or "Harry," or "Larry," or "Bill." He is very apt to go abroad with the Patron when he travels, and here not only fills the place of a courier but does what no courier can do, by spreading the Patron's fame in foreign society. People in London and Paris want to know all about this great man, and of course they cannot ask *him*. So the Henchman gratifies their curiosity without stint, and tells fabulous stories of the doings at the New York mansion and the place occupied by the Patron in American society.

Of course the Henchman does not always live in the Patron's house, any more than the courtiers always live in the palace. There is a large body of what may be called out-door Henchmen, who live in lodgings and only take their meals with the Patron in the city, and only stay with him altogether in his country-seat at Newport or elsewhere, or in his yacht in the summer, and often cling to him largely for the sake of getting "points" in stocks. In some respects their position is better than that of the resident Henchmen. Their dependence is better concealed from the world, and they are exposed to less irritating contact with their Patron. On the other hand, they have less hold on him. They do not effect that lodgment in his daily habits which is the best guarantee for a Henchman's tenure of office, and they are constantly in danger, therefore, of being forgotten, or supplanted by some new aspirant for favor. One thing in their lives must be unusually hard to bear. They are generally men of broken fortunes, and no longer young. They must, therefore, have, in the nature of things, many hours of gloom, of which, however, they can on no account give any sign. Constant cheerfulness, in appearance at least, is an essential part of their equipment. Nobody has less patience with despondency than a Patron, and nobody is less disposed to be made the recipient of dismal confidences. He is willing to help a good fellow who is "down on his luck," but he is not willing to share the burden of any man's sorrows or forebodings.

THE FRENCH DECREES AGAINST UNAUTHORIZED CONGREGATIONS.

PARIS, May 12, 1880.

THE great preoccupation of our political world still continues to be the putting into execution of the famous decrees of the 29th of March, concerning the unauthorized congregations. The decisive struggle has not yet commenced. We must not deceive ourselves as to its gravity; it will be violent, inveterate, and dangerous.

We have had a foretaste and presage of this contest in the tumultuous scenes which took place at Lille, during the official visit of the Minister of Public Instruction. M. Jules Ferry, whose name has become inseparably connected with the famous Article 7 of the law upon education, lately went to lay the foundation-stone of a new medical college there. The Catholic youth of the town are both numerous and zealous—indeed Lille counts among its institutions one of the most important Catholic universities in France. The students seized this opportunity of expressing their adverse opinions, and received the Minister with insulting cries, whilst his partisans made him an ovation, and for a short time disorder prevailed in the streets.

It is to be feared great excitement will be shown in certain districts when civil authority has closed the establishments prohibited by the law, or those which have not conformed to the edicts lately issued. I do not, however, pay much heed to these fears. Riot has decidedly disappeared from our political customs. Nowadays, since the definitive institution of universal suffrage, our population puts its trust in the electoral urns. We have, indeed, seen that it is so, during the terrible crisis brought about by the *coup d'état* of May 16, 1877. Notwithstanding the most irritating provocation the streets remained orderly and quiet, even though civil war was rife in all hearts. I do not think, therefore, that the struggle between Church and State will manifest itself in the public streets, save in some places where party spirit runs extraordinarily high; any such excitement, however, will die out of itself.

It will not be so with the agitation of mind and conscience. It

is certain at this moment that the entire episcopal body identifies itself with the unauthorized congregations, not excepting the far-famed society of Jesuits, who roused the indignation of the *élite* of the French church two centuries ago. There was still at this period a truly national French Church, opposed to Ultramontane maxims, and quite determined to defend the civil power and its own traditions against the pretensions of the court of Rome. It was not only the Jansenist fraction, formed under the Port-Royal influence, which resisted the papal encroachments, but it was the whole Church of France: in a solemn assembly of the national clergy, through the medium of Bossuet, its most illustrious representative, it formally determined, in the famous five propositions of 1682, the respective rights of the Church and Pope, firmly declaring that the General Council was above the supremacy of the Holy Father, whose infallibility was thus put aside. The Church could not have taken up a position more hostile to the order of Jesuits, who were the apostles and defenders of this infallibility. Their lax morality was odious to it, and at heart it passed the same judgment on them as Pascal in his terrible 'Lettres Provinciales,' in which raillery, pressed into the service of conscience, produced a truly sublime effect. The keen shafts that he hurled at these too accommodating casuists remind us of the golden arrows with which Homer tells us Apollo transfixed his enemies. Therefore, when the state began the struggle against Ultramontanism it felt sure of the co-operation of the national clergy.

Everything has now changed, especially since the Council of 1870. There is no longer a national clergy, the Church of France has become entirely Ultramontane; so when the state issues decrees against the Jesuits the Church party feels itself attacked and confounds its cause with theirs. This is the reason why the bishops have in turn expressed their strong disapprobation of the decrees of March 29. Every day we may read some new episcopal protest, and hence the gravity of the present struggle, which cannot fail to increase, and sooner or later the relations between Church and State will form one of the most important problems to be solved in parliamentary debate. The Ultramontane party relies solely on the Senate, who, as you know, rejected Article 7, which the decrees of March 29 are intended to replace. The former leaders of the Right still sit in the Senate; in their opposition to the present policy of the Government towards the Catholic Church they have had the good fortune to be supported by Messrs. Dufaure and Jules Simon, the glory of the French tribune, and otherwise devoted friends of the Republic. The struggle against these decrees has not yet commenced in the Senate. Those who oppose them are not willing to incur a check; they understand that the question is a more difficult one than that involved in Article 7, which openly violated all liberal principles by depriving French citizens (whose legal right was unquestionable) of such a universal right as that of teaching. The decrees issued in March may be attacked for their inopportuneness, but their legality is undoubted, for they merely demand the application of unrepealed laws, whose validity has been recognized by each successive Government in France for the last century, even if they thought fit to allow them to remain dormant in the overcrowded arsenal of our legislation. M. Lamy's interpellation and the subsequent discussion which took place in the Chamber of Deputies on the 3d of May furnish us with a new proof of this legality.

M. Lamy is a young Republican deputy as much esteemed for his character as admired for his talent as an orator, and in this instance he evinced great courage, for he was acting in opposition to his own party, and might lose his seat in consequence. His speech was equal to his reputation—firm, moderate, and eloquent. M. Lamy, a former pupil of Père Lacordaire, has personally known only the most generous and liberal-minded Catholicism, that which disappeared with his illustrious master and Montalembert. The illusion he is under was so patent that it weakened his ingenious argument, and M. Cazot, Garde des Sceaux, in his blunt, able way, sufficiently refuted his opponent by calling to mind the French laws about religious associations. M. Lamy's argument would have been far stronger had he passed from the question of legality to discuss the timeliness and general policy of the present decrees, and to show that nothing forced the Government of the Republic to put into execution laws which lie dormant. M. Lamy should have insisted more on the very reasonable conclusion of his speech, in which he asked for a general law on the rights of association, so that, with due consideration of state rights, liberty might be the privilege of every one. Such a proceeding would have been more politic than the present rigorous one. Equality in liberty is far better than equality in servitude. This is one of the many sides of the difficult question of congregations, and one to which we shall constantly have to refer. É.

THE LEIPZIG "MESSE."

LEIPZIG, May 3.

IN spite of all that has been so long said and sung about the Fatherland, German patriotism has still a very provincial aspect of which much less has been heard. Munich, Dresden, Hanover, Berlin, and, in fact, most of the larger and older capitals, are yet popularly represented by distinct types of character—or rather of disposition—universally recognized, and, indeed, cultivated with no little complacency. No type, however, is more marked than that of the *gemüthliche Sachsen*, and no one is fonder or prouder of his city, dialect, folk-festivals, ancient customs, etc., than the average inhabitant of Leipzig. It has been half-humorously known all over Germany for half a century as the little (*klee*) Paris. Since its population reached one hundred thousand, in 1870, it is designated as a *Grossstadt;* and as its inhabitants are descended from very varied nationalities and its institutions attract a great number of foreigners, it is quite cosmopolitan, or a *Weltstadt*. It is, moreover, pre-eminently a *Culturstadt*, or "the German Athens." Yet it is a rather dirty, unhealthy city, with an atmosphere full of dust and smoke, and with only surface-drainage for any of its streets. It fills but a small space in the guide-books, and is uninviting and for the most part unknown to the general traveller. Perhaps no city is less adapted to being "done" in a few days by tourists, like Dresden, for example, which is all on the surface, may so well be.

On the other hand, Leipzig is the centre of the German book-trade, with nearly fifty printing-houses, over two hundred bookstores, and a unique booksellers' exchange. It was the home of Bach, and here his music is best performed. It is the stronghold of Wagnerism, and the great *maestro* himself, it is announced, will soon personally direct a production of his Nibelungen trilogy here. The new and magnificently-equipped opera-house, the Conservatory of Music, the famous Gewandhaus concerts, etc., altogether make Leipzig—if the verdict of its inhabitants is impartial—the musical capital of the world. Homœopathy and the German scientific agriculture originated here and are commemorated by monuments of Hahnemann and Thaer. Its university had last semester about four thousand students, and it is rivalled only by that of Berlin. There are certain streets and restaurants where, I have been told, every other man was a professor, an author, or a critic more or less known to fame. Leipzig is in a peculiar sense the *cunabula* of German socialism and spiritualism. The fiery little Bebel, when he is neither in the Reichstag nor in prison, has always been ready to leave his lathe, don his coat, and talk earnestly by the hour to any interested visitor about the injustice of the Government to the cause he represents. Liebknecht also lives here, and collects abuses, edits his paper, and pushes his propaganda as far as circumstances and the laws permit, and declares in confidence that nothing could be better calculated to unite and discipline Socialists, gain their sympathy among the cultured classes, and teach them to lay deep and broad foundations for remote ends than the removal of the repressive laws he opposed so vigorously in the Reichstag. Spiritualism is extensively cultivated here in private social circles, especially in families of comfortable business men. Reichenbach prepared the soil, and now a spiritualistic periodical (*Psychische Studien*) is published here.

Meanwhile business has developed a friendly competition with culture and pressed art and literature to an unusual extent into its service. The history of great firms, descriptions of all sorts of technical processes, and monuments to signalize great financial enterprises have been admirably finished. The greatest of the annual *Messen* or fairs, lasting four weeks, closed yesterday, and attracted over fifty thousand visitors the first day. These, while fostered by some, are, again, in the liveliest competition with other business interests. Every country in Europe is represented, and a few traders from Smyrna and Tunis are reported. The town puts on a holiday appearance. Every theatre and concert-hall increases its attractions. Hotels double their prices, and excursion-trains run in all directions at reduced rates. Very many poor students take good rooms on very moderate terms on condition of sleeping in an attic or a hall during the fair, while their places are taken by strangers who are charged high prices. The criminal class is numerously represented among the visitors, and the number of police, post-office, and freight officials is nearly doubled.

In the eleventh century, tradespeople who came from the environs to attend the masses at Easter and Michaelmas took occasion to offer their wares for sale at the close of divine service in the market near by. Soon after, the town decreed that all goods which, in being despatched from one place to another, had to traverse the great public turnpikes within a

radius of sixty miles must be brought to Leipzig and exposed for sale there for at least three days. This prerogative—*Stapelrecht*—was repeatedly confirmed to Leipzig by emperors and popes. September and April became very conveniently the great market months. Protestantism eliminated the mass, and war and pestilence and the influence of hard times on rival markets, now mostly extinct, have repeatedly depressed or interrupted the *Messen*, but the construction of railroads has given them new life. Preparations are begun weeks beforehand. The city has farmed out to a few agents the right to erect and rent the booths. These are little shanties of from perhaps six to fifteen feet square, made of boards nailed together, a whole side sometimes in a single piece, so that half a dozen can be loaded on to a wagon. In this way they are put up and taken down and packed in the storehouses with great rapidity. Between eight and nine hundred of them were occupied last month. The large public squares are covered with them, and every court and passage all over the centre of the town is filled with goods and boxes. First comes the wholesale leather market, in which much haggling about the weather is always heard, as a moist air increases the weight of dry-tanned hides. Then cloth, which used to be exhibited in the Gewandhaus (as its name indicates), has its turn. Porcelain, glass, and earthenware traffic lasts longer. The fur-trade in a single market-week, I am told, has sometimes amounted to several million marks, and its storehouses occupy a great part of what was once the Jewish quarter. The common pottery-wares, so indispensable in every German kitchen, are exhibited in scores of cords over more than half an acre of ground. My hand has almost ached for a stone in passing these at night, and I fear the temptation would be too great for most American boys to resist. Here, however, they lie unprotected in the open air a month without injury. Many bushels of earthen dolls as big as my little finger lie on the ground in a dozen muddy piles. Much smaller stocks of marbles and scores of booths devoted to toys, which children of the poorest German parents are sure to have in such abundance, make a perfect boys' and girls' paradise.

In the retail booths, where trade lasts longer, almost everything can be found. A house could be decently furnished from kitchen and bedroom to library and parlor. Seeds, tools, scientific instruments, every sort of garment or ornament, confectionery, silk, and iron wares, can all be bought at very reasonable rates. Most of these booths are kept by women, who importune each passer to buy. One quarter is set apart for side-shows of all sorts, and near by hot sausages, cheese, fish, and beer—each of a dozen different species—the fine points of distinction between which are so familiar to the native palate, are sold. In the book market all the latest publications are offered for sale at very moderate rates. The wool market opens later. That I have never seen; but, judging from the preparations long since begun, it will be a great affair.

The struggle between the retail and wholesale manufacturers and trade, which has now become so active a "Cultur" question here, can be admirably studied at the *Messe*. The small *Dorf* manufacturer of shoes, rifles, thermometers, oil-cloths, stockings, etc., etc., realizing keenly that he has to compete with machines, generally feels that he can secure his livelihood in the future only by doing good, honest work, and by persisting in meeting his customers face to face, instead of selling to a third, intermediate party. Accordingly he comes up to the market twice a year, at much loss of time, and hires his old booth in the old place, probably at an exorbitant rate. I know an old mechanic whose work is about perfect, and who is so conscientious and painstaking that he can trust no assistant or apprentice with any important part, although he has orders in advance for far more than he can do at almost triple the ordinary rates. He has been offered a large sum to allow his business to be extended under his name and supervision, but cannot bring himself to do so because he fears the work would not be as thoroughly done as he wishes. Another, a glass-blower, who, like the late Herr Geiseler, of Bonn, has already made science his debtor, by the thoroughness and ingenuity with which he has more than filled the orders of a few professional patrons, persistently refuses far more tempting offers to work for the trade. I would by no means assert that such men are the rule, but they are very often found, and have given a programme to the large party of small makers and sellers here. In some respects their position is, perhaps, analogous to that of the best old farming families still found in a few New England communities, but they are far more numerous. According to a recent reviewer, this class puts both art and conscience into business, and is the germ from which the future state will grow, while the Socialists accuse the Government of adopting a policy in the new tax-laws which is likely to exterminate this party of business regeneration. The issue must, at any rate, be awaited with great interest.

Correspondence.

GALILEO AND THE MILKY WAY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a review of Galileo's 'Sidereal Messenger' you enumerate his discoveries and compare them with the contemporaneous and antecedent theories and beliefs. With regard to the Milky Way you say that it "had been the dense vapors and exhalations of the earth gathered in one place," but Galileo showed that "the galaxy is nothing else but a mass of innumerable stars planted together in clusters." Now, Galileo, by means of his telescope, was able to demonstrate much that had been beyond reach of the unaided eye, but with regard to the Milky Way he only confirmed a conjecture which had existed in classical times. In the 'Astronomica' of Manilius, written under Tiberius, the poet, after alluding to the myth concerning Juno's milk, to explain the name of the "lacteus orbis," proceeds to suggest that it is only a corona of closely aggregated stars:

> "Anne magis densa stellarum turba corona
> Contexit flammas, et crasso lumine candet.
> Et fulgore nitet collato clarior orbis?" (I. 753-55).

The editio princeps of the 'Astronomica' appeared in 1472, and numerous reprints were made before the time of Galileo, who must undoubtedly have been familiar with it.

The astronomical knowledge of the ancients is much underrated in popular estimation. Among the astrological follies of Manilius much may be found which anticipates modern thought, and this could scarce be otherwise, for the Romans inherited the traditions of Egyptian and Chaldean lore, and a people like the Assyrians, who could, as the cuneiform tablets show us, calculate eclipses, must have been possessed of tolerably accurate ideas concerning the nature and movements of the heavenly bodies.

If Manilius proceeds to describe the stars of the Milky Way as the chosen abode of the spirits of heroes and heroines, his speculation was not so far removed from those of some of our modern spiritualists for us to regard him with any special contempt therefor.

Your obedient servant, L.

Philadelphia, May 17, 1880.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & CO. have reprinted here Huth's 'Life and Writings of Henry Thomas Buckle,' already reviewed by us, but we miss the portrait of its subject; also, the fifth and concluding volume of Theodore Martin's 'Life of the Prince Consort.' They will be the American publishers of Kossuth's 'Memories of My Exile.'——Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have nearly ready 'Every-Day English,' by Richard Grant White. ——James R. Osgood & Co. have in hand a great undertaking, 'The Memorial History of Boston,' of which Mr. Justin Winsor will be the general editor, having the assistance of a corps of prominent local scholars and scientists. The first of four volumes will appear in September.——A London edition of Mr. J. Brander Matthews's 'Theatres of Paris' will be brought out immediately by Sampson Low & Co.—— R. Worthington publishes this week Mr. Swinburne's new volume, 'Songs of the Springtides.'——Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, are about issuing Nohl's 'Life of Mozart,' translated by J. J. Lalor; the Rev. Brooke Herford's 'Story of Religion in England'; and the 'Story of Aunt Lizzie Aiken,' by Mrs. Galusha Anderson.——From the 'Ohio Valley Historical Miscellanies,' published ten years ago, Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, have extracted the curious episode of "The Leatherwood God," as related by R. H. Taneyhill, and now issue it as a separate pamphlet in response to a general demand. It will be found as instructive as most histories of religious delusion.——Mr. S. W. Pennypacker's 'Settlement of Germantown,' which appeared in the current number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, is now procurable in pamphlet form. It contains "the first public protest ever made on this continent against the holding of slaves," namely that sent from the Germantown monthly meeting on Feb. 18, 1688, "to the monthly meeting at Richard Warrels," and bearing among others the signature of Francis Daniel Pastorius, in whose handwriting the still-preserved document seems to be.——'Rollo's Journey to Cambridge,' the bright particular bouffe serial of the *Harvard Lampoon* this year, has deservedly reached a

second edition (Boston : A. Williams & Co.) Mr. Attwood's illustrations rival the text in cleverness, and the whole performance is highly amusing.——The Library Committee of the New York Society of Decorative Art report the loan by mail of 632 books and sheets of design during the year to all parts of the country, with the loss of but one book, and at a slight profit.——The twelfth and thirteenth annual reports of the Trustees of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology have been issued simultaneously in one stitching. They show large and valuable accessions to the collections, by gift and as the result of special explorations in Mexico, Nicaragua, Tennessee, Missouri, Kansas, Arkansas, Florida, New Jersey, and other parts of the United States. Several interesting papers accompany the reports, the longest being Mr. Lewis H. Morgan's description of an old stone pueblo on the Animas River, New Mexico, and Mr. Bandelier's "Social Organization and Mode of Government of the Ancient Mexicans."——In Part 2, vol. ii., of Proceedings of the Davenport (Iowa) Academy of Sciences—an institution, by the way, presided over by a lady—are given plates and cuts of a remarkable inscribed tablet and animal-shaped pipes which have been found in or near the mounds of that State.——The success of the English monthly magazine called the *Theatre* has naturally led to a similar publication in this country, the *Dramatic Magazine*, devoted to dramatic art and literature. It is an ill-printed and amateurish pamphlet of ninety pages, showing on the part of the anonymous editor but little understanding of the difficulties or requirements of the undertaking. Only seven out of sixteen articles in the table of contents have anything to do with the stage. The quality of a department called the "Editor's High-Tea" may be judged by a statement in it that the *Theatre* was "recently inaugurated from a weekly to a monthly issue."——A valuable addition to the campaign literature of the day is a stout, handsomely-printed pamphlet on "The Independent Movement in New York," by "Junius." G. P. Putnam's Sons are the publishers.——The Philadelphia Society of Artists announces that its second annual exhibition will open in that city on November 1, and continue for five weeks.——In the Proceedings of the Berlin Geographical Society for the session of January 3, Herr W. Reiss discusses the question, "Are the Andes sinking?" and concludes, in opposition to Orton, but in agreement with Darwin, that South America must be regarded as a rising continent, with only local and disconnected sinkings. Dr. F. Marthe's commemorative paper on Carl Ritter's Significance for Geography, already printed in the same Society's *Zeitschrift*, has been issued separately by Dietrich Reimer (New York: L. W. Schmidt).——The most interesting article in the *American Art Review* for May continues to be Mr. Linton's "History of Wood-Engraving in America," whose third chapter brings the subject down to the dividing line of 1867, and prepares us for hot and heavy work hereafter. An excellent specimen of this artist's skill with the graver is his cut of the Lee monument designed by E. V. Valentine, of Virginia—a striking recumbent figure, with funeral drapery.

—Part 2 of Vol. x. of the *Journal* of the American Oriental Society is published, with the following contents: Art. IX., The Cypriote inscriptions of the Di Cesnola collection in the Metropolitan Museum of Art, by Isaac H. Hall (with seven plates); X., Contributions to the history of verb-inflection in Sanskrit, by John Avery; XI., A statistical account of noun-inflection in the Veda, by Charles R. Lanman; and the Proceedings of the Society from 1872 to May, 1878, inclusive, with the list of members and additions to the library. Mr. Hall's article appears to have been published in 1875. It may be well to add the contents of Part 1 of the volume, published in 1872: Art. I., A vocabulary of the Ponape (Ascension Island) dialect, Ponape-English and English-Ponape, with a grammatical sketch, by Rev. Luther H. Gulick; II., Thirteen inedited letters from Sir Wm. Jones to Mr. (afterwards Sir) Charles Wilkins, communicated by Fitzedward Hall; III., Brief grammar and vocabulary of the Kurdish language of the Hakari district, by Rev. Samuel A. Rhea; IV., Collation of a second manuscript of the Atharva-Veda-Prâtiçâkhya, by William D. Whitney; V., On a Karen inscription-plate, by Rev. Alonzo Bunker; VI., The Pali language from a Burmese point of view, by Rev. Francis Mason; VII., Traces of glacial action on the flank of Mt. Lebanon, by Rev. W. M. Thomson; VIII., On the comparative antiquity of the Sinaitic and Vatican manuscripts of the Greek Bible, by Ezra Abbot; and the Proceedings for 1871. Extra copies of the articles by Profs. Avery and Lanman may be bought in New York, of Westermann & Co. The former volumes of the Society's *Journal* are also to be had, with the exception of Nos. 2–4 of Vol. i., which are out of print.

—Mr. Edward Atkinson furnishes the most thoughtful paper, perhaps, that the June *Atlantic* contains, entitled, and being in effect a glorification of, "The Unlearned Professions." Its hearty Philistinism and thorough belief in the wholesomeness of material standards will possibly prove a little unsatisfactory to some of the *Atlantic's* readers, but this circumstance may indicate that it is at least well placed. A rather curious juxtaposition, by the way, is the immediate sequence of Mr. Angell's third instalment of his "Records of W. M. Hunt," of which we believe the following sentence to be not unrepresentative: "He then, as usual for some weeks at this period, hung the eye-glasses on the end of his prominent nose, wrong side up, so that the spring lay over his moustache, and gravely began to read." Chapters x.–xiii. of Mr. Aldrich's "The Stillwater Tragedy" are given, and Mr. Howells brings matters to a crisis in "The Undiscovered Country." We feel impelled to remark of this latter that its unimpressiveness may be due in part, or, indeed, entirely, to the disjointedness involved in serial publication; certainly Mr. Howells's scheme demands to be judged under the most favorable auspices, and it may appear more vital and less "curious" when it can be seen as a whole. Mark Twain sets down the audible half of "A Telephonic Conversation," which, with every disposition in the world to laugh at it, it is difficult to find amusing. The fourth chapter of the "Reminiscences of Washington" includes the Jackson Administration, 1829–1837, and is the most entertaining of the series so far. Mr. Longfellow's "The Poet and His Songs" is a musical rendition of an old theme of his to the effect—stated in prose—that what the true poet writes it is laid upon him to write; "Maidenhair" is the subject of one of Mr. Fawcett's rather irritating bits of verbal calisthenics; better than either are Frances L. Gardner's "The Lost Gods" and Jean Scofield's "Hills of Asham," although the former is a little "sultry," so to speak, and the latter a trifle crude. Mr. Grant White gets back to the ground on which he is most instructive and agreeable, to our mind, in an article on "King Lear," a review of Mr. Furness's fifth volume of the new variorum edition of Shakspere. The reviews are somewhat belated and not very important, and "The Contributor's Club" is as valuable as ever—which to those who have read it persistently will not seem an anomalous characterization.

—"Our Young Kindergärtner" in *Lippincott's* has the merit of insisting upon thorough preparation on the part of young women before entering this new field of industry. Helen Campbell contributes a second paper on "Studies in the Slums," and Marriott Pyne a short article on "German Boys and Men," which is as good as its predecessor on women's life in Germany. In "The Career of a Prairie Farmer," by Mary Hartwell Catherwood, an attempt is made by following the career of one settler to add a personal interest to the social changes incident to the growth of a Western settlement into a flourishing town in twenty-five years. Mr. Oswald's "Summerland Sketches" are concluded, and a similar series begun by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell. Olive Logan's paper on Carpeaux gives portraits of himself and some of his sculptures, for which it is chiefly valuable; "Adam and Eve" is continued, and there are two short stories of no particular importance. Mr. Longfellow's poem, "Old St. David's at Radnor," is pretty and plaintive, without, of course, being very thrilling. The reviews are good, as usual, but "Our Monthly Gossip" disappoints whatever expectations its "Carlyliana" raise.

—In general the part taken by the late Henry J. Raymond in the Philadelphia Convention of August, 1866, was no secret at the time. The details now published by his son, from his diary, in the June *Scribner's* do little more than prove anew the hollowness of that premature gathering, and leave the question of motives just where it was before. The account of the debate in the Committee on Resolutions is enlivened by Garrett Davis's saying audibly to his neighbor, as Mr. Raymond read his address, "That's not true," "not a word of truth in that," etc.; and by Senator Hendricks's opportune exposure of a perilous resolution (not Mr. Raymond's) praising "the American soldier" without reference to the side he had fought on. Mr. Henry King, writing on "A Year of the Exodus in Kansas," estimates the number of colored settlers in that State during the year ending April 1, 1880, at 15,000 to 20,000, to say nothing of some 4,000 sent to Iowa and elsewhere. The percentages he gives are instructive—30 per cent. from Mississippi, 20 from Texas, 15 from Tennessee, 10 from Louisiana, 5 each from Alabama and Georgia, etc. He speaks well of their orderliness and industry, and of their accumulations in land and money already, but the basis of all his round numbers is not sufficiently indicated to inspire perfect confidence in them. A second paper on the Dominion of Canada, by George M. Grant, will repay reading. For art topics we have Mr. Horace E. Scudder's "William Blake: Painter and Poet," apropos of a Boston exhibition of his works; and Prof. Russell Sturgis's

"Thackeray as a Draughtsman," a thorough critico-bibliographical study, which some day should be joined to the same writer's papers on Cruikshank and Leech, say in a volume on the Caricaturists of the Victorian Age. Both these articles are freely illustrated in fac-simile.

—In *Harper's* the pictorial features outweigh the literary; still, if Mr. W. H. Gibson's delicate and fanciful designs for "Spring-time" in a measure dispense one from reading his text, Mrs. John Lillie's "Moorland Village" in Devonshire distinctly adds something to Mr. Abbey's charming illustrations. Speaking of "Spring-time," by the way (which has its counterpart in Mr. Clarence Cook's "Spring Hereabouts" in *Scribner's*), we are reminded how the seasonableness of the rival magazines is, in spite of their postdating, carefully regulated by the date of reception; so that, as the Irishman said, who drove the canal-boat horses for his passage, "if it wasn't for the name of the thing," we might just as well have May frankly stamped upon the covers in place of June. Other illustrated articles are "Working-Women in New York" (W. H. Rideing), "The Country of Luther" (J. E. Montgomery), "Captain Nathan Hale" (Henry P. Johnston, the latest and most competent historian of the battle of Long Island), and "Old Dutch Masters—Albert Cuyp" (E. Mason). Mrs. Harriette Woods Baker, a clergyman's daughter, tells, with unimpeachable certificates, of a remarkable case of "second sight" of her own, some years ago. She calls it "A Puzzle for Metaphysicians," which it is none the less for its being one of a tolerably large class of occurrences.

—The "Spectre Knight" was brought out at the Bijou Opera-House a fortnight since with what must be called extraordinary success. We say extraordinary, for though the music is pretty enough, the libretto is so feeble as to make it difficult to understand how any one could have had the hardihood to write or produce it. It is by Mr. James Albery, and belongs to the sort of drama known in France as *théâtre de jeunesse*. It is the kind of play that a benevolent uncle might be supposed to write for a number of good little children to act before their assembled parents at Christmas. Of course the parents are obliged to sit such a performance through, and the benevolent uncle is therefore sure at least of a *succès d'estime*. But the audience at the Bijou Opera-House are not obliged to sit out Mr. Albery's operetta, and therefore we cannot pretend to explain how it is that the managers of that enterprising place of amusement reconciled themselves to the venture. Perhaps we cannot give a clearer idea of the nature of the "Spectre Knight" than by citing its leading joke. The heroine, for the first time in her life, is accosted by a friar. As such he offers his services; on which she replies: "Thank you, we do our own frying." This is much the best thing in the opera. Unexpectedness is, as everybody knows, the true secret of wit, and this pun is entirely unexpected. The other jokes in the "Spectre Knight" differ from it in being carefully led up to by ingeniously contrived dialogue. The plot is simple. There is a banished duke, whose daughter, *Viola*, has grown up in a glen, where she has never seen a young man. Her cousin, *Otho*, who has just overthrown the usurper of her father's power, suddenly appears in the glen, which is supposed to be haunted by a ghost, and in the character of this ghost makes love to and wins the heart of *Viola*, with whom in the end he is united. There is no harm in this plot, which parents and guardians will see at a glance is widely different from the "Grande Duchesse" or the "Jolie Parfumeuse"; the performance is one to which any young girl may "take her mother" without hesitation. The libretto might be improved by being translated into some foreign language in which the puns would lose their flatness. The music contains a good many pretty concerted songs, but it has very little operatic character. In fact, the melodies, like the play, may be described as rather domestic than dramatic.

—The English version of Suppe's "Boccaccio" now being sung at the Union Square Theatre is well worth hearing, and as it has been entirely expurgated there is no reason for any one's staying away on moral grounds. The expurgation has been done with more skill than is usual, and the opera has not been deprived of all point in the process, though it is naturally flatter than in the original. In the English version the detestation with which *Boccaccio* is regarded by all the husbands of Florence is, perhaps, unaccountable, for he seems to be on the whole a rather estimable young man; but the love affair between *Pietro* and the cooper's wife is managed in such a way by the translator as to be entertaining, without being too much so for the taste of an Anglo-Saxon audience. Either he or the Union Square Company, however, has succeeded in vulgarizing the dialogue in a shocking way, by introducing all sorts of local slang of the kind which brings down the house at a variety performance or the minstrels. We are compelled to admit that this amuses the audience, but what may do very well with a burlesque troupe ought not to be allowed at the performance of an opera such as "Boccaccio." The music recalls that of "Fatinitza," but it is more ambitious, and as a whole better. Some of the songs are fine compositions, as "He is a Prince," at the end of the first act. The "Cooper's Chorus" in the second act is the most taking air in the opera, but all the choruses are well written and effective. Miss Winston, who takes the part of *Boccaccio*, has an excellent voice, and, what is more remarkable, makes a good-looking man on the stage, and acts a man's part very nearly as a man would act it. The stage of the Union Square is not large enough for the opera, as may be inferred from the fact that the cast numbers some forty characters.

—Lecocq's latest opera, "La Camargo," was brought out last week at the Academy with moderate success. That it did not make a great hit is a fact not difficult to explain. The weather was warm, the season was nearly over, the house not more than half full, the number of pieces in the orchestra reduced, and the acting and singing not equal to the demands of the occasion. Capoul was not in the cast, and Paola-Marié, who sang the principal part, sang very much as if she were at rehearsal. It is evident that she has contracted a contempt for her audiences, which leads her to treat the public with great indifference. Angèle, who acted the part of *Juana* with great spirit, never sings well, for the very good reason that she has no ear, or, at any rate, a very poor one. Mezières hardly pretends to sing, and his *De Pontcalé*, excellent as it is, does not suggest operatic criticism. Fully half of "La Camargo" is dialogue, and so altogether its general effect was rather that of a comedy than of an opera. It certainly needs better acting and singing than M. Grau has been able to provide to make it a success in New York. The plot deals with the adventures of one *Mandrin*, a bandit chief of the last century, and *La Camargo*, a famous danseuse of the opera. It is very complicated and absurd, and the interest of the intrigue is well kept up. The music is, like all Lecocq's music, full of melodious passages, but it contains few airs that are likely to become popular. The second act contains a very pretty scene in which *La Camargo* is supposed to give a representation of the pastoral ballet as performed at the opera, for the benefit of the company assembled at the bandit's castle. In this the familiar plot of the shepherd and shepherdess is introduced by the composer to be rehearsed partly in song and partly in saltatory pantomime. This is a task to which very few prima donnas would be equal, and the difficulty was surmounted at the Academy by introducing a shepherd who did the pantomime while Paola-Marié did the singing. Perhaps it could be done in no other way, as opéra-bouffe does not produce actresses who are *danseuses* as well, but it is safe to say that the whole scene was better given in Paris than the other night here. The Grau season has been highly successful, and will no doubt be repeated next winter.

—The May number of *Le Livre* has but three *articles de fond*, of which two, however, possess exceptional interest. M. Marius Vachon performs the melancholy task of recalling some of the inestimable treasures of the municipal library and archives destroyed with the Paris Hôtel de Ville, and beyond replacing. M. Gustave Pawlowski describes two newly discovered waifs from the library of the "prince of French bibliophiles," Jean Grolier, whose 3,000 volumes, product of the first century of the art of printing, and dressed in the richest bindings, have been so completely dispersed or destroyed that less than a tenth part are known to exist. The two in question belong to a library of the Sinéty family in Aix-en-Provence, shortly to come under the hammer. A side of the cover of one of them, Polydore Vergil's 'De Rerum Inventoribus,' is represented in a wood-cut; besides the title, it bears the well-known stamp, "Io. Grolierii et Amicorum." Among the new publications reviewed in this number of *Le Livre* are noticeable Edmond Scherer's study of Diderot; A. Babeau's 'Village under the *Ancien Régime*,' to be followed by a corresponding work on the town in the same period; Adolphe Jullien's 'Goethe et la Musique,' which naturally has not much to say of Goethe's appreciation of music, but a good deal about the compositions to which his works, particularly 'Faust,' have given rise; and MM. Deschamps and Brunet's supplement in two volumes to the 'Manuel du Libraire.' Among the adornments of the present volume we ought to mention a facsimile of Victor Hugo's plain but muddy manuscript.

—"Hierography" is the new term invented to express the field to be occupied by the *Revue de l'Histoire des Religions*, edited by M. Maurice Vernes, and published bi-monthly in Paris by Ernest Leroux (New York: B. Westermann & Co.) The first number, for Jan. and Feb., 1880, is a handsomely printed octavo of 160 pp., containing a long introduction by

the editor, which defines his aims very clearly. He purposes to "treat in connection two studies hitherto commonly separated, viz., those called by preference comparative mythology and those which belong to Biblical criticism"; to apply, accordingly, to the monuments which reveal the religious history of Judaism and the sources of Christianity the same weights and measures that are applied without hesitation or protest to the religions of India and Egypt; to shun polemics and the profession of any dogmatic credo; and while investigating the ancient and modern religions of the East, to confine the *Revue* to the ancient religions of the West. An exception to this rule will be the taking cognizance of what relates to the introduction of Christianity into the centre and north of Europe. A regular feature of the *Revue* will be annual critical bulletins, by several specialists, of French and foreign activity in the various departments. The present number gives two—an Egyptian, by M. G. Maspero, and an Indian, by M. A. Barth. It has also an advance chapter, on "Italian Divination," from M. Bouché-Leclerq's 'Histoire de la Divination dans l'antiquité'; a summary of Wellhausen's views on the unity of the sanctuary among the Hebrews; an account, by Mr. Spooner, of exploration among the temples of Cambodia (province of Bati), with ground-plans; the suggestive preface of M. Clermont-Ganneau's 'L'Imagerie phénicienne'; some painfully interesting documents of trials for sorcery in the canton of Neuchatel, borrowed from a privately printed pamphlet; a summary of the contents of periodicals and proceedings of learned societies, bibliography, etc., etc.

—In a long article on Money-Standards in the first supplementary volume (just published) to 'Meyer's Konversationslexikon' we find the following otherwise not easily accessible statistics about current coinage. The French had the single (silver) standard till 1803, when the double standard was introduced in the proportion of 1:15½. Down to 1850, however, the value of silver was really less than this, the proportion averaging 1:15.65, so that but little gold (10 to 15 per cent.) was coined. Between 1850 and 1866 the value of gold diminished from 1:15.46 to 1:15.19; in consequence of which the proportion of the metals coined gradually changed till, in 1866, were coined but 189,465 francs in silver to 365,000,000 in gold. The first treaty of the Latin Union was signed December 23, 1865, the proportion established being 1:15.5; the actual worth of silver being 15.43:1, whence it gradually sunk to 17.92:1, in 1878. In 1874, accordingly, the coinage of silver was limited to 120,000,000 fr.; in 1875 to 150,000,000; in 1876 to 200,000,000; in 1877 to 60,000,000; practically, however, the coinage of silver stopped in 1876. In Germany, by the treaties of 1838 and 1857, silver was the standard, gold coins being left to the option of the different states. The gold standard was established by the laws of December 4, 1871, and July 9, 1873, by the second of which it was ordered that the silver coinage should not exceed ten marks per head. Down to the beginning of the present year, 1,718,814,560 marks in gold had been coined, 1,079,734,000 in silver being withdrawn from circulation. The actual sums current at the end of 1879 were estimated at 1,550,000,000 gold, 429,000,000 old silver, 427,000,000 new silver, the difference in the amount of gold coined and that in circulation being due to its large exportation. We pass over the account of our own coinage, and that of England, to reach the Scandinavian kingdoms, which established the gold standard by the treaties of October, 1872, and May, 1873. By the law of June 6, 1875, Holland has practically adopted the gold standard, the proportion established being 1:15.625, but with the coining of the new gold pieces made free, and that of silver suspended. In Austria-Hungary have lately been coined gold pieces of 4 and 8 gulden (= 5 and 10 francs), but the standard remains silver, and the value of the gold pieces depends upon the market-price of that metal. Here also the coinage of silver has been suspended. The Grand Duchy of Finland has its own coinage (a fact ignored in F. W. Clarke's manual), and the gold standard. Its 20-marka piece equals 20 francs Russian gold pieces are used only as Austrian are. Spain has the double standard (the gold piece of 25 pesetas= 25 francs), but steps have been taken towards introducing the gold standard. Portugal has the gold standard, the current coin being the English sovereign. Rumania has the double standard, after the system of the Latin Union.

BUNYAN AND PURITANISM.

PURITANISM in the sphere of religion presents the same paradox as Puritanism in the field of politics. In either case a contest, a victory, and a triumph are followed by a fall or collapse from which there is no recovery. The parallel between what are, after all, but two sides of one fact may be pressed further. The spiritual creed when about to lose its hold on the English nation produced its truest representative in John Bunyan, just as the political force of Puritanism when all but spent produced its truest representative in Cromwell. What the Lord Protector was to Puritan statesmanship, that the author of the 'Pilgrim's Progress' was to Puritan religion. Without the one the world would never have known how great was the civil genius, without the other the world might easily have forgotten how deep was the spiritual insight, characteristic of a movement which achieved extraordinary success, which deeply affected and still affects not only the current of English history, but the character and tone of the English people; but which yet, as has been well said, missed its mark. Of the causes which partially explain the political failure of Puritanism we have written on other occasions. The appearance of Froude's 'Life of Bunyan,'* which should be studied side by side with the only biography that Bunyan really needs—his 'Grace Abounding to the Chief of Sinners'—gives an opportunity of trying to analyze some, at least, of the conditions which led to the decline of the Puritan faith; a faith which, at its best, could raise men to the tone expressed in such a passage as that in which Bunyan depicts his thoughts when expecting to die on the gallows as a martyr to his convictions:

"At last," he writes, "this consideration fell with weight upon me: That it was for the Word and way of God that I was in this condition, wherefore I was engaged not to flinch a hair's-breadth from it. I thought, also, that God might choose whether he would give me comfort now or at the hour of death; but I might not therefore choose whether I would hold my profession or no. I was bound, but he was free; yea, 'twas my duty to stand to his Word, whether he would ever look upon me or no, or save me at the last. Wherefore, thought I, the point being thus, I am for going on and venturing my eternal state with Christ, whether I have comfort here or no. If God doth not come in, thought I, I will leap off the ladder even blindfold into eternity, sink or swim, come heaven, come hell. Lord Jesus, if thou wilt catch me, do; if not, I will venture for thy name."

This language bears, like every word of Bunyan's, the unmistakable impress of truth. It is merely a fragment from a score of confessions of a like faith to be found in his spiritual autobiography. If, further, the almost matchless genius of Bunyan enables him to express what hundreds of other men felt as truly if not as vividly as himself, we must remember that the sentiment of Bunyan was the sentiment of thousands who shared his beliefs, and that the heroic daring of his resolution expressed the truest convictions of the Puritans when Puritanism reached its high-water mark. It is only when we realize that Bunyan is the unforgotten representative of crowds of forgotten saints and heroes that we can understand the strength of the Puritan spirit, or perceive the character of the problem which one must solve who attempts to explain how it has come to pass that the form of Puritan religion, like the form of Puritan polity, ceased to govern the English world.

Of the external causes which explain the failure of Puritan theology to retain its hold on the English nation the most obvious can hardly be expressed without referring to that most unsatisfactory fiction known as the spirit of the age. If, however, one may use that term as summing up the whole body of knowledge, of beliefs, of sentiments, and of assumptions prevalent at a given era, it is an intelligible and, as far as it goes, a true statement of the facts to assert that, from and after Bunyan's time, the form of theology in which his religious convictions were embodied gradually ceased to be in harmony with the spirit of the age. The true meaning of this most unsatisfactory and often delusive formula is best seen if we fix our attention on one or two of Bunyan's modes of thought or belief, which, even within a comparatively short period of time, ceased in reality to correspond, not, perhaps, with the avowed dogmas, but with the genuine convictions of the men who gradually gave the tone to the sentiment of the centuries that followed the age of Puritanism. Nothing, for instance, is more characteristic of Bunyan than his mode of dealing with the Bible. He looks upon it, as may be seen especially either in his sermons or in 'Grace Abounding,' not only as a work containing the word of God, but as a verbally-inspired document. In this view he was fully supported by the belief of every person of his age whom he had any reason to respect. "The wisest, the noblest, the best-instructed men in England at that time," writes Mr. Froude, "regarded the Bible as an authentic communication from God, and as the only foundation for law

* 'Bunyan. By James Anthony Froude.' [English Men of Letters.] London: Macmillan & Co.; New York: Harper & Bros.
'Bunyan: The Pilgrim's Progress, Grace Abounding, and a Relation of His Imprisonment. Edited, with biographical introduction and notes, by Edmund Venables, M.A., Precentor and Canon of Lincoln.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

and civil society. The masculine sense and strong, modest intellect of Bunyan ensured his acquiescence in an opinion so powerfully supported." From this, however, came the use by him of arguments drawn from the piecing together of different texts without any real relation to each other (as may be seen in his sermon on imputed righteousness), which were as impressive in the middle of the seventeenth century as they must have been unsatisfactory in the eighteenth, and as they are unmeaning in the nineteenth century. Locke probably would not on this point have, in words, disputed Bunyan's assumptions as to the Bible; but one feels rather than knows that to Locke and his contemporaries the reasoning of Bunyan would have ceased to have the power which it no doubt possessed at the time when it was used.

Few things, again, are more characteristic both of Bunyan and of his age than the unhesitating belief in the constant, direct, and personal intervention of the devil in the affairs of life. Mr. Froude cites several marked instances of Bunyan's belief in actual appearances of the evil spirit. But the truth is that of such instances there is really no need. The whole of 'Grace Abounding' might not unfairly be described as an account of the attacks of the devil on Bunyan's soul; by which we do not mean simply an account of Bunyan's temptations, but a record of a contest in which the evil spirit plays as active a part as the "Little Master" in 'Sintram.' Here, again, the author of 'Pilgrim's Progress' only held with greater intensity a belief seriously entertained by the wisest men of the Puritan age. It is, however, abundantly clear that with the beginning of the eighteenth century the practical belief in Satanic influence began to decline, together with the belief in witchcraft, which was very closely connected with it. The times, in short, in which Puritanism really flourished and was the genuine creed of the better part of the English nation, were a period when everything was looked at from a theological (and in Protestant countries one may say, without great inaccuracy, from a Calvinistic) point of view. This, for example, was so markedly the case during the reign of James I. that a writer who, like Mr. Motley, failed with all his talents to enter into the theological interests of the periods which he studied, finds it, as any one may see who will read his 'Life of Barneveldt,' impossible really to understand the attitude either of the English monarch or even, to a certain extent, of the Dutch statesmen. On the other hand, the generations which followed the Revolution of 1688 were influenced by secular or rationalistic views. Locke and Bunyan were during a great part of their lives contemporaries, for the philosopher was born in 1632 and died in 1704, whilst the great allegorist was born in 1628 and died in 1688. But the difference between the age of Laud and Baxter and Cromwell and the age of Locke, of William, and of Tillotson marks the whole difference between the spirit of the time to which Bunyan belonged in character and belief, and the spirit of the age during which Puritan theology lost its power.

A second explanation of the decline of Puritanism is found in the characteristics peculiar to Calvinism. Calvinistic theology had the strength and weakness derived from the fact that it was not only a sentiment, but a doctrine. Now, a doctrine or body of dogma, whether religious or scientific, can only permanently live by its satisfying the convictions of those to whose belief it appeals; and though this is not the place for theological disquisition, nor has the present writer the remotest desire to enter upon questions of divinity, it may fairly be stated as a matter of history that Calvinistic theology has not as a fact continued to satisfy the intellect or the moral requirements of the Protestant world. Even, perhaps, in the impressive passage which we have quoted from Bunyan's 'Grace Abounding,' and certainly in other passages, there are expressions which imply a way of looking at the relation between man and the Deity which in modern times would hardly be adopted by a man of such deep spiritual feeling as Bunyan. If any of our readers will study 'Campbell on the Atonement,' which has been aptly described as the best of criticisms of Calvinism from the inside, he will see, at any rate, how the creed which satisfied the best men of the seventeenth century may fail to satisfy a teacher who is certainly not without strong points of sympathy with Puritanism. Even in Bunyan's own day the rise of Quakerism was a sign that Puritan dogma was being assaulted from the religious side. His account of the alleged errors of the Quakers is in several points of view extremely curious; but it shows that he instinctively perceived the opposition between the spirit of the Society of Friends and some of what seemed to him the fundamental dogmas of his creed. One may further notice that Puritanism markedly failed to connect itself with the spirit of humanity which gradually became the best trait of the best men in the eighteenth century; whilst Quakerism did, as a matter of fact, enter easily and naturally into the philanthropic movements which during the last century commanded the sympathies of free-thinkers no less than of zealous Christians.

A deeper ground for the failure of Puritanism is that Calvinistic theology depends upon a view of life which many men have often sincerely held, at any rate in theory, but which in the long run has never been able, and probably never will be able, to command the genuine assent of the mass of mankind. The very basis of Bunyan's belief is that the essential difference between man and man is that between what one must call the "elect" and "non-elect," or the "converted" and "unconverted." The whole of existence is simply a struggle to promote the saving of souls. All the other affairs of life—politics, literature, art, even the slow moral improvement of mankind—sink into insignificance compared with the portentous issues involved in the question whether a man is among the saved or not. Such a creed is often charged with promoting individual selfishness. That it may occasionally have this effect is probably true. That a selfish man may care selfishly for what is called saving his own soul is undoubted; but the charge of promoting selfishness does not seem either logically or historically to be established. A person may surely believe, as Bunyan certainly did believe, that the whole of life is a mere period of probation, and that on men's conduct in it the eternal happiness or misery of each individual depends. But it is not easy to see why a man who entertains this belief should not, like Bunyan, burn with desire to save the souls of others no less than his own. The defect of the creed is not its selfishness, but its failure to correspond with one side of human nature. A person even as acute and honest as Bunyan in part concealed from himself this want of correspondence by tacitly identifying the non-religious man, or rather the unconverted man, with the man who is in ordinary parlance a wicked man. His Mr. Badman is exactly what the name denotes. He is an unredeemed scoundrel who ought not, in a well-organized state of society, to escape the prison or the gallows, and who in any case ought to excite, and if his character were known would excite, the detestation of all virtuous men. As long as this identification between the non-elect and the wicked is kept up there is no practical difficulty, whatever there may be theoretically, in accepting a great part of Calvinistic doctrine; but the truth is that Bunyan, though quite unconscious of any unfairness, confuses the true issue when he traces Mr. Badman's career as, one may suppose, a kind of justification of the harsher side of Calvinism. He worked out his theory far more consistently when he applied it to his own case. He was, as it is pretty apparent from his own account, a person sincerely bent from certainly early manhood on leading a good life. To speak of him as at any time of his life a bad man in the ordinary sense of these terms would be to utter the grossest slander; and Bunyan himself, with a kind of superficial logical inconsistency which is really a mark of sound sense, indignantly protests against the falsehood of every charge made against his moral character. Yet with all this he, with painful consistency, looked upon himself through a great portion of his life as being in no better position than a castaway. The intensity, no doubt, with which he felt the alternations of fear, hope, and despair was a part of that vivid imagination which has made him the greatest of the writers of religious fiction. But the view he held was that of the whole religious party to which he belonged. One must add in fairness that it has also in substance been the view of the greater number of religious reformers. But the radical fault of the view of life which makes it little better than the stage on which men must strive for their salvation is, as we have pointed out, that ordinary men do not admit that it answers to the facts of existence. The difference between goodness and wickedness is the difference which the world in the main recognizes; and to overlook this difference, to substitute a theological for a secular criterion of virtue, has, in the judgment of ordinary men of cool sense, been productive of the gravest moral evil. In the case of Puritanism it certainly conduced to two evil results. In the first place, it seems to have deadened what may be called humane as contrasted with religious zeal. The Puritan leaders were many of them good men, but they certainly were not humanitarians. In the second place, it certainly fostered vices nearly allied to hypocrisy. It were absurd and unjust to believe half or a tenth of the slanders which brutal, vulgar, or dissolute men delighted in the time of the Restoration to utter against "the Saints." Bunyan's experience is sufficient to prove that a man of the most irreproachable life, no less than of fervent piety, might be accused of gross immoralities of which he was absolutely incapable. Of such slanderers he says, in words which carry conviction to every honest man: "My foes have missed their mark in this their shooting at me. I am not the man. I wish they themselves be guiltless. If all the fornicators and adulterers in England were hanged by the neck till they be dead, John Bunyan, the

object of their envy, would still be alive and well." But it is impossible to believe that a whole generation were in error in believing that under the Commonwealth high religious profession was often allied with low moral conduct. Moreover, Bunyan's own writings give indirect confirmation to the popular charge against the Puritans. He, too, is alive to the possible hypocrisy of "professors," and he writes of a religious friend, "He turned a most devilish ranter, and gave himself up to all manner of filthiness, especially uncleanness. He would also deny that there was a God, angel, or spirit, and would laugh at all exhortations to sobriety. . . . He told me also that in a little time I should see all professors turned to the ways of ranters." It is, indeed, clear that this man must have been the representative of a class. For it is easy to see that Bunyan's theories might have been so turned as to lead persons of weak heads or of violent passions to the views adopted and practised by this ranter. A religious system, at any rate, which even in its perversion might lead to the overthrow of morality, had a weak side which was certain to become apparent to the criticism, and to startle the consciences, of ordinary men.

THE LUSIADS OF CAMÕES.*

NONE of the great modern poets has been more diversely estimated by foreign critics than the bard the third centenary of whose death will be in a few days celebrated in Portugal and Brazil. While in those countries he has always been venerated as the greatest name in their literature and the true founder of the modern Portuguese tongue, in England and in France he has never been allowed that measure of study and regard to which he is certainly entitled. The Germans, thanks principally to the efforts of Frederic Bouterwek, not only in his able reviews of the Spanish and Portuguese literatures, but also in his 'Geschichte der neuern Poesie und Beredsamkeit,' have evinced more respect for Camões's work. In England Robert Southey's opinion of him is responsible for much of the prejudice against Camões. Southey was well acquainted with the Southern literatures, and even made some good translations of the 'Palmeirim of England' and the 'Amadis of Gaul.' He had made a special study of the history of Portugal and gathered a vast amount of material in order to write of it; and he actually wrote by far the best 'History of Brazil,' which he himself said would some day be to the Brazilians what Herodotus is now to Europe. However that may be, the Brazilians already acknowledge it to be the best history of their country in the colonial times. But he ventured to assert that "there is more genius in one of our old metrical Romances than can be found in all the epic poems of Portugal, not excepting Camões"; and he added that he preferred 'Caramurú,' by the Brazilian Santa Rita Durão, to the 'Lusiadas.' La Harpe, who figures as one of the French translators of the Portuguese epic, says that it lacks action, character, and interest, and is nothing but a dry and weary succession of historical narratives. At the same time he prefers its well-known episode of Dona Ignez de Castro to the whole of 'Paradise Lost,' "un ouvrage extravagant et digne d'un siècle de barbarie." His judgment in the one case is about as reliable as in the other. Before La Harpe, Voltaire criticised severely the machinery of the 'Lusiadas.' But Voltaire also made Camões Spanish-born, and one of the companions of Vasco da Gama, who died (1511) six years before he was born in Lisbon.

Now, the reasons of this reckless way of estimating Camões's work are, in our opinion, threefold. First, these critics have been acquainted with it only through bad translations. Southey had many extravagant likes and dislikes; as Macaulay observes in his Diary, he thought 'Thalaba' equal or superior to the 'Orlando Furioso,' and the greatest poem that had appeared for ages. Moreover, Southey, as Mr. Edward Dowden tells us, was from early youth acquainted with Mickle's bad translation. La Harpe did not know Portuguese; his "translation" is nothing but a new garb for a very literal version by D'Hermilly. As for Voltaire, he read the 'Lusiadas' in Mickle's English paraphrase. In the second place, the neglect of the poem can be ascribed to the fact of the political decay of Portugal, which has also lowered the standard of its literature. It was Camões himself who, a few days before his death, wrote to Dr. Francisco de Almeida: "You will all see that I so loved my mother-country that I came back not only to die in it, but with it." And, indeed, one year after his death Philip II. of Spain was proclaimed King of Portugal. Dom Sebastian had already buried himself, his army, and country in Barbary two years before. After recovering its independence the little kingdom never again played any important rôle in the politics of Europe, and, although it has brought forward men of great talent, its obscurity and the deterioration of its public taste have kept it far in the rear of all Romance literatures.

The third cause which we referred to is the recourse of Camões to a machinery which, by its turgid mythology and hyperbolical patriotism, especially when viewed in a foreign dress and at this distance of time, may seem heavy and ridiculous. But even here there is no solid reason for slighting the 'Lusiadas.' Like Homer, Camões must be judged as the poet of his nationality and of his age. It should not be forgotten that, strictly speaking, he had no model to follow; for his was the first modern epopee. He wrote at a time when the revival of learning made both prose-writers and poets pedantic in their exhibition of knowledge of classical literature. He wrote as a Portuguese for the Portuguese, who loved the miraculous; who believed that the name of their country, Lusitania, came from Lysas, the companion of Bacchus in his travels, who settled a colony in their country; who believed that Lisbon was founded by Ulysses (on which subject Pope designed a poem), and that the name of that city came from Elisa (thence Elisbon), the eldest son of Java. He wrote in a language which Antonio de Macedo, in no less a place than the Introduction to the 'Diccionario da Academia,' gravely pretended to be one of the seventy-two idioms given by God to the builders of Babel, having been brought to Portugal by Tubal, who is said to have been the founder of the still existing Setubal. Then, too, Camões was himself a prominent actor in the beautiful drama of Portugal's short-lived glory. Well-educated and refined, tender in love, daring and adventurous, exalted in whatever concerned the glory of his country, implacable enemy of corruption in the administration of India; writing often in the stress of war, in the pangs of starvation and exile—his poem naturally reflects his own character of excessive exaltation. To this exaltation he gave colossal proportions, and he was certainly right. An epopee without this superhuman exaggeration is no epopee. Macaulay, referring to the effects of poetry at the time of the old poets, remarks that such an illusion is indispensable, and that poetry produces on the eye of the mind an illusion like that produced on the eye of the body by the magic-lantern, and therefore effects its purpose more completely in a dark age. Now, Camões wrote in exactly such an age. His aim was to immortalize the genius of his country, and he not only accomplished his purpose, but in doing so he consolidated his own language, already enriched by the Luso-Hispano-Italian blending effected by Saa de Miranda.

For all these reasons it was much to be desired that, so far as the English language is concerned, it could celebrate the third centennial of Camões's death by some new, good translation of the 'Lusiadas' which would furnish its readers with the means of fairly estimating the much that is good in that epic. Mr. Duff's version is very far, indeed, from doing so. Published so soon after the conscientious work of Mr. J. J. Aubertin, it should at least rank with it either in the faithfulness of the English rendering or in the smoothness of the verse; but it falls short of it in both points, being altogether not a serious work, but too much that of an amateur. Mr. Duff, who gives us an autobiographic sketch in the Introduction (pp. xxxiv.–xlv.), has lived long in Portugal. When fast approaching his seventieth year he devoted some of his leisure hours to translating the poem "in an entirely new manner." "The method which I adopted," he continues, "was to compose three or four stanzas in my daily walks to and from my place of business," which, we learn further on, is the paper business. As to the original manner of the translation we conjecture that by that Mr. Duff means the adoption of the Spenserian stanza. He says that "two reasons will suffice for this selection; the admiration of the translator for the 'Childe Harold' and other poems of Lord Byron; . . . and the other reason is that the length of the stanza affords ample scope to embody the full meaning of the original, which cannot be easily done in translating verse for verse."

Mr. Duff has committed the same mistake into which many other translators have fallen. It is not enough to be tolerably well acquainted with a language, and to know how to make a passably smooth verse, for one to be able to translate a great poem. Exceptional ability and training of the highest order are required for such a task. After settling the difficult point of choosing a metre, and assuming that his rhyme and diction are good, the translator must possess a thorough knowledge of the peculiar cast of the language from which he translates, and, besides that, must be fully competent to give a correct idea of the whole structure, of the spirit of the composition, which he must keep unimpaired. This is a

* 'The Lusiad of Camoens, translated into English Spenserian verse by Robert Ffrench Duff, Knight Commander of the Portuguese Order of Christ.' Lisbon: Matthew Lewtas; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1880. 1 vol. 8vo, xlviii.–508 pp.

most difficult task, indeed, and it is no wonder that, with such a scanty aggregate of qualifications, Mr. Duff did not accomplish a good translation of the 'Lusiadas,' which, by the way, he, following the comparatively modern innovation, calls "Lusiad" instead of "Lusiads" (Lusitanians), as Camões entitled his poem. Taken by itself, Mr. Duff's book is pleasant enough as a rhymed history of the Lusian heroism in the sixteenth century; but it is not Camões's epic. The Spenserian stanza, with its Alexandrine forming a ninth verse to the *ottava rima*, employed by Ariosto and then by Camões, is considered, for English composition, an improvement on the original Italian stanza, as it got rid of the break between the first six and the two last verses of the latter, and for other reasons. J. W. Wiffin employed this stanza in his translation of Tasso's 'Gerusalemme.' But the Spenserian stanza does not suit, it seems to us, a faithful translation of the 'Lusiadas.' Considering that the Portuguese language is by no means as terse and monosyllabic as the English, and that the stanza selected by Mr. Duff has one verse more (and this longer) than the original octave, it is obvious how much he must have foisted of his own into what the Portuguese poet wrote. Really, the translator gave himself too "ample scope to embody the full meaning of the original." The adoption of the octave-stanza does not prevent a faithful version. Bouterwek advises that no other metre be selected for this epic. Edward Quillinan, in his English translation of the first five cantos, published soon after his premature death in 1851, employed it, and so does Mr. Aubertin, thus far the most successful of all the translators of the 'Lusiadas.' Mickle's extravagant paraphrase is in the regular iambic pentameter or heroic couplet; and Musgrave's more literal translation (1826) is in blank-verse. The evident reason why these translators have avoided the metre of Camões's lies in the difficulty of keeping closely to the simplicity of the original, and their desire to show themselves as original poets and elegant writers. And yet no one can do justice to the 'Lusiadas' without faithfully adhering to the noble simplicity of its language. No matter how hyperbolically Camões may express his patriotism, he never abandons the remarkable simplicity of his style. Whether he is describing smooth navigation or a storm; whether he tells us of Jove speaking to Gama or of the tender episode of Dona Ignez; whether he warns Portugal through the terrible prophecy of the Old Man, and describes the vision of the giant Adamastor at the Cape of Storms, or explains the Ptolemaic system and, with true Italian voluptuousness, depicts the Isle of Love, Camões always follows closely the simplicity of the old models. He is noble, terse, and direct. His stanza has at the same time all the elegance of the Italian school and the simplicity of the poetry of the Troubadours, which, by the way, was in his time very much appreciated in Portugal, having been introduced there when the Counts of Barcelona became by marriage Counts of Provence.

A biographic notice of Camões prefaces Mr. Duff's book. He gives little heed to the recent investigations by the Visconde de Juromenha, which have thrown light on much that has heretofore been conjectural in the poet's life. He says nothing about the career of Camões's father, whom the love of adventure and travel led to India, where he died by shipwreck—a circumstance which undoubtedly had a great deal to do in forming the poet's character. In a foot note (page xv.) Mr. Duff wrongly attributes Camões's embittered feeling towards the nobility to his rejection, as a lover, by the parents of Dona Catharina Athaide. On the contrary, Camões was much loved and respected at court, for his talent, but he misbehaved himself in his intercourse with Dona Catharina, and hence his banishment. In many of his minor poems, written before that time, he had already shown the same defiance of injustice and oppression, the same liberal spirit which he preserved to the end of his days. Mr. Duff solemnly repeats once more the absurd story about the poet's being wrecked on the coast of Cochin China, when he is said to have saved his life by swimming with one hand while the other carried the manuscript of the 'Lusiadas.' That story originated in a remark of Barbosa Machado in his 'Diccionario,' which was distorted by French and German critics, and then transplanted to Portugal. The truth is that Camões saved himself by floating on a plank, and carried about his person part of the manuscript—probably a very small portion of it. Mr. Duff also gives July 10, instead of June 10, 1580, as the date of the poet's death. Referring to the translations of the 'Lusiadas' into English, he falls into another error, which is remarkable for a translator of the poem. He says that there are seven complete versions. This is true, including the present one, which Mr. Duff did not include, for he says that one of the translators is an eminent English diplomatist, Viscount Strangford, who "thought it worth his while" to make a version of the 'Lusiadas.' Now, the viscount only translated a few of the minor poems and, as a specimen, a few stanzas from the larger poem.

The present translation has several engravings, of which some are good reproductions of old steel portraits, but concerning the authenticity of which Mr. Duff is silent. For the frontispiece he reproduces a steel engraving published in La Harpe's translation. He might better have given us the most authentic portrait of Camões, preserved in the volume of his biographer, Gaspar Severim de Faria (1624); the posture is somewhat stiff, and for that reason it is not generally reproduced. We know nothing of the source of Mr. Duff's portrait of Dona Ignez (a very poor wood-cut), but he might have copied his cut from the portrait preserved in the 'Retractos e Elogios,' made from the original portrait belonging to the Conde de Redondo. The Errata at the end of the volume include but a small part of the many misprints.

The Reader's Hand-book of Allusions, References, Plots, and Stories. With two appendices. By the Rev. E. Cobham Brewer, LL.D., Trinity Hall, Cambridge. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1880.)—The scope of this work is at once comprehensive and indefinite, as may be inferred from the title. It is emphatically a hand-book rather than a cyclopædia, and the contents of its 1,150 duodecimo pages reflect the personal predilections of its author more or less closely, and so limit its value as a universal book of reference. It is to be said, however, that a universal book of reference of this kind is practically very near an impossibility; that the most that can be asked of any one editor is a wide range of reading and sufficient tact in selection to meet the requirements of the average reader of general literature; that Dr. Brewer measurably satisfies these demands, and is apparently himself very fairly typical of such a reader. He dedicates his book to his daughters "Nellie and Amy," and, if we may assume them to be of tender years, it is possibly to his having had their juvenile understandings and erudition constantly in mind that the main fault of the volume, a certain tone as of juvenile literature, is to be attributed. Under "Homeric Characters," for example, we read (p. 449): "Patroclos, a gentle friend . . . Helen, a heartless beauty, faithless and fond of pleasure . . . Cassandra, a querulous, croaking prophetess; Hecuba, an old she-bear robbed of her whelps." This is characterization rather than description, and of a scarcely serious kind. Many of the plots and stories share the same error. A few instances taken at random will serve to indicate the extent and importance of the personal bias shown in selection. Scott and Dickens are very fully annotated, many of the most unimportant characters of each being given—*e. g.*, Tom Chitling, one of Fagin's associates; while Thackeray is, in comparison, quite neglected. Rachel Esmond is not mentioned; but Rachel, one of the mill-hands in 'Hard Times,' is. There are plots of most of Dickens's novels ('Bleak House' is an exception, though we find it under Appendix II., which gives the "dates of poems, novels, etc., *referred to in this book*"), but none of 'Henry Esmond,' 'Pendennis,' or 'The Newcomes.' 'Pendennis' is mentioned, but with no allusion to Captain Costigan. 'Vanity Fair' is described, but Amelia Sedley and Dobbin are not referred to; neither is Lady Kew nor the Comte de Florac, although the several Newcomes are given. Under "hinges" we have a reference to "harmonious hinges" in Beckford's 'Vathek,' 1784, but none to the pregnant ones of Hamlet; under "Rolla" Sheridan's 'Pizarro' is given, but Alfred de Musset's poem is not; under "Death from Strange Causes," that of "Charles VIII." is given, but of what Charles VIII. the reader is not informed; after "Speech-makers (bad)" we find the note: "(Dickens and Prince Albert always spoke well and fluently)," with no reason assigned for the omission of a host of others, from Nestor to Mr. Sala. Among eleven "Isabellas" the heroine of Keats and Boccaccio finds no place; among four Lucias, she of the 'Paradiso' is omitted. Rousseau's 'Émile' is recognized, but the Savoyard Vicar is not allowed to keep company with the Vicars of Bray and of Wakefield; on the other hand, for Esmeralda there is no corresponding title of 'Notre Dame de Paris,' while 'Les Misérables' and Jean Valjean are alike ignored; and in general there is apparently a want of system in dealing with all non-English literatures, so that, for example, even Manzoni's 'Promessi Sposi' will be sought in vain. Ali Baba is mentioned, but Ali the brother of Ahmed is not, although the other brother, Houssain, is; and here we may note a useless repetition under "Sesame" and "Open Sesame," where a cross-reference would have saved much space now occupied by the definition and by an extract from the Christian Merchant's story, twice given with a different phraseology on pp. 706 and 891. Under "Horse Painter" we find the feat of Apelles chronicled, and then five other miracles of realistic painting

having no reference to horses at all; under "Carlyle" only three works are mentioned, whereas Charles Churchill is credited with fourteen; Bunyan is credited with but two, and Mrs. Hemans has nine set down to her; and perhaps as curious as anything in the book is the mention under "Lovers (*Romantic*). The favorites of distinguished men"—"Romantic" being used to distinguish them from "Lovers struck by lightning," which follows—of Dr. Johnson and Mrs. Thrale along with Pericles and Aspasia, Charles II. and Nell Gwynne, Nelson and Lady Hamilton, and so on, without even the parenthetic explanation "purely platonic" which accompanies the reference to Wyat and Anne Boleyn, generally believed to have deserved it far less.

But, we repeat, with all its inconsistencies and imperfections, this hand-book is capable of being useful, and in various degrees will merit the gratitude of those who are content to take it for what there is in it. As a sample of its range, we present the successive titles on p. 985: Terror of the World, Terry Alts, Tesoretto, Tessira, Tests of Chastity, Tests of Fidelity, Tête Bottée, Tethys, Tetrachordon, Teucer, Teufelsdroeckh, Teutonic Knights, Texartis, Tezozomoc. In addition to the appendix mentioned above, there is another for the authors and dates of dramas and operas.

History of Political Economy in Europe. By Jérôme-Adolphe Blanqui. Translated by Emily J. Leonard, with Preface by David A. Wells. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1880.)—It is quite remarkable, in view of the constant use which scholars have made of Blanqui's book, that it has not been translated heretofore into English. The utility of such a history is unquestioned. It serves purposes and meets views of economic science which cannot be satisfied in any other way, and which it is no easy task to satisfy within moderate limits. This last fact is, no doubt, one of those which account for the enduring usefulness and popularity of the work before us. Blanqui accomplished his task with great judgment and tact, so distributing the several parts within the limits which he set himself that all essential matters are included, and their proportion to each other is very fairly adjusted. He also had a very intelligent appreciation of the economic forces which he reviews. The last forty years have seen a great widening of the philosophy of history, and Blanqui, no doubt, falls short, in measure, of the best philosophy of to day; but he had anticipated and adopted the best features of the latest philosophy so correctly in kind that his work is not superseded. Another great merit of his work, which goes far to account for its enduring value, is that he knew so well how to set bounds to his own erudition. We have had published within the past two decades a great number of works treating of special subjects in the history of political economy, the authors of which have not been able to throw away any of the notes or citations which they had collected, no doubt, with great pains. This weakness, combined with a narrow and defective philosophy, makes many of the books referred to mere crude and undigested heaps of barren erudition. To sift, classify, reduce, and generalize such material is, of course, very difficult. A book in which it is accomplished with a fair measure of success is permanently valuable. To have it put within direct reach of students and general readers is a gain to economic science.

As far as we have examined the translation, it seems to be very conscientiously executed. The translator shows adequate knowledge of the subject-matter for the proper performance of her duty. She has not simply transferred the text into English, nor, on the other hand, has she edited the book; but whatever is necessary to set the author's meaning fairly before the English reader has been very intelligently done.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 3, 1880.

The Week.

SPECULATIONS about the nomination at Chicago are useless, as it will have been made, in all probability, before this reaches the majority of our readers. The organs of the rival candidates have been increasingly good reading up to the last moment, and particularly those of General Grant. The accounts in the New York *Times* of the villany of the anti-third-term men, and of the purity, goodness, and simplicity of General Grant's followers, have been as good as anything in Dickens, and entitle the conductors of that paper to a high place among the national humorists. We regret to learn from our esteemed contemporary that the Roman virtue of the coal-black Southern delegates—at one time so remarkable—began to give way on their arrival at Chicago, and they displayed almost the same depraved readiness to support Blaine or Sherman, if it was made worth their while, by which the "yellow" men had already made themselves so conspicuous. General Grant had been remaining in dignified seclusion in the remote city of Galena, but even there the noise of the strife annoyed him so much that he went to Dubuque. "Col." Fred. Grant, however, remained in the thick of the fray, and made up by his boastings and predictions for "Father's" reticence, to the great annoyance, apparently, of the more judicious Grant men.

The contest in the National Committee, in which the anti-Grant men had a working majority, over the arrangements for the temporary organization was unprecedented. The point at issue, in the first place, may be said to have been the common honesty, or at least the personal honor, of the chairman, Senator Cameron—that is to say, it was doubted whether, after receiving the nomination for temporary chairman determined upon in committee, he would not immediately receive a Grant substitute and in the ensuing vote apply the unit rule at his own discretion. Apparently, this was soon settled in the affirmative, and the question arose of deposing him before the Convention met. At an excited session of the committee on Monday, after a caucus of the anti-Grant members, it was moved "that this committee recognizes the right of each delegate" to vote independently of State instructions. As this resolution would, if passed, have made it a task of some objectionableness even to Cameron to apply the unit rule in the preliminary proceedings, he promptly declined to entertain it, and, when appealed from, to put the appeal. He does not appear to have deigned any explanation himself, but the returned prodigal, Gorham, took the ground that the temporary organization of the Convention was wholly within the control of the chairman of the National Committee in virtue of the fact that he was thus chairman of a committee which had no rights in the matter. This view appeared somewhat farcical to the anti-Grant men, who also seem to have found irrelevant the charge that they wished to "fight out the issues of the Convention in advance," but, after deciding on Senator Hoar for temporary chairman and "Bill" Chandler for calling the Convention to order "in case" Cameron should be "absent or unable to perform that duty," they consented to adjournment with the main question in abeyance, and amid much wild talk about the possibility of two conventions.

The struggle resulted in a compromise the following day, by which Cameron bound himself to see that Hoar was chosen temporary chairman, and his opponents left the unit-rule decision to the Convention when permanently organized. Seven anti-Grant members are said to have insisted on Cameron's deposition, but on the telegraphed advice of Blaine and the assurances of Conkling, Arthur, Jones of Nevada, and others that Cameron would keep his word the majority consented to his retention. He is reported to have expressed himself as "disgusted with politics." At the present writing, therefore, the situation is briefly this: the anti-Grant forces have secured the temporary chairman, and, as they have a majority of the delegations, will control the permanent organization more or less completely; the Grant men secure the admission of Logan's delegation entire to the temporary organization—a circumstance of obvious importance—the postponement of the unit-rule question, and the retention of Cameron.

Congress failed to adjourn on the 31st of May, and has business enough before it for another month at its customary rate of progress. But the majority would be glad to see the session close before the Cincinnati Convention meets, and will probably bring this about. The preliminary work at Chicago drew off great numbers of Republicans, duly paired. The Senate has passed the Immediate Deficiency Bill and Mr. Bayard's bill defining the term of office of the chief supervisors of elections. To the latter Mr. Thurman offered an amendment, aimed at Commissioner Davenport, of this city, providing that "no person now holding or who has held the office of chief supervisor of elections shall be reappointed," which was passed after a long speech in opposition by Mr. Edmunds, who traversed the whole scope and character of the bill, and denounced taking from the circuit courts to bestow upon the United States Senate the appointment of these judicial officers, just as the appointment of deputy-marshals had been taken from the Executive to be bestowed on the courts. He showed very clearly that while the appointment of supervisors is still left with the courts, these officers are practically selected by the chief supervisor; so that, if he must now be appointed by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, a Tweed, for instance, or a John Kelly would, after all, be the appointing power. He did not, however, show how the present system prevented senatorial bosses from exercising the same control, nor what was the actual character of the class now drawn upon for supervisors. As for the disability imposed upon the chief supervisors by Mr. Thurman's amendment, Mr. Edmunds enquired: "If it is constitutionally competent to say they shall not hold this office [again], is it not constitutionally competent to say that they shall not hold any other? And, if not, why not?" Nobody, Mr. Thurman not excepted, made any reply to this or any other of the points raised by Mr. Edmunds.

Mr. Eaton's bill "to provide for the appointment of a commission to investigate the question of the tariff" has been the other weighty subject of debate in the Senate. It was reported favorably from the Committee on Finance, and is a measure which would not only redeem the financial barrenness of the present session, but might prove the first step towards a rational treatment of the great question of revenue and taxation. It proposes the nomination by the President and the Senate of a commission of nine civilians, qualified as experts, to examine all the leading interests of the country, mining, agricultural, and manufacturing, and, having permission to report from time to time the result of their enquiries, to make a final report of their information and recommendations in December, 1881. Senator Garland, however, about the same time as Mr. Eaton, introduced a measure of similar purport, but vitiated by the admission of political factors. According to it, the commission would be composed of three Senators, three Representatives, and three civilians chosen by these. Mr. Bayard argued forcibly against the impolicy of this, on the ground of the physical inability of Congressmen during recess to give the requisite attention to so arduous an investigation, and of the desirability of securing scientific impartiality in the reports. "The ebb and flow of party strength in this country," he well observed, "marks our whole history, and it never touches any

question that it does not injure. It touches no question that it enlightens." He objected to piecemeal tinkering even of a tariff of which he could say, "I consider that a greater agglomeration of selfish interests and injustice was never made in the form of law." Mr. Thurman and Mr. Beck both upheld Mr. Garland's measure, insisting that the delay in appointing a civilian commission would have the effect of exempting the tariff from alteration for two years. This might be true, and would yet be endurable in view of systematic relief at the end of that term, and in view of the fact, which especially applies to the tariff, that unstable is often worse than inequitable legislation.

Judge C. C. Cole, of Iowa, who some time ago made charges of corruption against Judges Dillon and Love in certain railroad cases, has fared worse than some other lawyers who made them just as freely. The Iowa Bar Association took proceedings to disbar him, in default of proof of his accusations, and he has saved himself by an extraordinary confession, in which he declares that "he does not believe, and never did believe the truth of the charges made by the court against the integrity of either of its judges. Nor does he believe the truth of any charges in any of the said letters, in said information referred to, or in any publication over the signature of this respondent"—that is, Judge Cole himself. It is difficult to see now how the Bar can hold that a person who has made such avowals is fit to belong to it.

The Court of Enquiry in the Whittaker case have unanimously found him guilty of committing the outrage on himself, for the reasons which have been already set forth in our columns. The only new incidents in the investigation on the last day were his conviction of falsehood with regard to some small violations of the regulations, such as keeping civilian's clothes concealed in his room, and the production of his journal, which has in some passages an unpleasant appearance of having been composed for "campaign" use. The dissatisfaction of the Professors of Chemistry and Drawing with his work he ascribed to their hatred of negroes, but styles the former "a poor devil, for whom he would pray and all like him," and declared that even "if he [Whittaker] had not any merit in the eyes of prejudiced officers and low-toned men he would some day make his merit shine by his acts." He evidently considered himself unfairly treated if, having studied faithfully, he did not come up to the mark, and had his color constantly in his mind as the cause of all his misfortunes. Having "done pretty well" in philosophy, he set the professor down as "a good man" who, he thought, would treat him fairly. He is now under arrest, and will be either tried by court-martial or dismissed from the school, as the President may determine.

Professor Greener, the friend and counsel of Cadet Whittaker, seems to have rather odd notions about evidence. He says: "Whittaker has been prejudged on suppositions, assumptions, insinuations, and expert testimony, on which, according to military law, little if any reliance should be placed." The professor ought to know that, in the matter of testimony, courts of enquiry, as well as other courts, have to be governed mainly by the laws of the human mind. Whittaker's misfortune flows neither from military law nor civil law, but from a combination of facts which, owing to the constitution of the human intellect, make it seem highly probable—indeed, all but certain—that he committed the outrage on himself. The President might pardon him, or set aside the decision of the Court of Enquiry, and Martin I. Townsend might scoff at the evidence of experts, but this would not make Whittaker seem innocent. The only way for him out of his present scrape lies through the production of new facts which will upset the presumption created by the present facts. But in any case he ought to leave the school. A young fellow in good health, who lets his hair be cut, and his ears gashed, and the soles of his feet be pricked, and his hands and feet tied in his own bed-room, not only without resistance, but without having even the courage to yell, is hardly the material out of which a soldier can be made, and the money spent on him for that purpose is clearly wasted.

The most prominent member of the Tweed Ring after Tweed himself, Richard B. Connolly, the city comptroller of the Ring period, died last week in France, at the ripe age of seventy, and in possession of a fortune estimated at half a million, and this although two or three years ago he confessed judgment in one of the suits brought against him by the city for the enormous sum of over eight millions of dollars. His frauds and thefts while a member of the city government had in themselves nothing very remarkable. They were just such as ten thousand municipal politicians would commit if they got the opportunity. His career is mainly interesting as a study of city politics, but from this point of view it is very interesting, as showing how completely the ordinary traditions of private business have come to be disregarded in public business. Connolly never held any place of trust or emolument before he became comptroller, except a custom-house clerkship at $900 a year and a bank clerkship which reached at its maximum $3,600. Out of this, owing to his close attention to politics, he stepped directly into the comptrollership with such powers that he was able to steal between 1868, his first year in office, and 1871, the year of his overthrow, twenty per cent., or a sum which competent auditors have estimated at $30,000,000, fraudulently diverted from the city treasury. That he did not die richer is said to be due to unfortunate speculations, and probably to the necessity of dividing great sums with minor accomplices or accessories He and Sweeny were the two Irishmen and Catholics of the Ring. The United States and the Protestant religion were represented by Tweed and Hall.

Edison's latest experiment is, as usual, demonstrated to be a complete success by the investigations of a *Herald* reporter, who paid the Magician a visit on Saturday and tested the utilization of the electric current "for railroad purposes." The Magician has a three-quarter-mile track upon which he runs his motor and car, and which appears to be designed, with the malignity of a Wicked Magician, to afford the most excruciating torture to *Herald* reporters and others who can be beguiled into riding upon it. It has all kinds of curves, some of them being as sharp as an ordinary horse-railroad corner curve, and divers grades; and around these the Magician and his victim tore at a rate of forty miles an hour. "The strangest part of the programme," according to the reporter, was the ease and celerity with which the train could be stopped, from which we suppose the means of preventing it from jumping the track in rounding the "series of serpentine curves, that were enough to frighten anybody," was too obvious to deserve mention. Once the reporter got on the motor, with the car detached, when it "shot off like a bullet, and it was only by holding on firmly that one's seat could be kept"; as the curves were reached "the motor rocked fearfully" and seemed to the rider like a "bucking mustang." "The time made was fifty-three seconds from the station to the end of the track," which was extraordinary, considering the vicissitudes of the journey, to say the least, whether it bodes the speedy disuse of steam or not. Menlo Park is to be illuminated by the electric light in September. Of the gold-finding process there is "very little to be said," the report dejectedly concludes.

Mr. D. N. Comingore, whose correspondence the *Times* published the other day, writes to us that everything he did in the transactions with the Government, to which the correspondence refers, was "well and satisfactorily done," and that "he and his partners were paid less than any other person or persons for the same thing," and that "the Government was actually benefited by everything they did," and he declares his readiness and willingness to be investigated. We expressed no opinion on his dealings with the Government. We simply gave a summary of the correspondence published by the *Times*, and of the unkind language towards each other in which the editor of that paper and Colonel Moulton subsequently indulged. We know nothing about Mr. Comingore's

contracts or character. But we confess we thought the passage in one of his letters, in which he proposed to Brown to "run it [a certain contract for which they were applying] for a month or two to satisfy the Department, and afterwards run it to make all the money they could out of it," needed a certain amount of explanation, and we think so still.

Although the nominal rates for exchange on London advanced during the week to the point at which gold can be exported, the actual rates did not warrant shipments. The New York banks now hold a little over $59,000,000 of specie, principally gold; a year ago the banks held less than $19,000,000. While there has been this increase in specie the legal-tender notes in the banks have fallen, as compared with last year, from $41,790,000 to $22,540,000. The liquidation of speculation during the last two months, together with the increase of specie, has enabled the banks to strengthen their reserve, so that now they hold $16,128,450 above the legal requirement, whereas a year ago they held a surplus of only $5,078,000. Specie exports can, therefore, for the time being, be afforded by the New York loan market. The misfortune is, however, that in the autumn, when the money market will naturally be active, the loss of specie will be felt, no one expecting that gold which is lost in the summer will be regained then. The foreign trade of the country is running more and more against the United States so far as the foreign movement of gold is concerned. The official figures for the whole United States for the month of April show that the imports of merchandise were valued at $74,388,890, which is $32,252,789 (or about 76½ per cent.) more than in April, 1879. The exports during the same time of domestic products were valued at $70,538,242, which is an increase of $16,196,380 (or about 30 per cent.) over those of the corresponding month last year. For the first ten months of the fiscal year the increase in the value of imports was $244,500,000, while the increase in the value of exports was only $79,550,000. During the first ten months of the fiscal year 1878–9 the excess of exports above imports, exclusive of specie, was $241,477,882, while for the corresponding months of 1879–80 the excess of exports was only $155,241,872. It will therefore be seen that the foreign exchanges threaten to become in the not remote future most interesting in respect to the money market and the silver question. So soon as specie exports begin gold will be lost, and in due time gold will disappear from the currency and silver will take its place. The country will then have three standard dollars—to wit, the gold dollar for foreign trade, the silver dollar, and the legal-tender note (payable either in gold or silver), the two latter for domestic use.

The question of Bradlaugh's admission to the House of Commons without taking the oath has been referred by the House to a select committee, whose decision will doubtless turn on the law of the matter; but the religious public out-of-doors is taking it up with vigor from another point of view, and urging the House by letter of petition not to let him in. The fact seems to be, in brief, that an affirmation which Bradlaugh is quite willing to take, and has taken as a witness, is allowed in courts of law. But the only affirmation provided by the House of Commons for those who have conscientious scruples about taking an oath is intended, it is maintained, for the benefit of Moravians, Quakers, and others who do believe in God and a future life, and cannot be legally administered to an avowed infidel. But, in addition to this, Bradlaugh is willing to take the oath itself, if the House will let him, regarding it as an idle form over which a sensible man need not palter. Bradlaugh is a very obnoxious person to the religious world, both because he has been an infidel lecturer of the Ingersoll school, though not so ribald as Ingersoll, and because he brought out a book, in combination with a Mrs. Besant, the wife of a clergyman, for which they were both tried, intended to instruct people how to restrict the size of their families. It is not probable that the House of Commons, however, will refuse to provide a form of affirmation which will enable him to take his seat, as this would only make a martyr of him and endear him to his constituency—the Northampton shoemakers. He has undoubtedly been greatly helped by a ludicrous attack on him in the House, in the interest of morality and religion, by Lord Randolph Churchill, who produced, amidst great laughter, an imitation of Burke's dagger scene by throwing one of Bradlaugh's pamphlets on the floor and stamping on it in a fury of indignant virtue.

The wing of the Liberals who were on the point a week ago of presenting an address to Mr. Gladstone demanding the recall of Sir Bartle Frere, but were momentarily quieted by the Ministerial explanation that Sir Bartle was needed to complete the construction of the South African Confederation, have renewed their onslaught, and are to express it in a motion in the House of Commons. The attack is led or greatly stimulated by the *Pall Mall Gazette*, under its new editor, Mr. John Morley, whose summing up of the case against Sir Bartle in the *Fortnightly* last year was one of the most formidable of the indictments brought against the late Government. The affair is probably the beginning of a trouble with which the Gladstone Ministry will always have to contend. The more radical wing of the party would have put up with a good deal of moderation if the majority had been smaller. But it is so large that it seems to put everything within their reach, and they chafe over anything that looks like compromise. The appointment of Lord Ripon in India is disliked because it seems due to a desire to conciliate the Catholics, whom Mr. Gladstone had offended by his assaults on the Vatican, and, in fact, the inconveniences of having passed five years in somewhat furious agitation are probably plainer to Mr. Gladstone, now that he is in office, than he likes.

Mr. Goschen's advent at Constantinople has produced a good deal of commotion among the Turks, as there seems to be no doubt that he has secured the joint action of the Powers to press the Porte in some shape. They are said to have resolved on the usual course when all else fails—a simple *non possumus*, backed by an opinion of the Sheikh-ul-Islam that the Law will not furnish whatever is asked for, and that if urged too vehemently there may be fanatical attacks on the Christians. This has succeeded so often that there is no reason why they should not try it again. What the Sultan most dreads is an international commission, which would put him in the position of the Khedive or an Indian prince, but he still counts on the difficulty of any united coercion, and he is right in this. The introduction of foreign troops to compel him to obey might end in a general game of grab.

The negotiations which have been so long pending between the Vatican and the German Government seem to have reached no result, and were substantially closed a few weeks ago by a long despatch from Prince Bismarck, in which he dwelt much on the scandalous spectacle created in the Reichstag by the alliance of the Clerical party with the Socialists. He has, however, been sufficiently moved by the complete absence of priests and religious officers in numerous Catholic parishes, owing to the refusal of the bishops to secure Government approval of the appointed priests, as required by the Falk laws, and has introduced a bill in the Prussian Parliament giving the minister discretionary power in applying these laws—that is, enabling him to suspend them in any particular case. It is not as yet known what effect the bill will have on the Pope.

The Italian Ministry have, as was anticipated, gained nothing by the election. They have already been beaten in one division by a majority of twelve. The King's reception at the opening of Parliament is said to have been chilly, owing to the general feeling as to the uncertainty of the future. The situation is somewhat complicated by a fresh outbreak on the part of Garibaldi, who has written a letter to his Roman constituents denouncing the House of Savoy, recommending the dissolution of the army and the refusal of all aid to the priests –which does not, perhaps, mean much in itself, but does indicate that the extreme Radicals are picking up courage, and hope for a row in which they will gain something.

THE MEANING GRANT'S ELECTION WOULD HAVE.

WHETHER General Grant will be nominated at Chicago or not is, as we said last week, one of those things about which prophecy or calculation is almost useless. The tables published by our esteemed contemporaries are all concocted in the interest of some candidate, and are not simple statements, therefore, but contributions to somebody's "boom," and it is to be observed that no two tables are alike, which shows that nothing very positive is known about the intentions of a very large number of the delegates. The only thing certain in the situation is, that of all the candidates now in the field General Grant has probably the best chance of the nomination. It may be useful, therefore, to make a few observations on the meaning which his election would have in case he is nominated. It is not too soon to consider this. Every Republican may have to consider it very seriously during the coming five months, and may find five months too little for the purpose.

It will, in the first place, be a condonation of all that was amiss in his former Administration. He has never uttered any expression of regret for the things in his Administration of which the public complained. He has not discarded or withdrawn his confidence in any public way from any of those whose wrongdoing or bad advice brought discredit on him. In fact, he has expressed for some of the most prominent of them his unabated esteem. He has been seen in the company of some of the worst of them since his return from Europe. He offers himself for re-election not as a new or different Grant, but as the Grant of 1876, plus some experience of travel in foreign countries. Not a syllable has escaped *him* to show that he wishes to be thought of as other than what he was when in office, so that those who vote for him will have no escape from "vindicating" him. They will be forced to declare by implication that they liked the way the Government was carried on between 1869 and 1876. Nothing can be more straightforward and candid than the manner in which he presents himself to the people. It is true that some of his followers say that he has learnt wisdom abroad, and will separate himself from his old friends. But the plea that a man has mended his ways, and will forsake his old companions, is ludicrous when produced in support of his claim to the chief-magistracy of a great nation. It is a good-enough plea in behalf of a clerk in a store who has been caught pilfering, or of a book-keeper who has taken to drink; but it was probably never thought of until now as a recommendation for the presidency of a republic. It is but justice to General Grant to say that he has not himself produced it, or authorized its production. His conversations, as given in the revised reports of Mr. John Russell Young, contain no trace of it. We may remark, too, before passing from this point, that a formal acknowledgment that a man's having filled an office badly was no obstacle to his filling it again would introduce also into our politics the startling novelty that a man can have claims on an office apart from his personal capacity to fill it. This contains the seeds of hereditary right. Indeed, it is hardly any more absurd to give a man an office for which his unfitness has been proved, because we like him, than to give it to him and put up with his unfitness because he is his father's son. Both imply the existence of a source of right to the office outside his mental and moral constitution.

Secondly, it is to be observed that no platform is attached to General Grant's name; that is, he is not presented as standing for any principle or policy of Government, or as in any way identified with it. If he were, many faults and shortcomings might be overlooked in consideration of it. In fact, the representation of great political movements and ideas by personally unworthy champions is something not uncommon. It is one of the necessary humiliations which people have often to undergo in order to attain great objects. But so far is General Grant from being the champion of anything, that his political creed remains to this day unknown to the country. In fact, Mr. Conkling remarked with much naïveté in a recently reported interview, that people often sent to him for "Grant documents," but could not get them because there are none. This goes a good way towards defining his position. We presume there has never before been a case in which a man has appeared as a candidate for re-election to an important office which he has already filled, and has had to inform his friends that he could furnish them with no "documents" in aid of his canvass. The history of his eight years' Administration ought to be his great document, and ought to be furnished freely to his supporters; but it is one of the humors of the crisis that it is his enemies who are preparing this, and that his friends treat it as a scandalous publication. All the references which the latter make to his past relate to his military career, which would be very apposite if he had never filled a high civil position, and if the people were about to elect a strategist to carry on a war. *Having* filled a civil position, and it being a civil position which he is now seeking, it is about his civil capacity that people want to know, and about nothing are his friends less disposed to talk. If he were now a candidate for the command-in-chief of the army, and had already filled that place, had lost most of the battles he fought, and had made his staff up of peculators and shirks, it would be considered somewhat queer on the part of his friends to refuse to tell about his military career and to insist on dwelling on his success as a tanner and stock-raiser; and yet it would not be queerer than what they are now doing. We admit that it is fair enough to infer that because a man has commanded an army well he will probably rule a state well, as far as executive functions are concerned. But all we get by our inference is a presumption which may be upset completely by experiment. After experiment has upset it, it is very odd to go on talking as if there had been no experiment at all. It was all very well, in other words, to stick to General Grant first and *part* of the time; to stick to him "first, last, and *all* the time," without regard to the facts of his career, is to behave in an irrational manner. Fidelity in politics is a good human virtue when controlled by experience; cultivated in disregard of experience, it becomes simply canine.

Thirdly, the election of a President who has already held office, and who, for whatever reason, has no party behind him, but simply stands for himself and his personal followers and admirers, is, however it may be disguised, a confession that he is a necessary man. When once this acknowledgment is made in a republic in time of peace, a change has occurred in the spirit of the government which no amount of declamation or protestation or adherence to forms can disguise. It is no doubt a subtle change, the nature and extent of which nobody can describe and the existence of which is incapable of proof, but it none the less exists and is recognizable. Such a President when he asks himself, "Why am I here?" can return but one answer: "Because they could not do without me"; and the man with whom a republic cannot dispense as its chief officer is no longer a President: he is a Protector, or Stadtholder, or First Consul, in all but the name. The close personal friends and adherents of a real President, too, ought to be and are men who agree with him and have labored with him in politics—that is, hold the same opinions that he does on the leading questions of the day. But General Grant's friends would necessarily be, if he were now elected, men who admire him personally for his success and for things not connected with his past civil administration; and this common admiration would constitute the chief political bond both between him and them and between one another. His followers and councillors, therefore, would not be the politicians of a free state, but personal favorites of its chief officer, and would rely on his favor and not on public opinion for their advancement, and would feel bound both by sympathy, gratitude, and ambition to use their best efforts to keep him in power indefinitely. Even if they failed, they would form a clique, like the Bonapartists in France, half hostile to the institutions of the country as providing no place for their Chief, and doubtful of the future of the Republic because he did not preside over its destinies. We feel sure that no one can have talked much with General Grant's supporters during the past year without being struck with the strong Bonapartism of their tone. The talk about him is not the talk

of republican politicians, but of the friends of a dynasty. They take little interest in the Government if General Grant is not in it, and are prone to discover in him the marks of a heaven-sent deliverer who does not need to explain himself or say what he is going to do if elected. This school would increase rapidly in four years under the fostering influence of office and Presidential favor, and it would probably produce before long a Persigny who would openly express what many of them already feel, their contempt for government by discussion. One of the things they already most admire and oftenest call attention to in their chief is his silence, which they think offers a most salutary example to the American people. In a constitutional state, however, a silent statesman is as objectionable as a cowardly king in a military monarchy. Republican government is carried on by discussion, and discussion means talk, and much talk; and though loquacity is not desirable, it ought to be a fatal objection to a candidate for the highest office in such a government that he conceals his thoughts.

That more injury has not been done to American politics already by the preaching of the Grant gospel is due simply to the fact that the scandals of his Administration were so great. Had he had a little more regard for appearances, and a little more sensitiveness to public opinion, and been a little more careful in the selection of his immediate followers, the doctrine that he is the savior which the nation needs, and has in fact a semi-sacred character, which has found so much expression in the Methodist Church, would have been much harder to meet and would have done much more mischief. As it is, his Administration has created a sect of politicians who are probably more pestilent than any who have made their appearance in recent times in any constitutional state. The enlargement of the sect in the present condition of our population would be a serious misfortune, and nothing would enlarge it so rapidly as a third term, and the busy preparation for a fourth with which it would assuredly be occupied. In fact, no one who calls for a third term can logically help calling for a fourth. His arguments carry him towards it irresistibly, and would convict him of gross indifference to the best interests of his country if he failed to insist upon it.

THE REVISION OF CREEDS.

A RECENT discussion at the Commencement of the Yale Theological Seminary, touching the need or expediency of a creed for the Congregational Church, brought out very strongly the difficulty, of which we spoke some weeks ago, that both ministers and laymen feel in defining their religious beliefs, and was rather remarkable as a confession of the trouble which the churches experience in holding to any common standard of orthodoxy. Seven or eight leading Congregational theologians opposed the attempt to formulate a creed, on various grounds. One thought the Church was not ready to say what it believed on a number of questions on which the advance of science is in a measure pressing it to declare itself—such as evolution, the origin of species, and the authenticity of the Pentateuch. Another proposed to meet the difficulty by drawing up a list of things not believable. There was a general consensus, apparently, that the drafting of a creed would lead to dissension, and also that no creed could in our day last long. Dr. Bacon, for instance, would revise the Congregational creed every ninth year. President Porter would have a creed for each Church, to be settled every time it received a new pastor—that is, we suppose, that the confession of faith exacted from the pastor should form the creed of the Church as long as he remained in office. Nobody seemed to think it possible to draft any creed which all the churches would accept.

There can be little doubt that this discussion pretty fairly represented the mental attitude of the Protestant world in our day about religious beliefs; but, on the other hand, it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that such discussions by no means help to strengthen or spread the believing frame of mind which is, after all, what church organizations have to rely on for their existence. It is not easy, for instance, to reconcile these objections to the adoption of a creed with Professor Fisher's position, which we recently cited, regarding the power of the will over faith. His work on 'Faith and Rationalism' is an able exposition of the possibility and even duty of believing without evidence, and especially of believing what the Protestant Church calls "truths of Christianity" on evidence insufficient to satisfy the reason; and, though it is composed of lectures addressed to the Princeton Theological School, it was evidently really intended for persons of a rationalistic turn, who find it difficult to hold on to Christianity when at the same time cultivating the scientific frame of mind which is now the great end of secular education. The Church is everywhere suffering from the spread of this frame of mind much more than from the direct assaults of sceptics, and it certainly cannot be overcome or satisfied by creeds, containing the most solemn affirmations on the most serious subjects of human concern, which are avowedly open to periodical revision and modification. A creed of this kind is simply an exposition of the way A., B., and C. look at certain things in a particular year; it cannot be presented as a list of things which a man must accept as true if he would enjoy eternal peace, which is really what a religious creed has to be in order to hold human nature to certain lines of duty and endeavor. Many a man can, even in our day, follow Professor Fisher's advice, and will himself into the belief of what seems to his understanding incredible, but only on condition that he makes the effort once for all, and that he is then fully assured that he stands on the bed-rock of everlasting and unchangeable Truth. There are not many men in our time who occupy themselves seriously with what they believe who are ready to go through this process every nine years, or every time a new pastor is called to the church. It is only sincere Catholics, if any, who are ready to accept from human hands occasional additions to the body of religious truth, the making of such additions being one of the recognized functions of their Church. Protestants could at no time add to or take away from the sum of their belief without a sensible diminution in the strength with which any belief is held, and there has never hitherto been a time less favorable to those modifications than the present one. The scientific habit of mind which nearly everybody gets in our day from his education, and from the mode in which nearly all the business of life is transacted, render it very difficult, and increasingly difficult, to make the change in the mental attitude which theologians call for in every man when he leaves the market-place and the law-courts and the legislature and the laboratory to enter the house of worship. Thousands, if not hundreds of thousands, therefore ask themselves, when reading such discussions as that at New Haven the other day, where is the objection to a creed, and a fixed and permanent one, if the power of the will over religious belief be what Professor Fisher describes it to be, and if the duty of exempting the formation of that belief from the ordinary operations of the intellect be what he represents it?

One other thing will also attract their attention, and it is something which has an important bearing on the phenomenon called the decline of faith. Theological writers acquired, in the days when creeds were fixed and were given to the world as the last word of the Church on the great problems of man's creation and status and destiny, a habit of writing in keeping with the idea of the permanence and ultimateness of creeds. They wrote and preached as if their premises were sure never to undergo any change or modification, and treated any suspense of judgment as an undoubted sin against the light. A good many have abandoned it for a more sympathetic attitude towards doubt and unbelief, and acknowledge that they too stretch "lame hands of faith and grope."

But a great many others—and these the most prolific writers in reviews and magazines as well as in volumes—still preserve the old tone of assured and somewhat minatory orthodoxy. They freely acknowledge that the Church during the last hundred years has thrown aside much doctrine which was once considered essential to salvation, and much history which was once never questioned, but they exact as ready acceptance for their own position today as if it were the position which their predecessors had always

occupied, and as if there were no reason for supposing that their successors would ever occupy any other. One hardly takes up a religious quarterly without coming across an article by some well-known divine in which the Sceptics and Rationalists are not assailed in a tone which would only be permissible in a preacher who preached what had "everywhere, and always, and by all been believed." There was undoubtedly a period when this confidence was effective, when doubts were quenched and irreverence put to shame by it; but that time is long gone. The knowledge possessed by average laymen of the mutations of belief through which the Church has passed since the middle of the last century, of the number of once precious truths which she has thrown aside as useless incumbrances, may not be minute or accurate, but it is widely spread and is present to the mind of nearly every one who reads a controversial article or listens to a confident and vehement doctrinal sermon, and it converts many of the fierce attacks on science into the seeds of something more formidable far than unbelief—complete indifference. No attitude, in fact, in our day removes the minister farther from the thoughtful layman than this of absolute and disdainful confidence in the ecclesiastical positions of this year. The layman knows they probably are not any more impregnable than the old ones which were long ago abandoned. Moreover, the chief misery of the civilized world in our time is doubt about the great problems of existence, doubt about our origin, and doubt about our ultimate fate. There is hardly any thoughtful man on whose life it does not cast a shadow of greater or less depth, but it is not too much to say that it has created a fresh source of human sympathy. No one who feels the darkness of the road he is travelling can help feeling a certain touch of compassion for those who are making the journey under the same difficulties. To all men in this state of mind—and how numerous they are every one knows—nothing can be less impressive or consolatory than the exhortations of the very confident. They come to them somewhat with the effect of the boisterous assurances of a thick-skinned man in rude health to an invalid friend that there is nothing the matter with him; that what he needs is to imitate *him*, take plenty of exercise and good hearty food. A minister who makes nothing of the mental struggle through which the modern world is passing, or treats it as an affair which can be disposed of by an occasional modification of creeds, can hardly expect to retain his influence with those who feel that it is neither more nor less than a last effort to reach a moral and spiritual position in which they can no longer be vexed or disturbed by the newest views in verbal criticism, or the latest experiments in the laboratory.

DEMOCRACY IN ENGLAND.

London, May 14, 1880.

DEMOCRACY in Great Britain—for in this paper all reference to Ireland is purposely omitted—has, to borrow an expression of Gambetta's, "come of age." The electors, amounting in round numbers to somewhat more than 2,800,000 men, have in the last two general elections exerted to the full the powers which the present electorate acquired in 1868. In 1874 they called the Conservatives to office; in 1880 they have elected Mr. Gladstone Prime Minister. I have no wish to canvass their conduct on either occasion; my aim in this letter is to perform, as far as may be, the part, not of a partisan but of an historical critic, and to enquire, in the light of recent events, what are likely to prove the permanent characteristics of English democracy. One preliminary observation deserves attention: Democracy in England is as yet, it should be noticed, by no means wholly democratic. The constituency which ultimately governs the country is, judged by an American, a French, or a German standard, narrow. The mode in which seats are distributed, further limits the influence of numbers. The franchise, however, will be extended, and it is not a very bold prediction that within fifty years universal suffrage, with all its concomitant arrangements, will rule in England as throughout the rest of the civilized world. Moreover, it is at least a plausible conjecture that a wide franchise and equal electoral districts will, unless preceded by that kind of struggle which converts a constitutional reform into a social revolution, turn out little more than a change in political mechanism which but slightly affects the essential character of English politics. Meanwhile, it is certain that the democracy of Great Britain is, in fact, tempered by a large number of monarchical and aristocratic influences. The Crown and the House of Peers are much more than survivals of obsolete forms. They are both the symbol and the cause of the weight given in English society to ideas and feelings which are distinctly undemocratic. The regal democracy (if the term may be used) of Great Britain will for a long period, perhaps for ever, differ from the Federal democracy of America as truly as they each differ from the Republican and unitarian democracy of France. The conviction that English democratic rule will for a considerable time exhibit traits even now discernible by an impartial observer, is the very circumstance that gives interest to an analysis of the characteristics of a kind of popular rule which, whether it be termed a monarchy, an aristocracy, or a democracy, in fact differs considerably from any form of government hitherto known under any of these names.

The best features of the English electorate are, if recent transactions be taken as our guide, orderliness, conservatism, and sensibility to appeals addressed to the moral feelings. The good order or the perfect respect for law which has prevailed in England under great political excitement disposes at once of what one may call the "skull-and-cross-bones" view of democracy. As I have before pointed out, the terrors of the French Revolution misled both Conservatives and Democrats. From the end of the great war until at least 1850 respectable and intelligent Conservatives, whether termed Whigs or Tories, really believed with more or less vehemence that the rule of a democracy meant the rule of violence and disorder. Reformers adopted what was a form of the same belief. They thought that the excitement, the emotion, the threats, and the declamation which marked the revolution in France had a real connection with democratic reforms. It is difficult now, as one reads Justin MacCarthy's account of the Chartist agitation, not to smile at the misplaced conscientiousness with which mild and respectable democrats followed the theatrical tradition of the great French drama. They perorated, they held drills by night, they made torchlight processions, they convoked "conventions," and at least once menaced London with the threat of a monster meeting at a time when it is perfectly certain that violence and threats were in reality useless for any other purpose than to call forth invincible resistance. Democrats, such for example as that most gentle and pacific littérateur, Ernest Jones, misled both themselves and their opponents because they felt bound to drape themselves in revolutionary paraphernalia which had been little more than the accidents of the French movement. No doubt other circumstances, such as the distress of the poorer classes, which was ultimately relieved by free-trade, added to the violence which marked popular movements in England during the first half of the century; but a misleading tradition was at least half the cause of what was at bottom a political blunder. The accession of the democracy to power has, it may be hoped, finally broken the tradition of violence. Lord Beaconsfield outraged popular feeling; he kept together a Parliament which had ceased to represent the nation; the times were hard; yet for all this there has been perfect order from Land's End to John O'Groat's house. The electors took patience, bided their time, and at the proper moment dismissed his lordship from office.

It may be thought strange to speak of the "conservatism" of an electorate which has placed the Conservative party in a hopeless minority; yet the term, if properly understood, is appropriate. None of the traditions of English political sentiment have been broken by the mass of the Liberal party. An Englishman, with his love of privilege and his adherence to legal rights (which are only two developments of one and the same sentiment), is always a respecter of persons. An English radical loves a lord when he sees him, and does not object to tell him so to his face. Lord Hartington's undoubted straightforwardness and plain, good sense have been lauded as though honesty and discretion were to be found nowhere but in the House of Lords. Lord Ramsay's ingenuous blundering has secured him a seat at Liverpool. The Radicals of Leeds were so enamored with the name of Gladstone that when they could not get the father they at once petitioned for the son. The belief in what Burke calls "hereditary virtue" is as strong in 1880 as it was in 1780. The sentiment is most respectable. It lies at the foundation of the whole Whig policy. It is, however, a little too closely allied to snobbishness, and sometimes leads to inconvenient results: the predilection for hereditary virtue placed Rockingham at the head of a Cabinet from which Burke was excluded. At the present day it forces young Mr. Gladstone into a seat which might more properly have rewarded the intellectual services of Mr. Morley or the public-spirited self-sacrifice of Mr. Rathbone. Still, be the sentiment admired or be it blamed, it is in its very nature a conservative feeling,

which ensures that the English democracy will keep to the old lines of constitutional progress. In quite another direction the conservatism of democratic Liberalism is equally remarkable. High-Churchmen, philosophers, and friends of the workingman were, up to the time of this general election, convinced that the late Lord Derby had, by his Reform bill of 1868, "dished" not only the Whigs, as he boasted, but also the Dissenters. All the world now knows that this belief, plausible enough in itself, was unfounded. The Nonconformists formed the backbone of the resistance to Lord Beaconsfield. The contest was a fight between the sentiment of good society and the moral views of Dissenters. The clubs were pitted against the chapels, and the chapels won. English radicalism still remains, as it always has been, the party of the Dissenters. One of the most essential features of English political life has not been vitally affected by a change which was supposed to have swamped the votes of the shopkeepers by the votes of the workingmen.

Of the amenability of the English democracy to moral appeals one may say the less as it is the salient feature of the late elections. Mr. Gladstone's speeches were a series of sermons preached to that part of Great Britain where a taste for pulpit oratory is strongest; and though his diffuse oratory had many of the defects of addresses from the pulpit, it exactly hit its mark. The electors were convinced that the Government was, to speak plainly, a cabinet of liars. They were convinced, rightly or not, that in Africa and in India unjust ends had been pursued by immoral means. The apologists of Lord Beaconsfield may urge that the judgment of the constituencies was warped by sentiment and by a false view of the facts. For my present purpose I am willing to concede that the apology is just. My point is not that the English democracy judged rightly, but that the judgment of the electors was influenced mainly by obvious ordinary, one may perhaps add vulgar or commonplace, moral sentiments.

If a love of order, a conservative spirit, and a belief in the doctrines of ordinary morality as the guide of public life are the best features of the English electorate, its political weaknesses are at least equally discernible. The two traits which most alarm an impartial observer may perhaps be best described as inscrutability and changeableness. That the conduct of the constituencies could not be calculated upon beforehand even by the shrewdest observers is patent. Conservatives, till their defeat began, counted on an easy victory. Liberals did not two months ago venture to anticipate a triumph. London did not know the feeling of the country. Churchmen did not appreciate the influence of Nonconformists. Dissenting ministers understood the views of their own congregations, but were quite at sea as to the sentiments of artisans. One of the worst features of English society—the isolation of one class from another—became suddenly apparent. The voice of the nation was appealed to; no one knew what the utterance would be, and men who had been surprised by the Conservative reaction of 1874 were utterly astounded by the Liberal reaction of 1880. That the leaders of the nation, whether in Parliament or in the press, have ceased to understand the national sentiment, is obvious. An uncomfortable idea cannot but suggest itself that huge constituencies will slip out of the grasp of their leaders. Mr. Chamberlain is at hand to meet the difficulties of the situation by the introduction of the caucus and the whole system of party discipline connected therewith. American readers may doubt whether the defect to be met or the cure proposed be the worse evil.

The changeableness of democracies has passed into a proverb, and the three general elections since 1868 do not encourage the hope that stability of purpose will be a characteristic of the large constituencies which will in the long run rule England. The first election of the three made Mr. Gladstone a kind of dictator. The second was a rout of the Liberals which threatened to drive Mr. Gladstone from public life. The third has sent him back to office more powerful than ever. The explanation of these changes is probably not so much fickleness as the inevitable swaying to and fro of large bodies of men. People forget how comparatively narrow may be the numerical margin which divides the victors in an electoral campaign from the defeated. Observers are still more apt to forget the electors who habitually do not vote; yet these, if they are excited and come to the poll, always can and do occasionally turn the balance between contending parties. A writer who apparently admires democratic instability, or, rather, the kind of policy which results from it, describes truly enough one aspect of the general election:

"If parliamentary methods, their publicity, their freedom, their tendency to lag, are all hostile to a kind of policy that implies despatch, privacy, and the ready energy of personal resolution, so, too, is the power of wavering and instable constituencies as the ultimate arbiter of the action of a Government fatally incompatible with the new system of intervention and empire. This is the true reason why such a system, as a permanent innovation, is impossible in this country. If household suffrage had been the base of our representation between the French Revolution and the battle of Waterloo, does any one believe that the successive Governments of those long years would have been allowed to persevere in their warfare, first against the Republic, and then against the Empire?"

I am not absolutely certain that this enquiry ought to receive the answer which the writer in the *Fortnightly* clearly expects. Universal suffrage did not enfeeble the exertions of the North during the War of Secession, and an English democracy might perhaps struggle harder for existence, or even for empire, than philosophers or philanthropists might either expect or approve. Still, the enquiry raised suggests some serious reflections. An answer to it in the negative would force us to conclude that if England had a century ago become a democracy she would never have reached her destined greatness, and that, having become democratic, she will cease to be powerful. What, at any rate, is certain is that a country which owes half its power to the difficulty with which it can be assailed, and to the fact that it can, in a life-and-death struggle, hold on and bide its time, will lose half the advantages of an exceptional position if it loses that tenacity of purpose which alone can turn exceptional defensive strength to account. One need not be accused of the now odious crime of "Jingoism" simply because one looks with regret on anything which may diminish the power of the freest state in Europe. To any one who has thought over English habits and character the reflection inevitably occurs that, if a genuine democratic constitution prove incompatible with national greatness, it is by no means clear that Englishmen will not, by some of those curious devices by which they have again and again twisted forms into a certain conformity with fact, so twist or pervert even democratic institutions as to make them subservient to the power of the nation. A. V. Dicey.

THE MANUSCRIPTS OF SAINT-SIMON.

Paris, May 13.

No one can have seriously studied French history without having been smitten with a desire to read the unpublished manuscripts of Saint-Simon, and never in the annals of literature has there been recorded such a peculiar case of absurd secrecy as that in which these papers have been enveloped. On December 21, 1760, "an order of the king," countersigned "Choiseul," condemned the works of Saint-Simon to long years of imprisonment. On January 26, 1828, an order of Charles X. caused to be transmitted to General Saint-Simon the three volumes which, added to the four portfolios that were restored in 1819, completed the total restitution of the 'Mémoires.' On February 18, 1880, a formal order of M. de Freycinet, Minister of Foreign Affairs, authorized History for the first time to consult freely the manuscripts and different papers left by the great historian. This "order of the republic" which set free the papers that the "order of the king" had imprisoned more than a hundred years ago was looked upon as a veritable fête in the literary world, and a whole host of ardent historical students hastened to the archives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to consult the long-coveted documents. Amongst them was M. Édouard Drumont, an elegant and erudite writer, to whom has fallen the honor of editing Saint-Simon's famous 'Ambassade d'Espagne,' which has been so religiously concealed for more than a century. Besides the text of the 'Ambassade,' M. Drumont's book—which has just been published by Quantin, of Paris—contains a special introduction, and a general introduction giving the history of the manuscripts of Saint-Simon and of the author's own particular researches, which certainly form one of the most curious chapters of literary history and at the same time a striking instance of the stability of tradition in a country which has become proverbial for its tendency towards revolutions.

When the Duc de Saint-Simon died, on March 2, 1755, in his hôtel in the Rue de Grenelle, he was overwhelmed with debts. M. Grimperel, assisted by M. Delaléu, was charged with the liquidation of his affairs. With the furniture and other goods we are not concerned, but only with the manuscripts. Concerning these we find the following clause in Saint-Simon's will: "Je donne à mon cousin, Monsieur de Saint-Simon, évêque de Metz, tous mes manuscrits tant de main que d'autres et les lettres que j'ai gardées pour diverses raisons, desquelles je proteste qu' aucune ne regarde les affaires de mes biens et maisons." To the papers found in the Rue de Grenelle were added those found in Saint-Simon's château at La Ferté. The inventory of these papers was begun on June 2 and finished on July 2. It contained no less than one hundred and seventy-one numbers, to which

were to be added four others containing four hundred and ninety-three letters. Nothing would have seemed to be more natural than to have handed over all these papers to the bishop of Metz, the legatee mentioned by Saint-Simon. Unfortunately, a certain Gérardin, procurator of the syndicate of Saint-Simon's numerous creditors, opposed the delivery of the legacy in their name, and the manuscripts were consequently placed in security, until the question had been decided, in three large boxes, which were stowed away in the office of the notary, M. Delaleu. Lawsuits always last a long while; in the eighteenth century they were eternal. The bishop of Metz died on February 29, 1760, without being in possession of his legacy; and on the 21st of December, 1760, M. Delaleu received a visit from M. Le Dran, Chef du Dépôt of the Archives of Foreign Affairs, who presented to him the order of the king, countersigned "Choiseul," which we have mentioned above, and which commanded the immediate delivery of all the papers to M. Le Dran. Usually at the time of the death of important personages who had been mixed up in the affairs of state, this measure was put into execution immediately. In the case of Saint-Simon it was not carried out until after an interval of five years. Why? M. Armand Baschet, the pioneer in the discovery of Saint-Simon's papers, supposes, not without reason, that there was friendly negotiation, and that the seizure in question was an expedient to get rid of the obstinate claims which the creditors made to these manuscripts.

At any rate, it is here that the captivity of Saint-Simon's manuscripts begins, and at the same time the period of indiscretions and of truncated copies. The Abbé de Voisenon was the first who became acquainted with the long-concealed genius of the pamphleteer and the secret of his painfully-contained angers. Marmontel and Duclos, as historiographers of the realm, were authorized to consult the 'Mémoires,' and soon extracts were current everywhere. The same fate befell Louis XIV. then as has now befallen Napoleon I. "That society," says M. Drumont in his introduction, "which felt itself so small, loved to be talked to about that century which was already called the *grand siècle*. Abstraction being made of literary merit, it felt what we feel in reading the 'Mémoires' of Mme. de Rémusat—the desire to penetrate the intimate and human sides of that sovereign who, after the period of final outrages, had entered into a definitive apotheosis." Soulavie, in 1788, published three volumes in which the name of Saint-Simon figured for the first time—'Mémoires de M. le Duc de Saint-Simon, ou l'Observateur véridique sur le règne de Louis XIV. et sur les premières époques des règnes suivants.' The student will find in Brunet and in the new edition of Quérard's Dictionary, which has just been completed (Paris, 11 vols., Paul Daffis), full information concerning the successive editions of the 'Mémoires.' We are here only concerned with the manuscripts.

The last man to whom the manuscripts were communicated was Lemontey, who wrote his 'Histoire de la Régence' with the manuscripts under his eyes. In 1819 the General-Marquis de Saint-Simon obtained the manuscript of the 'Mémoires' from Louis XVIII. The director of the Archives, however, found means to delay the delivery, and it was not till 1828 that the 'Mémoires' were given up in full. This manuscript was bought for four thousand pounds by the house of Hachette, and it was from this text that the most original of French historians was at length revealed. The next revelation was the publication by the firm of Didot of Saint-Simon's annotations of Dangeau's Journal, which were copied while M. Mignet was director of the Archives. Since 1848 not a line of Saint-Simon has come out of the Archives. To quote M. Édouard Drumont's own words:

"Dating from that epoch the direction of the Archives was occupied by veritable maniacs. The term doubtless seems exaggerated and outside of the honeyed formulæ it is usual to adopt for all these questions; still it alone expresses the peculiar state of people who directed all the energy of their being towards one single object—to prevent History from entering the Archives. All that could be written on this subject is below the reality. One sub-director, M. Dumont, remained there thirty-three years, hiding himself like the hangman and forbidding the assistants to reveal where he was. Invisible, solitary, inaccessible to all, he shut himself up in order to distort the series, to create artificial classifications, to block up the roads which would have led workers somewhere, and to make culs-de-sac where there were broad avenues. He confused the diplomatic papers as one would confuse a dictionary by disarranging all the pages and the words. He worked with a knife, it is said; although he carried with him to the grave the secret of his mysterious operations, the terrible gashes in the documents which we have had in our hands seem rather to indicate the employment of a sort of bill-hook of extraordinary temper."

M. Drumont relates a dozen anecdotes illustrating the obstinacy with which the successive directors of the Archives have thrown obstacles in the way of workers and refused to communicate documents.

"It is impossible to imagine," he writes, "what these unfortunate men suffered in making others suffer. By the force of circumstances an authorization which it was out of the question to discuss was given from time to time by a Minister. That was a personal defeat for the Archives and the archivists, who had foolishly made it a point of honor to communicate nothing. They would elude it for a few weeks; they would have recourse to subterfuges unworthy of men in such a position; then they would be obliged to obey. Dreaming, like Père Sournois in the 'Petites Danaïdes,' that people were conspiring against their repose, these functionaries lived in a perpetual state of alarm."

M. Drumont has an easy task to draw a contrast between these ridiculous and empty-headed functionaries and what might be the situation of a director of Archives with a salary of twenty thousand francs for life, lodged in a palace, with fire, light, and service free. What a dream for a true man of letters! How far that dream is from realization may be judged from the experience of M. Drumont himself. Indeed, as years passed, the imprisonment of Saint-Simon grew more severe. A simple prisoner at first, with communications outside, he had, as M. Drumont says, been placed successively in solitary confinement and then plunged into a dungeon. The director, M. Faugère, who was at the head of the Archives from 1866 to February, 1880, is called by M. Drumont the Hudson Lowe of Saint-Simon. This gentleman, who has happily been placed upon the retired list, concealed almost all the unpublished papers of Saint-Simon in his own private apartments, and, like a dog in the manger, persisted for fourteen years in publishing nothing himself and allowing no one else even to consult, much less to print, anything. This state of affairs might have gone on for an indefinite length of time had not a singularly acute and ingenious student, M. Armand Baschet, taken in hand the question of the Saint-Simon papers. M. Baschet simply went to M. Rouget, the successor of Saint-Simon's notary, M. Delaleu, and discovered amongst the old papers in the office the very inventory which M. Le Dran had used when he came, by order of the king, to seize Saint-Simon's papers. There was no longer any mystery. M. Baschet published his volume on 'Saint-Simon et son Cabinet,' and thenceforward students had in their hands an exact catalogue of the riches which the archivists had so long concealed, or the existence of which they had denied. The curious now had a firm basis on which to work, for the Archives of Foreign Affairs had suffered no disturbance amidst all the revolutions. Installed at the Louvre in 1710, they had remained there fifty-three years; in 1763 they were transferred to Versailles; in 1792 they were brought back to Paris and placed first in the Hôtel Gallifet, then in the Hôtel Maurepas, and finally removed to the Quai d'Orsay, where they now are. It is singular that during none of the revolutions of this century did any literary man think of unearthing the manuscripts of Saint-Simon. During the Commune Paschal Grousset might have readily anticipated the laurels which M. Drumont has now gathered. But no; it seemed as if a fatality hung over Saint-Simon's papers.

One of the results of the publication of M. Armand Baschet's book was, that the Duc Decazes determined that the Archives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs should from that time be public; he even created a committee to consider applications and to grant authorizations. The execution of this liberal measure was entrusted to a man who was its mortal enemy. The Commission, composed for the most part of distinguished men, was animated by the most benevolent intentions; but in its ingenuity it forgot, at its first sitting, to fix any date for its meetings. In short, the Commission waited to be convoked, and the director, M. Faugère, whose acquaintance we have made above, allowed it to wait, and convoked it only at very rare intervals. Applications for manuscripts were sometimes left six months unanswered. Another melancholy spectacle might have been witnessed at the Archives in the year of grace 1876. Students who were engaged on documents anterior in date to April 10, 1713, went away joyous and proud when the library closed at four o'clock, while those who were interested in facts which took place after April 11, 1713, had to go like school-boys and submit their notes to the sub-director. These notes were kept, too, three or more months, and some have been found lately that were never returned at all. This derisory and humiliating formality, it must be remembered, was imposed on savants, on men of the highest learning and distinction, and all because it had been decided by somebody or other that any indiscretions after the peace of Utrecht were dangerous.

The accession of M. Waddington to office was not the signal for any change. Things remained in *statu quo*, and Saint-Simon continued to be

a prisoner. It was in vain that M. Léopold Delisle, the eminent librarian of the Bibliothèque Nationale, protested in the Institute of France against the obstinacy shown by a Dépôt de l'État "à soustraire à la légitime curiosité des hommes d'étude une partie considérable de l'œuvre de Saint-Simon." Finally, M. de Freycinet came into office; the cup of bitterness was full to overflowing, and when the new Minister was informed of the abuses he reformed them, or rather he tried to do so. M. Faugère was placed on the retired list, and on February 18, 1880, Saint-Simon, who had been sequestrated since December 21, 1760, was at length set at liberty in principle. But here comes the episode and moral of our tale. For five weeks M. Drumont was allowed to work freely and without interference, and during that time he was able to prepare his first volume and to discover the terrible state of disorder in which the Archives of Foreign Affairs are plunged, and the shameful way in which documents have been lost, abstracted, mutilated, or destroyed. Up to the end of March the employés at the Archives were unusually obsequious. Then the atmosphere began to thicken; the director, M. Guéroult, had felt the pulse of the Minister and had probably found him less persistent in his firmness than was supposed. In short, he began to talk of the traditions of the establishment, and M. Drumont was referred to the Commission which had been recently reconstituted. This Commission, composed of Republicans, partisans of every kind of progress, liberally granted the authorization *to make extracts* from an author who died March 2, 1755, but was opposed to the publication of any *complete document!* As M. Drumont remarks, such restrictive measures are really powerless; he might have continued to copy all the manuscripts that he wished, for the archivists would not have ventured to place a policeman behind his chair. He disdained, however, these paltry means and ceased his researches. He mentions the fact in his introduction only in order to complete the history of Saint-Simon's manuscripts, "a history," he says, "which could only have taken place in a country like France, where the need of tyrannizing somebody is innate in the heart of the young citizen who can scarcely utter a cry, and whose eyes have not yet been opened to the light." This language is all the more impressive as coming from a Frenchman; but that it is not without justification will be admitted by all who have had any experience of French officialism. As it is, Saint-Simon is once more a prisoner to all intents and purposes.

T. C.

Correspondence.

OTHER TYPES OF THE "AMERICAN GIRL."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An article on "The American Girl," chiefly as a future element in fiction, appeared in the *Nation* of April 8 (No. 771), and, touching on the two or three novelists who have made skilful or sympathetic use of this element, went on to describe as far as possible the type, or approach to a type, of the American girl. Concerning some of these statements, which appear to have been the result of practical observation and were expressed in an unprejudiced and trustworthy way, there are one or two remarks to make. One naturally thinks of the English girl in connection with this subject; the familiar type without which English novels could not be written, and which has almost become—at least to the outside novel-reading world—a national type. But contrasting the English with the American "girl," it is necessary to remember that the former invariably, or nearly so, belongs to one class—*i.e.*, of those conventionally called ladies. Dickens's girls stand apart as almost the only strongly accentuated portraits of girls of the English lower classes, and they differ a good deal from the received "English" type. When one comes to descant on the American girl, one is forced into the undemocratic confession that classes do exist in America, though less well defined than in Europe, and never openly acknowledged except by the lucky ones at the "top of the tree." The girl sketched in the article in question, though of superficial mental acquirements and often defective education, must belong to a class above that of the majority of working-girls, in order to have for objects of ambition such accomplishments as these: "to know a Corot or a Boldini when they see it, to tell a Japanese vase from a Chinese; to be familiar with the names of different orchestral instruments, with the controversy between Mr. Tyndall and Dr. Martineau, and so on. . . ." It is a comfort, however, to remember that there are hundreds of nice, cultivated, refined girls who know nothing of Corot and Boldini, ignorantly admire any pretty vase without a knowledge of its origin, and do not care about classical music; frankly, and yet not boastfully, acknowledging their ignorance.

The author of the article in question thinks the chief drawback to the type struggling into being is self-consciousness, self-assertion, the vehement desire to be of conspicuous account as a "person." Now, this mental attitude destroys repose of manner and checks the development of the charm that for ages has been thought especially womanly. American girls in Europe are generally of this kind—aggressive, morbidly sensitive, and, in consequence, uncertain, odd, and fitful in their ways. They are determined to live by their own standard in the midst of a society constituted on a different basis, and are keenly alive to the disparaging opinions which this clashing of social standards necessarily involves among Europeans. Like the English free-traders, who have not yet succeeded by their example in teaching the rest of the world the wisdom and expediency of their principle, American girls in Europe have not yet converted Europeans, especially European men, to believe in the absolute and intrinsic purity of their social system. The sceptical man of the Old World still amuses himself with the daring American girl, but, as a rule, does not respect her, and should he go too far with her is as genuinely surprised as she at the untoward break-up of their friendship. That any real breach of virtue is the exception, and a rare one, tells well for the future type of American womanhood. It is, I think, incontestable, that American girls of all classes are singularly free from impurity, especially when it is borne in mind how the restraints on their conduct are hardly more than instincts, traditions, and race-tendencies, and seldom have the strength of religion to support them. Girls respect themselves and take care of themselves out of natural, instinctive perception of what is right, and perhaps a vague knowledge that one of the Ten Commandments enforces this duty on them. But this much being granted, it must be admitted that American girls often lack graces and charms peculiarly womanly, and, contrasted with girls whose whole training is devoted to perfecting these even at the expense of true worth, the social boldness of the American female character sometimes comes out in unpleasant relief. Perhaps, however, we are more interested in the study of our girls as they appear at home, among surroundings familiar and congenial to them. The few times when they appear at their worst is when some recognized foreign "catch" comes in their way, but that is accidental.

The writer in the *Nation* dwells on the recentness, comparatively speaking, of the type which he calls specially *the* American girl. "Twenty or thirty years ago she did not exist, even in New England, and in Indiana it is doubtful if she exists to-day." New England, even at present, with the exception of Boston, does not produce the kind of girl he means. New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, and the suburbs that contain two-thirds of the "society" of those cities, show the most perfect specimens of the girl he has in his mind. Rural neighborhoods as yet could hardly understand his "girl"; the old type of buxom housekeeper, wife, and mother is the ideal still received, though sadly departed from; the rarer, and yet often discoverable, specimens of New England country average womanhood are best typified in Mr. Howells's heroine, Lydia Blood, of South Bradfield, Mass. Indiana, certainly, and many other Western and Southwestern States, do not possess the American girl referred to in the article. Their products are more matured, less sophisticated, though, as Eggleston has proved, by no means uninteresting in fiction. The wild, headstrong, powerful, uneducated girl of the poor white class in the West and Southwest is, indeed, a far more characteristic element in fiction, and a more interesting, though to some less attractive, study than the girl of the older, civilized States, the American transcript of European social cultivation. In a word, the author's "girl" is nearly an exotic, almost a foreign growth grafted on American society, and therefore rather to be curiously observed than admired. The genuine "girls" of the United States are not self-conscious, because the majority, at least, have little knowledge of any other life than their own, little longing to imitate other states of society, little ambition to go to college and otherwise distinguish themselves. The rising type spoken of by the author is confined to a few of the older and more aspiring Atlantic cities, where also exists a knot of women of lower class and narrower opportunities who are yet afflicted with a hankering after impossibilities and a spurious standard of education. One sort of girl very easily found all over the country is the girl of the middle class, the daughter of an independent farmer, fisherman, mechanic, etc., who starts on her own account, and saves a little money by school-teaching or "helping" in families, as a preparatory step to marriage. Certainly one-fourth, if not more, of the female population, excepting those in easy circumstances,

have gone through this stage, which fact, by the way, explains the extreme inefficiency, as a rule, of both school-teachers and "help."

The schooling afforded by the average schools of the country is another thing which must be touched upon. It is lamentably inadequate for every useful and practical purpose in life, and in this, which boasts so loudly of being *the* foremost educational country in the world, we cannot but be ashamed of the shortcomings which we know so well by experience. It is very well to flourish in the face of Europe a few facts undeniable in their letter—though the spirit is very different—and point to a few exceptional principles seldom acted on; we know—that is, every one who looks deeper for information than to a patriotic oration or a local school-report knows—how practically inferior our school system is to the German, and how unworthy it is of this country. The girls that our schools assist in creating (the influence of the school is only one among many forces) must necessarily be somewhat crude products, unless home influences of a very superior kind counteract the belittling influence of the school. The German girl—a type so different from the more dazzling English one that people often associate the term "dowdy" with that of German—is specially moulded by home. She is intensely domestic, perhaps exaggeratedly so, but the principle on which she is brought up is sound: truth is the foundation of her education; neither English accomplishments nor American culture is the aim of her studies, but the very ideal of becoming a necessity to her future husband brings in its train many an unobtrusive straining after higher mental developments. Her mind is more cultivated than she gets credit for, seeing that her visible avocations are chiefly domestic. To my mind a German wife is nearer the ideal wife than the average woman of any other country. A kind of domestic equality exists in Germany in spite of the almost wearisome and futile outward class distinctions; a woman's character is held in as high honor in one class as in another—that is, it is seldom that a nobleman thinks differently of the virtue of a peasant-girl than he does of that of his wife or sister. In England this can scarcely be said to be the case; in France, Italy, and Spain the same. A domestic equality such as this is the most valuable correction of many theoretical abuses, and no doubt has much to do with the simple dignity of every German woman.

It is useless to "lament over the good old times" and their ideal once prevalent in America; we can only make the best of changed conditions, and take comfort in the assurance that, after all, human beings are much the same at bottom in one century as in another, and that no matter how strong the tide may set in the direction of certain social "shibboleths," the broad fact of womanhood, its tendencies, duties, and aims, remains much as nature made it ages ago. It is only "twenty per cent." after all, as the *Nation* remarked last year, during the controversy about "Women's Education and its Ends," that want to become anything but wives and mothers, while the other eighty speedily forget in practical duties the "fads" that stamped them as "American girls" or would-be exceptions of any kind. All the real and legitimate progress that women have made let them keep and increase; nothing can stifle it, not even the folly of professional agitators; we can be as useful as our grandmothers, even though we are more intellectual, for wisdom advises one to keep all the old possessions as well as the new—otherwise the change would not be progress, but only substitution. By and by, American girls, if not of the writer's kind, yet of a kind different to the untrained but capital raw material of Indiana, etc., will come into being, and none the less quickly for being stimulated by the example of a girl *not* wrapped up in Japanese vases and French pictures. The type that is confessedly at present the most advanced ought to change for the better, grow more natural, riper, steadier, and womanly, before it becomes the ideal according to which other types will try to shape themselves into permanent being.

B. M.

Notes.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & CO. have published a tasteful volume of 'Ballads and Lyrics,' selected and arranged by Henry Cabot Lodge, and designed for youth of twelve to eighteen, whether at school or at home. Its first object is to interest, which it will hardly fail to do; its next, to cultivate the taste, and the compiler's discrimination ensures this also. It is a pity that Emerson should not appear in an introduction to the higher poetry. Mr. Palgrave's definition of a "lyric" would, we think, have admitted him here.——Dodd, Mead & Co. have gathered up into a volume of holiday elegance the papers by the Rev. E. P. Roe on 'Success with Small Fruits,' which have been running through *Scribner's Monthly* during the past few months. Considerable additions have been made, and the rare quality of the engravings has been honored with special care in printing.——Henry Holt & Co. announce 'German Thought'—from the Seven Years' War to Goethe's death—being Prof. Karl Hillebrand's six lectures before the Royal Institution of Great Britain.——Harper & Bros. have in press 'Historical Studies of Church-building in the Middle Ages—Venice, Siena, Florence,' by Prof. Charles Eliot Norton; and the 'Life and Letters of Horace Bushnell.'——'Pottery Decoration,' by M. Louise McLaughlin, will shortly be published by Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati.——'Dramatic Life as I Found It'—in the Mississippi Valley—by N. M. Ludlow; a 'Private Chapter of the War (1861–5),' by G. W. Bailey; and 'Literary Studies from the Great British Authors,' by Horace H. Morgan, will be published this month by G. I. Jones & Co., St. Louis.——The latest of the Rhode Island series of Personal Narratives of Events in the War of the Rebellion is 'A Country Boy's First Three Months in the Army,' by C. Henry Barney. It ends with the capture of Newbern.——Part X. of Dr. George Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians' (Macmillan) opens with Mozart, but is noticeably meagre in personal articles—Nägeli, Nilsson, Ludwig Nohl, and Offenbach being among the few. On the other hand, it has several technical articles of extreme importance—above all, *Notation*, which is as interesting as it is elaborate, though we think the attempts to reform the present method are, historically speaking, too lightly dismissed. Another long and valuable article, unfinished, is *Opera*. Under *Musical Libraries* we learn that the only collections in this country worthy of mention are to be found in New England, viz., those of the Harvard Musical Association, of the Harvard College Library, the Boston Public, and, at Yale, of the College Library proper and the library of the Theological Department (Lowell Mason's bequest). Under *Musical Periodicals* the recently established New York *Musical Review* is mentioned with praise. Under *Music-Printing* we have a facsimile of the oldest English specimen, by Wynken de Worde. A table of the *Niederrheinische Musikfest* performances from 1818 to 1880 is given under that title. The Old Hundredth Tune is traced to the Genevan Psalter of 1551, and ascribed in its present form to Louis Bourgeois. Our common designation of the tune as "Old Hundred" is surmised to be a transplanted provincialism.——The May number of the *Magazine of American History* would be well filled if it contained only Captain R. M. Potter's account of the battle of San Jacinto, and Mr. John Austin Stevens's description of the battle of Harlem Plains, in opposition to the views recently put forth in Mrs. Lamb's 'History of New York City.' Captain Potter hardly goes too far when he puts San Jacinto in the causal chain which ends at Gettysburg. A portrait of Santa Aña and numerous maps add much to the worth of this number.——In connection with the nineteenth annual meeting of the National Education Association, the Spelling Reform Association will meet at Chautauqua, on July 15 and 16.——We have for several years recorded the annual publication of the several French theatrical year-books, and are glad now to be able to welcome a well-made German rival. Herr Joseph Kürschner has published a *Jahrbuch für das deutsche Theater* (N. Y.: F. W. Christern), which seeks to do for the German drama what the 'Almanach des Spectacles' does for the French. But the German work is far more elaborate than any of its French predecessors. The second annual issue of Herr Kürschner's book, covering the time from October 1, 1878, to September 30, 1879, is even fuller than the first; it is a model of Teutonic exhaustiveness. In the list of new plays we find the German version of the ubiquitous "H.M.S. *Pinafore*," done at the Germania in this city, and one of the equally ubiquitous "Onkel Tom's Hütte," acted throughout Germany with American "camp-meeting" negro singers.

—Our readers interested in art will perhaps have noticed, last week, in our columns an advertisement of the Harvard Art Club announcing the issue of a series of mezzotints by Mr. Charles H. Moore, the well-known, admirable instructor in drawing in Harvard College. The work is of so novel a description, in this country at least, and the method of engraving adopted by Mr. Moore has been so little used of late years in Europe, that the proposed plates deserve the attention of all amateurs of engraving and students of design. Turner's 'Liber Studiorum' is the great work in the style of engraving (mingled etching and mezzotint) employed by Mr. Moore, and all persons familiar with its noble plates must have wondered why a method capable of producing such magnificent results should be so neglected. It is an excellent thing that Mr. Moore, with his delicate artistic sense and thorough training, should make a new experiment of this method in the rendering of his remarkable

designs. The Harvard Art Club deserves to be encouraged in the work it has undertaken of bringing these works before the public for the benefit of Mr. Moore.

—The art of engraving in mezzotint is, indeed, one which ought to be more widely appreciated. By means of it finished effects of light and shade may be rendered with an economy and directness not otherwise attainable. The mezzotint ground, which is gained by roughening the surface of a steel or copper plate with a finely-toothed rocking-tool, will yield any degree of even shade that may be desired, while lights and gradations are obtained by smoothing down this roughened surface with scraper and burnisher. An objection to pure mezzotint consists in the difficulty of attaining clear definition of form by means of it. It also will not give lines of precision and sharpness. But this defect is overcome by resort to etching for the lines that need to be sharply drawn. The two processes are naturally complementary—each supplying what the other lacks—and both are eminently fitted to be practised by artists. The right use of the etching-point demands an artist's power of drawing and design; and the process of mezzotinting is closely allied to that of painting. The production of highly-finished works by line engraving involves such vast expenditure of labor that artists cannot afford to employ the method; nor does etching furnish the means of perfect expression of light and shade without a very wasteful amount of work. As a general principle a point of any kind is properly an instrument of delineation simply, while the brush, or other broad instrument, is the proper tool for finished effects of chiaroscuro. It is always pleasant to see the natural capabilities of any process or material clearly recognized, and their limitations frankly manifest. The confusion resulting from the trespass of one art or method upon the province of another—as in the over-elaboration of many modern etchings—is very great; and it is highly desirable that such trespassing should cease, by the use of a method of engraving in which there can be no temptation to it.

—Mr. F. W. Christern sends us the second Illustrated Catalogue of the Salon, for the present year, edited by F. G. Dumas (Paris: Motteroz). It is a curiosity of book-making in this respect, that with its 350 sketches of paintings and statuary by the artists themselves it was ready on the opening of the Salon, May 1, in spite of the inevitable delays up to the very eve of that event. Of these sketches there are two consolidated series, the second having been undertaken independently of the first, and, on the whole, being less successful; but the scale is generally larger, and occasionally one meets with helpful repetitions of the whole or of fragments of canvases already reproduced in the first series. The illustrations are of all degrees of suggestiveness and artistic effect, and are achieved by a notable variety of mechanical processes; for the most part they fill the entire page. A few portraits have an exceptional interest—President Grévy's, for one, and some few of the fair sex. "Washington taking leave of his Mother" is the subject of a good-sized picture by Braader. As the overgrown exhibition (according to the list which precedes these samples) numbers 6,743 pieces, we have here but about a twentieth of the sum total; but probably it fairly represents the average, and is at all events a souvenir which is sure of public favor.

—In the *Contemporary Review* for May, Mrs. Sutherland Orr writes sensibly and appreciatively, though betraying, at times, a certain want of literary perspective, about "The International Novelists and Mr. Howells"; and the article is worth reading, if for no other reason, on account of the incidental remarks on what the British public expects, or fails to find, in American society and literature. "While American novels have played their part in the literary pleasures of the present generation," says Mrs. Orr, "the interest they have excited has been more deep than wide, and more selective than critical. . . . We have welcomed the stream of American fiction only when it has come to us filtered through European associations, or bringing with it some element of weird fancy or sensational fact." We pass over many shrewd remarks on the general truth and occasional incorrectness of Mr. Howells's views of society and life, since we have room only for Mrs. Orr's views on international novels in general, which are not altogether favorable:

"It may be urged that in thus employing the peculiarities of the English character as foils to what he naturally regards as the higher or more genial qualities of his own nation, Mr. Howells does only what is sanctioned by the practice of both, and that we have no right to resent it. We have certainly the less right to resent in his case, that we do not in that of Mr. Henry James, whose experience of England has been more direct than his, while his social and intellectual qualities have brought him into contact with everything that is best in English life. . . . But neither international sympathy nor international justice can be promoted by a system which ignores our neighbor's merits, and gives prominence to his faults, however impartially those faults may be drawn. . . . Our typical American is a conventional being, made up of tricks of manner and oddities of expression gleaned on Atlantic steamers and in European hotels. Our fancy never reaches the heart of American life. . . . But American fancy does reach the heart of ours. It lays bare our middle-class stupidity; our aristocratic silliness; the intellectual commonplace so closely intertwined with the roots of our moral being; and in doing this, and this only, it discredits the traditions of social and moral culture which our very commonplaces represent."

A somewhat amusing passage in Mrs. Orr's article describes the picture of Boston projected upon her mind by the two "international" novelists, and will perhaps strengthen the impression which is, we believe, common in that city, that Mr. Howells is not a good judge of the local culture:

"We are accustomed to think of it," she says, "as a sober, dignified city, with some patriotic memories, some Puritan traditions, and a high standard of culture. But we now discover that, in addition to its more serious orthodoxies, it has a code of fashion at once the admiration and the ridicule of the non-Bostonian mind; that its patriotism owns nothing in common with a place no further removed than the extremity of New York State; that it unites the dignity of a capital with the narrowness of a country town; and that the English element in its society supplies all that is most self-important and most narrow."

—The Atlanta *Constitution* alone among our exchanges makes a practice of giving, under the heading of "Georgia in Congress," a weekly summary of the doings of the State's Senators and Representatives at the national capitol. The utility of such a record, even when unaccompanied by comment, is too obvious to need pointing out. But how many great reputations would have been nipped in the bud by such an exposure of absence from Congress, inattention to business, indifference to the highest welfare of the constituency, lack of knowledge and principles, and general windiness in debate, with a strict account of the member's voting or dodging on important issues. A yearly or semi-annual posting of the register would give us a true "statesman's progress," and would be worth the salary of a special editor. Is there not, by the way, a closer watch kept on their Congressmen at the South than at the North, for reasons not wholly sectional?

—The eighth annual report of the Visiting Committee for Bellevue and other public hospitals in this city opens with a review of the improvements in these institutions since 1872. But the committee are unable to point to any change in the system of management because all the conditions are averse to any system. As always, in our State and municipal administrations, the root of the evil is political. The Commissioners of Charities and Corrections "usually enter upon office entirely unfamiliar with their duties, having been previously engaged in political and civil pursuits." The manager of a hospital, however desirous to profit by his experience, "is hampered by the appointment through political influence of inefficient and often intemperate subordinates, whom he cannot discharge, and who do not respect him because they know that it is from outside pressure alone that they are appointed or discharged." Moreover, there is no division of responsibility, and the simplest alterations or improvements in the buildings—like putting up a few shelves, or introducing a bell, or ordering a few arm-chairs—cannot be authorized by the wardens, but must be referred to the three Commissioners, at the cost of certain delay and frequent total neglect. The Committee have a good deal to say in criticism of recent and proposed extensions of Bellevue, the planning of which "reflects great discredit upon the architect and the Commissioners"; and they intimate jobbery in the construction on account of what seems to them the excessive expense incurred. Various deficiencies are also pointed out in the Island hospitals, but also some marked advances, as in the greater surveillance now kept over the ward assigned to fallen girls in the Charity Hospital. The Committee acknowledge the assistance rendered to their work by the editors of the daily press, who have sent reporters to examine into the condition of hospitals and county poor-houses—an inspection sometimes resented as if a personal affront by even "intelligent managers of corporate charities," who forget that their trusts are public, and not private.

—The Germans of Buffalo have been incidentally commemorated in Johnson's 'Centennial History of Erie County,' but they have lately formed the exclusive theme of an address delivered in that city by Mr. Ismar S. Ellison, on April 27, before the local Historical Society, and printed subsequently in the Buffalo *Courier*. It is so interesting a sketch that we cannot doubt its ultimate appearance in a more enduring shape. Mr. Ellison says that the German population of Buffalo is estimated at from 60,000 to 75,000; in the year 1878 the Board of Health reported 3,729

births, of which 1,985 were of German parentage, 1,079 of American, 345 of Irish, 218 of English and Scotch, and 102 of sundry European. The earliest German settler came from his Pennsylvania kindred in 1821, and it was not till 1827 that immigrants began to arrive in groups, when a steady influx marked each decade up to the eve of the war. Since then only straggling accessions have occurred. The South-Germans were first on the spot; not till 1839 did any considerable number of Prussians reach Buffalo. Mr. Ellison names some of the more eminent German citizens in the various walks of life, and adds this censure of a work whose inherent difficulties he perhaps does not fully appreciate: "The spirit of historical justice has to protest against the panegyrizing of simple German office-hunters and successful office-holders, as has been done by Governor Gustav Koerner in his work, 'The German Element in America, from 1818 to 1848,' just published." Mr. Ellison makes a strong argument for the necessity and utility of the German press—the only means by which the humbler class of immigrants can be instructed in the duties of citizenship, and maintain an intellectual connection with the land of their birth. The German Buffalonian has not lacked for journals in his own tongue. The flourishing German Young Men's (Literary) Society, founded in 1841, is the only one of its kind in the country. In the public schools since 1868 German has formed a regular part of the instruction.

—An obituary notice of the late Michel Chevalier, read by Mr. Moncure Robinson last month before the American Philosophical Society in Philadelphia, merits a larger circulation than it is likely to have in its privately printed form. Mr. Robinson had the good fortune to make the acquaintance of M. Chevalier on his visit to this country in 1833, and to retain his friendship and continue in correspondence with him up to the day of his death. He also saw him abroad in his own home, with his mother and sister Pauline, and younger brother Martial, and the details he gives of his domestic life have a rare attractiveness. M. Chevalier came of a gifted family, being the oldest of five sons, of whom three others achieved distinction in the civil and consular and engineer service. The foundation of his own education was scientific, in the School of Mines, and after an interval of journalism as a disciple of Saint-Simon, which cost him six months' imprisonment, he was commissioned by Thiers, then Minister of Public Works, to visit the United States, and inspect our modes of transportation and our financial systems. This mission may almost be said to be still fresh in the minds of Americans, at least locally. It gave rise to letters to the *Débats*, afterwards collected in two volumes, and to an elaborate report on the subjects of his investigation (1840). An economic mission to England followed, then various posts of honor; in 1841, at the age of thirty-five, the professorship of political economy in the Collège de France, which he retained to the end of his days; and, in 1860, a senatorship. The famous commercial treaty of that year, negotiated by Cobden with the Emperor Napoleon, is ascribed to M. Chevalier by his son-in-law, who says it was his conception, and that he took the initiative by visiting Cobden and Bright. The former gave his assent after some hesitation, but he has had perhaps the lion's share of the glory of the achievement. The treaty has lasted twenty years against all attacks. Mr. Robinson, with a natural deference to the protectionist traditions of the city in which his notice was read, remarks how far Chevalier fell short of being a "*reckless* free-trader." The reflection will probably arise that, these qualifications being admitted, M. Chevalier's career would, nevertheless, have been impossible in this country. He would have lacked here the training, and his acquirements would have won him neither public respect nor office. His last ambition was to complete the tariff union of the once hostile nations by building the tunnel under the Channel, and he was the projector of the company of which we have heard so much. One child is mentioned as surviving him, Mme. Paul Leroy Beaulieu.

—'Histoire du Servage, ancien et moderne,' is a volume of 611 pages, by A. Tourmagne, published last winter in Paris (Guillemin). It is an interesting sketch of this important chapter of history, but is far from being exhaustive or adequate. The "ancient" portion, for example, is dismissed in nine pages, and the modern portion is wholly devoted to France with the exception of a *Complément* of seventy-seven pages. We should have no fault to find with this proportion if the history of serfdom in France were itself fully treated from a scientific point of view; for the complete history of the institution in one nation would be more instructive than a superficial sketch covering a wider ground. But the fact is that the whole book is superficial—not to use this word in a disparaging sense. Its method is rather literary than scientific, and the really difficult and recondite points are passed over with very little attention. The book is therefore of little value to the student, containing hardly anything that is not already familiar. It is, however, so well written, in so liberal and humane a spirit, that it may be recommended to those who wish for only a general sketch. It follows the best French authorities, such as Coulanges and Guérard—German writers like Sugenheim and Hanssen do not appear to have been consulted—and may be depended upon to give a good presentation of their views. At the same time the writer has evidently gone to the original authorities, even if not in any very extended study, and the general history which fills up half the book, and is mere "padding" to the student, will be acceptable to the general reader. The author appears to be a Protestant, but has made the strange mistake (p. 186) of attributing the insurrection of Wat Tyler to the influence of "Wickleff." A valuable feature of the book is the numerous illustrative extracts, not in the original, but in translations.

BRANDES'S 'BEACONSFIELD.'*

THE political and literary life of Lord Beaconsfield extends over a long period of time. To the present generation a considerable portion of it seems to belong to the domain of history rather than to that of contemporary biography. An air of mystery and remoteness hangs about the earlier events of his career which piques the curiosity and fancy; and the effect of this stimulant is heightened by the fact that the lack of information has fostered the growth of a Disraeli mythus or legend which greatly transfigures and ennobles the somewhat humble origin of the late Prime Minister. His admirers, among whom must be counted Herr Brandes, have no aversion, but rather a liking, for the pleasant twilight of these legendary days. His hostile critics, such as the clever author of "The Political Adventures of Lord Beaconsfield," which appeared in the *Fortnightly Review* two or three years since, have endeavored to let in the garish light of day upon them and expose him to public view as little better than a common Jew adventurer. Neither side has quite succeeded, and Lord Beaconsfield may still claim the distinction of being, if not an awful, at least an interesting figure. The interest is of such a nature that he cannot but greatly enjoy it himself. The only thing really known about Lord Beaconsfield's ancestry is that his grandfather's name was Benjamin d'Israeli, and that he came to England in the time of George II. from that undiscovered country from which so many distinguished Jews have come, but the exact locality of which is rarely ascertained till long after the period of emigration. In this case it turned out to be Venice. With this starting point, it was not difficult to guess that the D'Israelis must have come to Venice during the existence of the Venetian Republic; and, as they must have come from somewhere, it is not unpleasant to believe that they came from Spain. What strongly confirms this is that many Jewish families were compelled to leave Spain toward the end of the fifteenth century by the Inquisition, and also that the name of D'Israeli is not Spanish, as it would have been had the family remained in Spain. Doubt has been thrown upon this tradition because no evidence to support it has ever been brought forward. But Lord Beaconsfield is thought by many persons to believe it, and, following him, Herr Brandes believes it. It is a peculiarity of the mind of Lord Beaconsfield that facts, as such, have no attraction for him, and, indeed, in a career in which most of the facts have all the unreality of fable, it is almost inevitable that a confusion between the two should arise. There is nothing more inherently improbable in the Venetian myth than there is in the undoubted fact that at one period of his career Mr. Disraeli was the leader of a political party one of the objects of which was to revive, in an intensely practical age and in the most rigidly exclusive aristocracy in Europe, those Arcadian relations between the upper and lower classes which had never existed anywhere in the world except in the imagination of poets; nor that at a later day, after years spent in demonstrating that the Tories were the true and original free-traders, he should suddenly have made himself the leader of that party in the House of Commons as an extreme protectionist.

Herr Brandes's "study" is an elaborate attempt to reconcile the earlier and later episodes of Lord Beaconsfield's career as parts of a consistent whole. He seems to think that he has found the explanation of the riddle in the theory that his professions of reverence for the crown and love of the people are both sincere, and that he is really what he would himself call a constitutional "Tory-Radical." There is no denying that much might be said for this view if there were any evidence that Lord Beacons-

* 'Lord Beaconsfield: A Study. By Georg Brandes. Authorized translation by Mrs. George Sturge.' New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1880.

field has any constitutional principles of any kind. But if Herr Brandes were better versed in English constitutional history he would know that Mr. Disraeli's view of the development of English institutions, as put forward by him from time to time, is not only different from that of all Englishmen but is inconsistent with itself and often even unintelligible. His hatred of the Whigs has, indeed, been consistent and genuine from the beginning, and he has in a certain sense always been a Conservative since his entrance upon political life. But there is a great deal of truth in what his *Fortnightly* critic says with regard to his confusion of the English with the Venetian state system: "To him the British aristocracy are Venetian magnificoes; the sovereign is a doge whom an oligarchy has enslaved. George III. was a sort of Marino Faliero, who struggled against the bondage by which an usurping oligarchy fettered him, and in the struggle, which has Lord Beaconsfield's intense sympathy, forfeited not his life but his reason." This fantastic notion is not a bad illustration of the peculiar results produced upon Lord Beaconsfield's mind by his studies of English history.

Herr Brandes's mistake is that he treats Lord Beaconsfield as a serious politician, with a definite political object to accomplish. His career has been essentially the career of a foreign adventurer, who has made the best use of the passions and prejudices of the people with whom accident has thrown him to obtain power, distinction, and place. He is not a man of ideas. In fact, he has never had any ideas on any subject except those suggested by the necessity of the moment. He has never had any sympathy either with the great Liberal movement which has during the last fifty years worked such gigantic changes in English society and politics, or with that great intellectual movement which in his own lifetime has revolutionized science; and even as a literary man his style betrays the effect of none of those influences which have given English letters since Wordsworth's time a new birth. He knows nothing, or next to nothing, of law, of science, of history, of political economy. But when novels are in demand he is able to produce tales in any fashion, from a pure love-story to a political satire; if constitutional doctrine is needed, he can invent a constitutional theory as easily as a composer can score a waltz; if political economy is required, he knows how to be a free-trader with the free-traders or a protectionist with the protectionists. Such versatility is perhaps incompatible with fundamental beliefs and principles. To this, however, there is one exception. As Herr Brandes points out, Lord Beaconsfield has one real conviction, and it is a most characteristic one: it is, that man is governed, not by his reason but by his imagination and his feelings. It is a corollary of this conviction that true statesmanship consists in playing upon those feelings and imaginations. Herr Brandes dwells upon the fact that Disraeli had no university training, and thinks that his want of respect for learning comes from that early deficiency:

"In consequence of this the germs of fantasy and paradox which were in his mind were in conditions only too favorable for growth. This also opened the way for a curious, half-developed mysticism, a taste for the mysterious and emotional, a curious preference for all unscientific knowledge and ideas, if they have any historical or practical value, which are opposed to reason. This is the explanation of Disraeli's employment of the conjuring formulæ of the Cabbala as machinery in 'Alroy'; of his general habit of describing secret societies as potent forces in history. If, in the course of a story, he can conceal himself behind some mysterious apparatus, it has more interest for him than the idea which underlies a cause or an action. When he is writing of Jews, he represents them as connected together all over the world as by a kind of free-masonry. When he is describing workmen, he loves best to present them in long robes, with masks on their faces, ranged around a skeleton; initiating a novice into a trades-union by some hocuspocus, as was the custom in the Holy Vehm in mediæval Germany. He has described more than one of the secret societies of European democracy, with profound appreciation of the power exercised by them by means of some half-intelligible watchword; and through nearly all his works there runs a lively admiration of the Roman Catholic Church, with its active organization, mystical doctrines, magical means, and practical ends. With what pride he has referred to the fact, in more than one of his writings, that there were Jews among the first Jesuits, and how he respects the intelligence and power of the Jesuits. One asks involuntarily whether he has half as much respect for all the philosophy and natural science of Europe put together, and feels that he regards a meeting of scientific men as of far less importance than a meeting of fanatical conspirators."

This is very true, and it is this contempt for human reason that explains much that would be otherwise inexplicable. It is something very different from an honest scepticism. It is based upon a profound disbelief in all those forces of human society a trust in which to most people makes life worth living. It involves, of course, an indifference to truth, for the use of reason is to arrive at truth, and it is hardly possible to despise the means without despising the end as well. Psychologically, this may be said to be Disraeli's secret, and Herr Brandes has been, we believe, the first to discover it and state it in terms.

But while this explains his career, it does not explain the success of his career, for, although just now suffering from a severe reverse, his career has been more than ordinarily successful. He has made himself the leader of a great historical party, and obtained all those substantial material rewards which such a leadership in England brings with it. As an author he is popular; as a statesman he has had a hand in great undertakings which have brought, if not to his adopted country at least to himself, great glory. At a time of life when the active conflicts of politics begin to press upon him he has retired to that placid harbor of refuge and distinction provided by the House of Lords. All this he has done, too, in a country in which he was born a stranger, without family or wealth to advance him, in the teeth, at least during the early portions of his life, of a violent opposition. This success must have been secured, too, in spite of those very qualities which Herr Brandes justly insists are among his most fundamental traits. If there is anything on which Englishmen have always prided themselves, it is a respect for reason and an admiration for truth for its own sake. It was not in English history that the young Disraeli found *Vehmgerichts*, or Jesuits, or any of the social cabalism in which he so delights. For his whole system of philosophy, if it can be called one, he was obliged to revert to the Continent or to the East. On one occasion he did the United States the honor to draw upon American resources. "Mormon," he sententiously observes somewhere, to illustrate the superiority of the power of the imagination to that of the reason, "counts more votaries than Bentham." To hold up Joseph Smith as a wiser man in his generation than Bentham seems a curious way for a foreigner to recommend himself to the English public. He did not really recommend himself in this way. The secret of his political success is to be found in his gifts as House of Commons orator, and it is as severe a reflection upon the English system of government as could be made that these gifts should have sufficed to enable their possessor to have a large share in the government of an empire like England during the greater portion of his life. We do not mean at all to underrate his gifts. The author of the "Political Adventures" refers to his rhetorical faculty with contempt; but it is by no means a contemptible faculty. His serious phrases are open to the reproach that they are not sincere. Not so, however, with his invective, his satire, his irony, his humor, and his wit. These are all genuine. These are the weapons which have made him the invaluable ally, and finally the leader, of the Conservative party in the House of Commons. They are precisely the qualities in which the Conservatives have been most lacking. They were essential to success in the warfare of debate by which the fate of governments in England is decided. They were provided by the clever Disraeli. These very qualities, however, so invaluable in the House of Commons, are worthless in the actual administration of government, and it might have been predicted with absolute confidence that the actual administration of the government by Lord Beaconsfield would break down.

Although the Conservative party may, and undoubtedly will, come into power again, it is easy to see that Lord Beaconsfield's career as its leader is over. His leadership necessarily came to an end when he left the House of Commons. The active work of opposition must soon fall into younger hands, and though his speeches, as long as he retains the faculty of speech, will always draw crowds, he can never have as a peer the same latitude and freedom which he enjoyed as a member of the lower House. The conditions of English political life, too, which made his career possible are passing away; since the extension of the suffrage (brought about by himself) the power of Parliament has waned, and that of the constituencies has increased, and these constituencies are not, as he supposed, "Tory-Radical" in their sympathies. After all, Lord Beaconsfield has attained an elevation greater than it is given to any but the ablest politicians to reach, and even the popular desertion of him leaves him there. His career is complete. He has vindicated his own philosophy. Reason and truth are shams, and the theatrical is the one fundamental quality in mankind. The wise man is he who uses his fellow-creatures for his own and not their advantage. Opportunism is the real secret of statesmanship, and opportunism means turning your coat at the right time. If any one doubts these truths let him study the life of Lord Beaconsfield.

JUSTUS ERICH BOLLMANN.

THE life of Justus Erich Bollmann is so full of adventure and interest that it reads like a novel. Although parts of it have been known before now, the editor did well to publish the whole in the hero's own words.

Mr. Kapp has properly refrained from renarrating events which Bollmann has treated of in his letters, and has confined himself solely to filling the gaps in Bollmann's career caused by the loss or incompleteness of his letters and memoirs. As Bollmann spent the best part of his life in the United States, where he came in contact with his most prominent contemporaries, and as he was a keen observer and sharp critic, we shall, after giving a short account of his life, indulge rather freely in extracts from the book which particularly refer to American matters.*

Bollmann was born May 10, 1769, in Hoya, Hanover, and died December 10, 1821, at Kingston, Jamaica. After having studied medicine at Göttingen, in 1792, he went to Paris to complete his scientific education. There he became acquainted with Madame de Staël, at whose request, after August 10, 1792, he rescued Count Narbonne by flying with him to England. In London Bollmann lived with Talleyrand, Lally-Tollendal, Lameth, and other prominent French aristocratic refugees, who induced him to go to Germany and there by diplomatic means effect the liberation of Lafayette from the clutches of Prussia and Austria. Accordingly he went to Berlin in the summer of 1793, but not succeeding in his mission he returned to England, and there with his friends agreed on a more daring scheme. He took it upon himself to deliver Lafayette from Olmütz, either by force or stratagem. In spite of his courage and self-possession the plan was frustrated by Lafayette's wilfulness. The marquis was already free and on his way to the frontier when he mistook the road. Bollmann even reached Prussian Silesia, when he was captured by the provincial authorities and delivered to the Austrian Government. Together with young Huger, his heroic assistant, who had been captured on the spot, he was chained hand and foot and thrown into prison. After a year's cruel confinement, in July, 1795, they were set free on condition of never again setting foot in Austria. At the end of the same year Bollmann went to the United States, and on January 1, 1796, arrived in New York.

After having visited the then western part of the country he established himself as a merchant in Philadelphia, but failed in 1803 and never fully recovered from this shock. He then tried his fortune as farmer and gardener, land-agent and physician. Together with Swartwout, he became Burr's trusted friend, was arrested by Wilkinson in New Orleans, transported to Baltimore in a schooner, and arraigned for high treason in Washington, but in January, 1807, was acquitted. During the next seven years Bollmann lived as a poor inventor and manufacturer in Philadelphia, devoted himself to chemistry and physics, studied political economy, and wrote several valuable pamphlets on financial and monetary matters. In 1814 he succeeded in forming a connection with the bankers Baring, of London. For the purpose of buying a large lot of quicksilver they sent him to Vienna, where at that time the celebrated Congress was sitting. About this Bollmann has left some very interesting letters and memorials, the greater part of which, however, his daughters, still living in Philadelphia, refuse to have published. After a short sojourn in the United States Bollmann in 1816 settled in London, and left that city four years later to complete his business for the Barings in South America. There he came in contact with Bolivar and other prominent men. On his way home he was taken ill and, as above stated, died in Kingston, Jamaica.

When Bollmann came to the United States he was not quite twenty-seven years old. Not only the fashionable circles of New York and Philadelphia, but the foremost men of the day, received him in the most flattering way, and even Washington entered into correspondence with him. Having suffered under European despotism, and sharing the sentimental, so-called philosophical, French views of the purer, more perfect, and elevated standard of American life, Bollmann only by degrees arrived at a more sober point of view. This transition from Utopian exaggeration to a calm appreciation of facts is more or less common to all young immigrants, and therefore is typical even to the present day. We will here give a few extracts from these two periods of his life:

"The other day," says Bollmann in a letter to his brother, dated July 7, 1796 (p. 273), "we went to Mount Vernon, ten miles from Alexandria, on the Potomac. The situation is beautiful, the water-views especially being grand and majestic. House and garden are in good taste and comfortable, but look more like a well-to-do farmer's estate than an elegant country-seat. The President, his wife, young Lafayette, his tutor, a stranger, a secretary, and Miss Custis drank tea on the piazza at the back of the house, from which there is a splendid view of the waters. We were kindly received and cordially invited to stay a few days, but we refused and promised to call again on our way back. We afterwards took a walk in the garden, and on our return Miss Custis—a very graceful, intelligent, modest, beautiful young creature of eighteen years—amused herself and us by feeding the frogs with fire-flies. The frogs swallow them greedily, and the fire-fly continues to live and gleam in the frog's stomach—a very curious spectacle. We then took leave, as our return road lay through a dense forest, but, with the help of starlight and fire-flies, we safely reached home. Of the latter there are such quantities that on spring evenings the air seems to be full of flying stars. At the President's there were several Indians who begged for hospitality."

"Washington," he had previously written to his father (letter of June 15), "is a tall, strongly-built, handsome man. The expression of his features and his whole exterior betray much coolness and decision. The prominent traits of his character are common-sense, foresight, and caution. He is more reserved than frank, more really good and of purer intentions than he is liberal and magnanimous, more careful never to do wrong than to do something eminent; without passion, doing everything as it seems from principle; virtuous not grand, very sensible without any conspicuous talent; dry and formal, not very amiable, but claiming high respect; made for the position he holds, solicitous of advice, reflective, but never carried away; self-determining and self-deciding."

In the same letter he gives his impressions of Philadelphia:

"The surroundings of Philadelphia are beautiful, especially at a distance of about a German mile from the city. The soil in most places is fertile. The verdure is remarkably vivid. There are plenty of hills and valleys, rocks, brooks, and waterfalls, with rich forests consisting of some twenty varieties of trees, whose manifold foliage and shades of green are beautifully mingled. Prosperity abounds everywhere; there is misery nowhere. Before the smallest hut numerous and healthy groups of children play in exuberant spirits. Everywhere you perceive thrift and welfare; men and beasts are healthy. The greatest inner delight here is to reach forward to and speculate about the future. Never had a people such a childhood. Never were such and so many elements of future greatness, so scantily interspersed with germs of future dissension, united. Never did so many cohesive ties operate against this dissension. Never have nature and human intellect worked so grandly and happily together. What a spectacle will the manhood of this nation present if its springing-up is attended by such singular and remarkable circumstances! In Europe you are often inclined to doubt the gradual progress of mankind in general to greater perfection. Considering what America must necessarily become in two hundred years, if she continues in the given circumstances, you cannot but again cherish this noble thought with renewed confidence."

"Do not think that I embellish; I only do America justice. The intellectual speculation about the future is here really exalting, while in Europe it is often sadly depressing. But you have *one thing* in Europe which is missing here, only a trifle—*the hoarded labor of centuries!* We do not feel it at home; but reflect upon it, how much it means."

After his failure in business the cheerful tone of Bollmann's letters changed, but the valiant man could not be subdued by misfortune. His letters to his brother and late partner, Lewis, fully exhibit the fortitude of his character, and show how he profited by his adversities, and became less sanguine but more positive and matter-of-fact:

(*August* 3, 1809.)—"That Pittsburgh must make rapid advances towards becoming a place of magnitude and importance nobody who knows the situation can doubt. That the steam gristmill will succeed if the steam-engine be good, is also not doubtful. . . . Twenty thousand dollars capital I considered necessary to do the business well, and I still believe that less will not compass it. I addressed myself to O'Hara, Wilkins, and Ross jointly; if these are men of greater show than substance it is more than I knew and could ascertain; and besides them I had no acquaintances.

"The fact is that, generally speaking, people in this country naturally take more to a man without than with education. If Isaac Newton and Oliver Evans were to propose the same thing, the latter would command confidence when the former would stand deserted. I hold but a middle place between the two, but in this respect share the fate of the former."

"A man because he has a few thousand dollars in this country thinks himself a prince. He wants all the time, all the services, the knowledge, the ingenuity of another, the result of studies and experiments, for nothing. He thinks himself entitled to all the benefit because he lays out perhaps a few hundred dollars for fixtures; the other is to make shift as he can even for his bread."

(*Feb.* 23, 1810.)—"Of the things that might be undertaken at Pittsburgh or Williamsport, another steam gristmill is, perhaps, the safest and most lucrative. You will have a dozen of them before fifty years elapse. The steam-engine of O. Evans is defective. A better one to drive four pair of stones might be had here or at New York, constructed on Bolton and Well's principle, without difficulty or loss of time. Fifteen thousand dollars would complete all the fixtures. Mr. Robert Fulton, the steamboat and torpedo man, told me, a few days ago, he wondered nobody had taken up my idea when I first proposed it; he intended, if no other person began to erect a second, to establish his brother-in-law at Pittsburgh with another steam gristmill. It must make his fortune."

(*Philadelphia, Nov.* 23, 1811.)—"I am glad to hear that Charles comes on well. Your new prospects always make me tremble. For God's sake, bridle your imagination and become a matter-of-fact man. You feel troubled at Pittsburgh, and think of Natchez or its neighborhood to better

* 'Justus Erich Bollmann. Ein Lebensbild aus beiden Welttheilen, herausgegeben von Friedrich Kapp.' Berlin: Julius Springer; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1880. Pp. vi.-489.

yourself. Your wife has it hard where you are, but domestic labor in Pennsylvania is no disgrace, and its climate not overpowering; let her do the same things at Natchez which she does at Pittsburgh, and she is 'a white nigger,' as they call them, with whom a free mulatto woman would hesitate to associate. Nothing free works in those parts. . . . What is valuable is not hired out, and only sold at $500 to $800 per head. And then the climate—and then the children—hardly are a b c-schools to be found; and a demoralizing slave influence against which it is impossible to guard. The Southern countries are the worst to be poor in. Any sort of an establishment there necessarily requires much money. I have expressed myself forcibly on this point that you may at least consider well. J'ai vu cela un peu de près."

(*Philadelphia, June* 4, 1812.)—"I have duly received the letter in which you inform me that you have been made an involuntary candidate for the honors of the approaching campaign; that you are permitted, however, to forego your chance for a contribution of $200 towards defraying the expenses of drums and fifes. For you must know that the militia fines, which are presumed to be of trifling amount, but in reality amount to enormous sums in populous towns like this, are never accounted for. On enquiry they are always, one is told, applied to paying for drums and fifes. In reality they grease the wheels of democracy (for which reason the militia system has so many advocates), and remain among the leaders of the sovereign people in ale and grog-houses. They pay for the expenses of clubs and handbills and insertion of inflammatory articles, mass meetings, and similar laudable contrivances by means of which the wish and will of the majority are ascertained—though on all such occasions, when one fellow who has been influenced by a part of the military fines vociferously applauds the harangue delivered, nine round him are silent for fear of being knocked down, or because they do not care, and then it is put down 'unanimously applauded by *ten* citizens.' It puts one in mind of the awful respect which an oily lamp-lighter commands in a crowd of well dressed people. There is nothing so imposing as the majority of dirt.

"While I am sorry for your case, I cannot help observing how your views broaden when abstract principles are brought home to your feelings as the real expression of social institutions. The whole militia system in our civilized times is absurd, unless, as did the Romans, you make war the chief, regular, steady, and honorable pursuit of the nation. This you *now feel*. But of the conscription system you speak in terms of approbation. If your boy should be seventeen years of age; if you should have lived with more than common frugality to educate him handsomely; if he should be a fine, promising lad of excellent habits, great application, correct deportment—your pride, your joy, your cheering prospect—and the conscription should then come and take him to march to Louisiana or against the Indians, or on an expedition like Bonaparte's in Spain, and if even money could not release him, then probably you would think differently of the system. Observe that it is a miserable consolation, 'he will come back at thirty-five or forty.' Two-thirds perish, while those who reach the term continue, or had better continue, because they are afterwards good for nothing else.

"The impressments in England are bad enough, but at least they generally do not take people out of their career; they affect only seafaring people, who, in their own mode of life, on their chosen element, are forcibly put to a particular kind of service; but this is not lawful, though connived at by the state from motives of superior necessity. The legalized conscription is the most horrible and revolting contrivance of military despotism ever imagined; the sight of chained refractory conscripts, the most shocking that can be beheld. You should hear the accounts of some of our countrymen lately arrived; yet this system you seem to approve of.

"I do not believe there will be war. If war should be declared, it may not go further."

(*Philadelphia, March* 14, 1814.)—"I concur with you in your ideas respecting the Federal party as such. They seek, like all parties, more the gratification of their personal animosities than the public good, whilst at the same time they neglect to practise those arts, and are miserably deficient in that suppleness and industry, which gain influence with the multitude, and consequently power. The Democrats once in power, the Federalists should perhaps not have assumed the character of a rancorous band, indiscriminately condemning and abusing; they ought rather, since they themselves expect to come into power again, and seek to keep up appearances, to have enforced truth and reason with dignity and moderation. Their main object being the country's good, they ought to have endeavored to Federalize the men in power, not to render them obnoxious."

(*Philadelphia, July* 14, 1814.)—"In answer to yours of the 5th I observe that there is nothing to be done. Reasoning in such matters is useless. The people put asses in power, they must suffer for it; till they feel, and severely, nothing could be said that would be of any avail. At Washington the incapacity is beyond imagination: Madison—oppressed with age, weakness, and old womanhood—in a state approaching idiocy; the Secretary of the Treasury—without even the least idea on financial matters—put in office merely because a convenient, pliable Cabinet man; the Secretary of War, at drawn daggers with the President, intriguing for the Presidency; Jones, of the Navy, well-meaning, of a mind sound enough but without cultivation and acquired knowledge—the whole bespeaking consummate incapacity. The entire country, through the influence of Jeffersonism and Jacobinism, is so demoralized that there is no idea or individual to rally round. Talents and dignified conduct must be honored, must be in demand, else they disappear. They have disappeared during the last fifteen years. As to patriotism, it is a farce. That sentiment of the heart requires hearts. Hearts are more compatible even with the Russian order of things than with this mob sovereignty, which leads to low and contracted selfishness, silly impertinence, stupid conceit; that respects nothing, loves nothing, sticks to nothing, except its own carcass and its ease. If you want patriotism there must be habitual reverence of something—national altars, national idols, great men—something positive. You cannot be attached to absence of evil, to space, to health, to liberty as the thing is here understood. The subject is endless.

"The state of things, if war continue, I consider as desperate. All the banks will stop payment most unquestionably, and even avowedly, as soon as things become a little serious. Silver daily becomes more scarce—will soon disappear. Then Government will be without credit, without an army, without men fit to command an army, disgusting and contemptible in their insignificance, in their helplessness; and the people will have nothing to rally round save their own rascality.

"I still flatter myself that there will be peace. The British Government perhaps may perceive that Jacobinism will die a natural death if left here to itself; that the peace and prosperity of this country are their interest; that a serious war would cost much and produce no advantages adequate to the cost in the end. I like to believe that they will not attempt recolonization. Were they to attempt it, and set about it in the right way, it is questionable at least whether they would not succeed. Thousands, like Mr. B., would be willing to shoulder the musket and puff away a little. That will not do. Ask him whether, *à la* Moscow, he [two lines cut out]. The occasion would ultimately produce the leaders and the men. But it would require much blood and ten years of privation and misery. . . .

"I shall perhaps send you Mr. Harper's last speech at Annapolis. It was printed at Alexandria. The historical development of the contrivances and machinations of the war party to bring about this war, and literally to cheat the people into it, is admirably and irresistibly convincing. Indeed, the documents adduced speak for themselves."

(*London, Oct.* 14, 1816.)—"I seem to be constantly within the reach of some great success—am constantly obliged to hope and expect; yet that success will never come, and I constantly feel my narrow circumstances and my poverty, and long for the United States. Yes, many things are there better than here. Only with much success, with heaps of money, could my girls be here better off than at home. So I like to consider myself as on a campaign for three years, when either complete failure or complete success will bring us back."

His brother Lewis's answer to this letter, dated Detroit, August 20, 1817, runs as follows:

"Your unsettled situation is very distressing to me. Oh! that you were here; for something always turns up, if one will but seize it. *Les bons sujets sont partout si rares!* You must surely have thought of every chance. First, Mr. Adams, who must now soon arrive here; second, there is the great canal actually underway in the State of New York. Then, there is a prodigious increase of wealth in the State of Louisiana. Then, I should hope there must remain to you some friends! To gain a footing you must consent to give up some pretensions. Age is every day narrowing your chances of success in the opinion of the world. Yet it might happen to you to live twenty years longer. What a period is that for progress in a progressive country! Every consideration calls upon you to take hold where you can."

The most important part of the book is that which refers to the Vienna Congress. Here Bollmann had ample opportunity of observing and the best sources of information. The editor's narrative of the escape of Lafayette, based on the Vienna archives, gives some very interesting and hitherto unknown historical facts, and his description of Bollmann's participation in Aaron Burr's conspiracy throws some new light on this much-distorted episode in American history. A letter of Alex. v. Humboldt's, written immediately after his landing in South America, is valuable for the appreciation of the character of the great traveller.

RAU'S PALENQUE TABLET.*

A CARVED slab, whose fragments were shipped to Washington from Yucatan in 1842, and which is "now exhibited, solidly framed, in the United States National Museum," forms the subject of this publication. A magnificent artotype of the slab, and a large outline picture of the so-called "Tablet of the Sun," from the pueblo of Palenque (State of Chiapas, Mexico), the electrotypes of which are due to the liberality of Mr. H. H. Bancroft, accompany seventy-six pages of text written by Prof. C. Rau. This text is subdivided as follows: I. History of the Palenque Tablet; II. Explorations of Palenque; III. The Temple of the Cross; IV. The Group of the Cross; V. Aboriginal Writing in Mexico, Yucatan, and Central America. To these five chapters an appendix is added, under the title, "Notes on the Ruins of Yucatan and Central America." The entire text is interspersed with excellent wood-cuts and

* 'The "Palenque Tablet" at the United States National Museum, Washington, D. C. By Charles Rau.' No. 331 of the Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge. 1879.

diagrams, derived from other publications on Central-American antiquities.

It appears from the first chapter that, in 1841, Mr. Russell, then U. S. Consul at the Island of Laguna (Yucatan), at the instigation of the celebrated J. L. Stephens, secured the fragments of the slab in question, and shipped them in 1842 to this country, where they were eventually fitted together. In 1868 Dr. George A. Matile publicly expressed the belief that the slab might be the right-hand part of the so-called "Tablet of the Cross," which was already missing when Stephens visited Palenque (about 1840). Dr. Ph. J. J. Valentini, of this city, identified the slab with the missing fragment in 1873, without knowing at that time of Dr. Matile's investigations. He communicated his discovery to Prof. Joseph Henry, and has since then been diligently at work studying the slab, and has accumulated an enormous amount of material regarding it. We may as well state here that the slab at Washington contains six vertical rows of so-called "katuns," a shorter seventh row, and some nondescript ornaments complementary to the middle part of the "Tablet of the Cross."

Chapter ii. gives a short history of Palenque explorations. Beginning with a supposed accidental discovery of the ruins in 1746, reference is made to the visits of Del Rio, Dupaix, Waldeck, Stephens, Morelet, and Charnay. Brasseur is stated to have been at Palenque in 1871. Dr. Rau, like others before him, has overlooked a remarkable statement of Gregorio Garcia ('Origen de los Indios,' lib. iv. cap. xxi.) in 1605. The description of the so-called Temple of the Cross (chapter iii.) is confined to quotations from travellers who have visited and described the edifice. We gather from it that the temple is a stone medicine-lodge, with tower-like superstructure resting on a pyramidal mound faced with stones. The tablet itself was fastened to the rear wall of a dark interior chamber, facing a kind of altar. It was seen in its original position by Dupaix in 1807, but had been removed when Waldeck visited Palenque in 1832. In describing the "Group of the Cross," Mr. Rau compares several of the pictures representing parts or the whole of the slab with each other, as well as with the photograph made by Charnay. He quickly notices that this photograph shows the work to much less advantage than the sketches and drawings, and very sensibly attributes this fact to "that tendency prevailing among artists to represent, perhaps unconsciously, the objects before them in a more shapely form than their appearance justifies." We strongly recommend these words to the attention of all who speculate upon the nature and origin of Central-American ruins. Mr. Rau goes still further. While the details of the sculptures "are sharp and well defined," so as to compel him "to give due praise to the Palenquean sculptors who succeeded in producing such work with tools of an inferior quality," he still adds:

"Any one who examines the representation of the Smithsonian tablet will be struck with the want of symmetry of its sculptures and its incorrect outline. . . . This asymmetrical appearance of the slab is not at all owing to its restoration, as might be imagined at first sight, but simply to a lack of precision on the part of the sculptor. Charnay's photograph of the middle slab—certainly the truest of obtainable likenesses—shows similar imperfections. . . . Though the bas-reliefs on it show a commendable finish, the total aspect of the sculpture is not that of a well-executed work—at least not in our sense."

The bearing of these facts, which Charnay had already indicated, on the degree of culture of those who built Palenque and who dwelt in its buildings, is obvious. Art among them had evidently not surpassed its development among the Mexicans at the time of the conquest. There is more harmony, as resulting from symmetry of details, in the so-called Calendar-Stone of Mexico than in any tablet from Palenque.

Dr. Rau's discussion of the cross symbol among the aborigines of Central America is based mostly on recent writers. Whether the cross itself was an object of worship, or whether it was the symbol of fructification, he does not decide. "Until better informed, one might feel inclined to see in the Palenque bas-relief a monument commemorative of a propitiatory sacrifice to the rain-god, made, perhaps, during a period of great suffering arising from want of water." Finally, he says: "The meaning it was intended to convey . . . will not be positively known until the purport of the accompanying characters ceases to be a mystery." By this non-committal attitude Mr. Rau avoids the treacherous ground of symbolism in which so many American archæologists have been and still remain mired.

"Aboriginal Writing in Mexico, Yucatan, and Central America" forms the subject of chapter v. Barely mentioning Mexico, Mr. Rau enters at once upon a discussion of Landa's so-called Maya alphabet. With the aid of some (principally modern) sources, he reaches the same conclusion with Dr. Brinton, who is quoted textually as follows: "It appears more likely that the figures he gives represent component sounds, syllabic or partly so, and that they are but fragments of a large repertory of phonetic signs, never reduced to the elements of sound, used by the Maya of that age." That Landa's alphabet might be but an invention, or rather expedient invented after the Conquest, he denies somewhat peremptorily. He further dwells on the insufficiency of Landa's so-called key to interpret such picture-sheets as are admitted to be of Maya origin. Finally, he compares the "katuns" on the Washington slab with the calendar tokens given by Landa, and concludes: "I venture to suggest that its inscription constitutes a chronological record of some kind." He justifies the use of Maya signs for comparison by the gratuitous assumption "that this language underlies the signs exhibited on the tablets of the ruined city." The "Appendix" contains Mr. Rau's views on the ruins of Central America in general. He plainly endorses the opinion of John L. Stephens, that they are the remains of buildings erected by the ancestors of the people inhabiting the country at the time of the conquest—in other words, that they were the work of sedentary American Indians.

Prof. Rau's method is highly commendable. He first acquaints his readers with the sources of knowledge, and then gradually descends from the general to the special, until in chapter v. he narrows the discussion down to the particular subject—namely, a picture-slab of some Indian tribe of Chiapas. But the entire work is hardly more than a sketch, and the filling out of the frame is not what we expect from a Smithsonian "Contribution to Knowledge." We have a right to ask for additions to what is already known, and, although a satisfactory explanation of the slab may not yet be attainable, still we should be able to find that a positive advance has been made towards that end. Instead of this there is hardly anything in Mr. Rau's statements which has not been known to students for some time. Chapter ii. is only a condensed reproduction of Brasseur's 'Ruines de Palenque' (Introduction and Preface). Chapter iii. even fails to give as clear a conception of the so-called "Temple of the Cross" as we gather from other writers. Chapter iv. is the most valuable, but beyond the important hint at the true value of the tablet as a work of art there is nothing new in it. Chapter v. should be the most important, and is perhaps the most unsatisfactory; it does not even justify its own title. Mexican pictorial records are barely mentioned, nor is any enquiry made into the principles underlying the arrangement and use of such contrivances. Landa's alphabet is discussed, but the vital point is totally overlooked: that the consonant becomes decomposed, thus showing that the Maya had no conception of either syllabic or phonetic writing. Accordingly, Mr. Rau makes too light of Dr. Valentini's opinion that Landa's alphabet is of Spanish fabrication. Besides, he almost completely ignores the aborigines of the region of Palenque, their traditions, their chronological system, their language. It is highly probable that the tribes of Chiapas originally descended from the same stock as the Maya and even the Mexicans, but a comparison of the Palenque "katuns" with Landa's calendar tokens should be preceded by an identification of the latter with the "katuns" on Maya monuments of Yucatan. This Mr. Rau has forgotten to do, and therefore, however much we incline to his own belief, it is presented to us with such feeble support that little if any scientific importance can be attached to it. On the whole, we remain, in regard to the Palenque tablet, as little wise as we were before.

We are aware that the subject is a difficult one, and more than one voice will be lifted to express the conviction that nothing at all can be ascertained in regard to the monument under discussion. We are firmly convinced, however, that such is not the case, and that the Palenque slabs can be understood and properly co-ordinated in the series of works of American aboriginal art. Of course the "katuns" will never be *read*, because they were not made to be read. If Prof. Rau, who certainly is as distinguished an antiquarian as this country possesses, has signally failed to promote our knowledge regarding one of the most interesting relics of Central America, we prefer to think it the result of insufficient preparation on his part rather than of the insuperable difficulties of the task. That something new may appear in regard to Palenque, a study of older sources on Mexico and Central America would have satisfied Mr. Rau. Thus, in regard to the "Temple of the Cross," not only would a study of Motolinia have given him a very clear conception of the manner in which such mounds were constructed, and of their relative position to the other buildings of the pueblo; but Bernal Diez de Castillo would have enlightened him as to how the interior of such buildings was used for purposes of worship. His long discussion of the mode of sacrifice would have become as superfluous as his conjectures. An attentive study of the 'Mendoza Codex' and of the 'Codex Vaticanus,' coupled with a know-

ledge of aboriginal Mexican writers, would have convinced him that the costumes worn by all the figures at Palenque are identical with the native dress at the time of the conquest. In regard to the Group of the Cross, we can refer him to the slab recently found at Mexico and bearing the date "8 Acatl," as a means of comparison. The cross itself appears in the Mexican picture-sheets under many forms far different from those indicated in the paper under consideration. In regard to the "katuns" themselves which the Washington slab exhibits, and which almost exclusively cover its surface, their proper signification can most certainly be ascertained after proper study and deliberation. Mr. Rau is on the true path; he has ably sketched the work to be done, and it is much to be regretted that he has not taken time to do it himself.

Alaska, and Missions on the North Pacific Coast. By Rev. Sheldon Jackson, D.D. (New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.)—*Adventures in Patagonia.* A Missionary's Exploring Trip. By Rev. Titus Coan (Same publishers.)—Both of these books are the result of missionary sojourn and investigation in the countries named. In the first Dr. Jackson gives a description of Alaska in its geographical and ethnological aspects, the habits and customs of the people, the need of missions, what has been done in the way of civilization by the Greek Church during the last century, and what has been already accomplished by the home missions. The Treasury has up to the present time, it may not be generally known, received the amount of one-third of the purchase-money ($7,000,000) from the rental of the seal-fisheries leased to the Alaska Commercial Company for a term of twenty years, half of which has now expired. The yield of furs from the land animals equals $1,000,000 annually. The fisheries are extremely valuable, and salmon "canneries" have already been established. Only these industries have been yet developed, but there are indications of great and varied mineral wealth; the lumber districts are unequalled the world over; and, with a large region enjoying the climate of Virginia, Alaska promises to be a great grazing country. No official census has been taken; the Russian estimate at the time of purchase placed the population at 66,000; General Halleck's report to the Secretary of War gave 60,000; while Mr. Wm. H. Dall in 'North American Ethnology' estimates the native population at 25,704, which number is raised to 27,404 by the addition of Russians, half-breeds, and citizens. The natives are ferocious for the most part, but yield readily to civilizing influences. They are willing to work and evince a desire to accumulate wealth. Polygamy is common, and the women are extremely degraded, especially where they come into contact with the white miners. The work of the Greek Church, which had been continued for nearly a century, was abandoned at the time of the transfer, but it was ten years before American missionaries entered the field. They are now, however, doing well, the natives welcoming their teaching and showing a great readiness to help in the support of the church and schools. Dr. Jackson's straightforward account will be found interesting and profitable, and should fulfil his aim of awakening a greater interest on the part of the churches in Alaska mission-work.

Mr. Coan's preface intimates that the interest attaching to this record of his Patagonian adventures is chiefly personal and friendly, and he offers his book to the public with diffidence. It consists of his diary kept during a three-months' voyage on shipboard and a three-months' sojourn among the Patagonian savages nearly fifty years ago. He was sent with one companion by the American Board of Missions to report upon the expediency of founding a mission in Patagonia. He found the savages mentally as degraded as they were noble physically; their moral attributes being of a negative type. On the arrival of a vessel the whole tribe would encamp on the shore and remain till the vessel weighed anchor, in the hope of exchanging guanaco robes for rum and tobacco, and sometimes almost in the face of starvation. Women were held in less disesteem than is usual among savages, the tribe with which Mr. Coan was being ruled by a queen, indeed. He encountered during his stay at least half a dozen white men, sailors, who had deserted their ships with a dime-novel notion of becoming chiefs, but who, without exception, had been enslaved and made to do women's work; they were all anxious to escape and all closely watched. The two missionaries, themselves, had difficulty in getting away when their stay was over, and had to resort to a ruse to get aboard the returning ship. Besides this diary the volume contains extracts from the narratives of Mr. Darwin's researches and Admiral Fitzroy's voyages, and from 'The Story of Allen Gardiner.'

The Essentials of Anatomy. Designed as a text-book for students and as a book of easy reference for the practitioner. By William Darling, M.D., F.R.C.S., and Ambrose L. Ranney, A.M., M.D. 8vo, pp. 629; 3 figures. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1880.)—The authors of this work are the Professor and Adjunct Professor of Anatomy in one of the three large Medical Schools of New York City. Associated in teaching, they have adopted the plan of co-operative authorship, which has proved advantageous not only with romances but with some recently-published scientific manuals. Although no definite statement is made as to the relative share of the two collaborators, there are reasons for thinking that the senior is responsible for the general arrangement of the work and for most of the tables and diagrams which form its more distinctive and valuable features, while upon the junior has devolved most of the purely descriptive portion and the sufficiently onerous task of preparing the volume for the press.

Their experience as teachers has led the authors to believe that the facts of gross anatomy may be more easily acquired if presented in a compact and categorical form, omitting all doubtful points and most of the details of microscopic structure. The idea is heartily to be commended, and students and teachers alike would surely welcome a volume of moderate size and cost containing the "essentials of anatomy" clearly and accurately stated, and for the most part in a tabular form. In some respects the present work is all that could be desired. Some of the tables, as those of the cranial foramina and those representing the attachments of muscles and the distribution of nerves, will not only facilitate the student's labors, but suggest new ideas and methods to teachers who find the details of descriptive anatomy "stale, flat, and unprofitable" to themselves and their hearers.

But while, upon the whole, the sections upon bones, muscles, vessels, and nerves are admirably done, the brain and viscera are much less satisfactorily treated, and the work presents some general defects which will impair its usefulness. To use favorite phrases of the elder Agassiz, its "plan of structure" is excellent, but its "mode of execution" is not altogether perfect. In the first place, though cheap in proportion to its size, it is too costly as well as inconveniently large. More than twenty-five pages are needlessly left blank, and perhaps as many more could have been saved by a less prodigal use of spaces. Nor is the language always sufficiently compact; for instance, "hemispheres of the cerebrum" occurs nine times where "hemispheres" would have answered the purpose, and we frequently encounter phrases and whole paragraphs which seem to indicate that the authors too often forgot that they were not preparing an ordinary text-book of anatomy. In the second place, the descriptions are by no means always clear. The muscular fibres of the heart are said to be, "*as a rule*, beyond the control of the will." From the use of the term "grey matter," on pp. 437 and 438, the unlearned reader would infer no distinction between the "axis cylinder" of a single nerve-fibre and the "vesicular nervous substance" of a ganglionic mass. Finally, only accomplished anatomists would escape being confused by the passage concerning the "tubercula quadrigemina" and the "optic commissure" on pp. 443, 452, and 457. In the third place, there are some serious omissions and inaccuracies. The second pancreatic duct is not mentioned. In describing the coats of the arteries no reference is made to the muscular fibres, the physiological importance of which can hardly be overestimated. It is said (p. 279) that "the biceps first supinates the hand, and then flexes the forearm," as if it could not do the one without the other, and with no hint of the *counteractions* which enter so largely into muscular movements. The anterior crura of the fornix are described as if *terminating* in the corpora albicantia. The foramen of Magendie is twice described as a "hole in the *floor* of the fourth ventricle," and the fifth ventricle is said to communicate, in the fœtus, with the third.

The preface states that "the few diagrammatic illustrations are presented rather as a means of impressing some particular points than as accurate representations of the parts under consideration," yet one of the three figures of the brain is a copy, unacknowledged, of a figure lately published by Dalton, and illustrates a little-known peculiarity of the corpus striatum, and the others have the general aspect of ordinary figures and contain many needless details, while their usefulness as diagrams is diminished by serious imperfections. For example, that on p. 451 is supposed to show the mesial aspect of the right hemisphere and thalamus; yet the middle commissure does not appear at all, the collateral fissure, optic chiasma, and anterior commissure are not named, the shading of the corpus callosum is misleading, the splenium is wrongly shaped, and the double line connecting it with the uncinate gyrus will certainly convey no definite or correct information to the mind of the

average student. The metric system is ignored, there are several typographical errors, and the name of the Scotch anatomist who described the "foramina of Monro" is constantly spelt with a final *e*. In the preparation of another edition—which we trust may soon be called for—it is to be hoped that our authors may acquaint themselves with some of the fundamental facts of development, and may follow Dalton, Seguin, and Spitzka in studying the brains of the lower animals, which can be had fresh at any time, easily preserved, and handled without rupturing the more delicate parts.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Arnold (W.), Deutsche Urzeit, 2d ed., swd.	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Beach and Gibbens, The Metric System	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) $0 75
Beard (Dr. G. M.), Sea-Sickness, swd.	(E. B. Treat) $0 50
Brown (W. W.), My Southern Home	(A. G. Brown & Co.)
Clément (C.), Michelangelo	(Scribner & Welford) 1 25
Cowles (Rev. H.), The Longer Epistles of Paul	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Crawford (J. C.), Recollections of Travel in New Zealand and Australia	(Trübner & Co.)
Daudet (A.), Prodigious Adventures of Tartarin of Tarascon, swd.	(Lee & Shepard) 50
Droysen (J. G.), Geschichte Alexanders des Grossen, 3d ed., swd.	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Dunbar (Dr. H.), Concordance to the Odyssey and Hymns of Homer.	(Macmillan & Co.)
Ebers (G.), Homo Sum: a Tale, swd.	(Wm. S. Gottsberger) 40
Eginhard's Life of Charlemagne, swd.	(Harper & Bros.)
Elsberg (Dr. L.), The Throat and its Functions	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 00
Eucken (Prof. R.), Fundamental Concepts of Modern Philosophic Thought	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Hamilton (Gail), Our Common School System	(Estes & Lauriat) 1 50
Kapp (F.), Justus Erich Bollmann, swd.	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Lanier (S.), Science of English Verse	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 2 00
Lieber (F.), Legal and Political Hermeneutics, 3d ed.	(F. H. Thomas & Co.)
Lodge (H. C.), Ballads and Lyrics	(Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) 1 25
Roe (Rev. E. P.), Success with Small Fruits	(Dodd, Mead & Co.) 3 00
Stranded Ship, swd.	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 60
Symonds (J. A.), Sketches and Studies in Southern Europe, 2 vols.	(Harper & Bros.)
Underwood (F. H.), Brugsch's True Story of the Exodus of Israel	(Lee & Shepard) 1 50
Wood (Rev. W. C.), Sabbath Essays	(Cong. Pub. Society)

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HERODOTUS. Selections from Books VII. and VIII. The Exhibition of Xerxes. Edited by A. H. Cook, B.A., Fellow of King's College, Cambridge.

HORACE. The First Book of the Odes. Edited by T. E. Page, M.A., late Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge, and Assistant-Master at the Charterhouse.

OVID. Selections from the Fasti and Epistles. Edited by E. S. Shuckburgh, M.A., late Fellow of Emmanuel College, Cambridge, and Assistant-Master at Eton.

THUCYDIDES. Book IV., Chap. 1–41. The Siege of Pylos. Edited by C. E. Graves, M.A., Classical Lecturer, and late Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge.

VIRGIL. The Fifth Æneid. The Funeral Games. Edited by Rev. A. Calvert, M.A., late Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 10, 1880.

The Week.

THE nomination of General Garfield, as that of a man who, whatever his personal merits or demerits, has had no organized "boom" behind him, has not been put forward by any clique of political speculators or adventurers, has not "sought the Presidency" either by appeals to sectional passions or by long-prepared intrigue, must be considered a triumph for the cause of good government and constitutional and decent politics. This success, even if it meant nothing else, would mean the defeat of a most audacious attempt to substitute government by chicane and favoritism and corruption for government by open discussion and fair voting. It does mean the ruin of the attempt to establish in Washington the Boss system of party management, as created and perfected in New York by Tweed and Kelly. General Garfield has, however, strong "claims" of his own on the nomination drawn from the fact that he has been for many years an industrious member of Congress, who has borne a prominent and able part in the work of legislation, has long had a considerable share in shaping or carrying all measures of importance, whose opinions on the great topics of the day are perfectly well known, and who has, to his honor, refrained steadily from seeking political preferment through such forms of demagogy as the "waving of the bloody shirt" or "the stirring up of the Brigadiers." That he is by no means an ideal politician, we do not deny. He is too keenly alive to the prejudices of his district, and was too ready in 1876 to play the part of a "Visiting Statesman," to be entitled to a place among public men of the first rank. But such men are rare, and are not apt to be the men to whom conventions turn when "the break" begins. As matters stand, the Republican party may be sincerely congratulated on his nomination. It is very bad news for the Democrats, to whose hands the nomination of either the Silent Man or the Magnetic Man would undoubtedly have given the battle. And in what a position the nomination leaves the Silent Man, after being dragged by Conkling, Cameron, and Logan for weeks and weeks through the mud of their peculiar field of activity! No one who ever rightly estimated the value to the nation of the splendid fame with which he came back from the war, can do otherwise than bitterly mourn the base uses to which he has allowed this paltry clique to put him during the past ten years.

A supposed "claim" of the New York Machine to have the nominating of the Vice-President, after a week's ineffectual effort to establish the absolute right of the majority to the spoils of the Convention, resulted in the choice of General Chester A. Arthur on the first ballot. This may serve to enlist Mr. Conkling to the extent of a single stump-speech for the ticket, and it ought not to silence Mr. Sherman during the campaign, unless he draws a distinction between serving Cornell and serving Arthur. But nothing could better illustrate the hollowness of the civil-service professions which the Convention was shamed into making. The man for the place was clearly Flanagan, of Texas, one of the honestest delegates in the Convention.

Our readers will not expect of us details of the seven days' struggle in the Convention at Chicago, which ended on the thirty-sixth ballot on Tuesday in the giving way of the Blaine column, which never equalled 300, while the Grant column, which never fell below 300, remained steadfast though defeated. Senator Hoar was made temporary and permanent chairman, and presided well; the unit rule was demolished, and the contesting delegates fairly treated —more fairly by the Convention than by the anti-Grant Committee on Credentials. The historical sense was strong enough in the Convention to compel the adoption of a civil-service plank when introduced independently of the Committee on Resolutions and after their almost unanimous agreement to pocket it. This was one of the chief episodes, enlivened as it was by the candid exclamation of delegate Flanagan, "What are we here for except for the offices?" Another occurred on Friday, when before the report of any of the important committees Conkling introduced a resolution pledging every delegate to support the nominee of the Convention whoever he might be, and, stale as the tactics were, beyond a feeble protest from Hale that it was unnecessary, no one had the courage to vote against it except three West Virginians. The great whipper-in promptly moved the expulsion of these, but they were rescued by Garfield, who doubtless felt that if he did not bell the cat his reputation as a "harmonizer" would suffer. Of course he had the Convention with him, and Conkling was obliged to withdraw his motion.

What the *Times* calls "an imposing gathering of great men" had few to spare for its committees. The most distinguished name on the Committee on Permanent Organization was that of W. J. Whipper, of South Carolina; the only two of national reputation on the Committee on Rules were those of General Garfield and General George H. Sharpe. The lights of the Committee on Credentials were William E. Chandler, Benjamin F. Tracy, John Cessna, and R. C. McCormick; of the Committee on Resolutions, Emory A. Storrs, Wm. Walter Phelps, and Edwards Pierrepont. Among the one hundred and thirty or forty colleagues of these gentlemen doubtless some good and excellent citizens were to be found; but for aught the public at large knows of them their collective signatures appended to a party manifesto would have exactly the weight of their numbers, and nothing beside. And if, as should have been the case, the committees were a favorable sample of the Convention, we may safely set down the number of "great men" in it at the most at fifty.

The scenes of disorder by which the proceedings were twice interrupted, in which both delegates and audience abandoned themselves for nearly half an hour at a time to the savage diversion of yelling and waving hats and other articles of clothing, including women's shawls, as a means of discouraging their opponents, may be said to have been provided for by the arrangement which made eight hundred men sit for deliberative purposes in a building capable of containing ten thousand. Nor do we know that there would be any objection to this in the case of a body which met to do work which was to affect only its own members, and for which they were to be responsible to nobody but themselves. But certainly a convention which meets to select and recommend a candidate for the highest office in the Government to several millions of voters, owes it to these voters to perform its task with sobriety and decency, and to keep up an appearance, at all events, of exemption from all but rational influences. A party made up as the Republican party is, ought not to be asked to accept nominations made in scenes which at times bore a striking resemblance to the preliminaries of a fight in the old days of Donnybrook Fair. The comparison with Bedlam which they have suggested to some of our contemporaries is hardly fair to Bedlam, because the lunatics in that institution were never, according to the best testimony, let loose in numbers anything approaching those of the Convention. We trust that hereafter the committee of arrangements will have regard enough for that portion of the party which does not attend the convention to provide less accommodation for "the gallery."

The rôle played by Mr. Conkling in the Convention was strikingly indicative of the extent to which the party management

has lost its hold on ideas and principles, and become a huge engine for the division of offices. He could not have been as prominent and powerful as he was in any assembly which was really deliberative, and in which any real work of persuasion had to be done. His bearing, too, was curiously like that of the Bonapartist henchmen in the Corps Législatif, and as little as possible American. The praise of his chief, as somebody above all laws and constitutions, and a good substitute for all other machinery of government; the cuts and jibes he directed against the other candidates, and against all critics or opponents of his own; his failure to connect Grant in any way with the party which had elected him and was to elect him, if nominated, or to give it any thanks for his greatness; the pert insolence with which he sought to throw contempt on the dissentients in his own delegation every time he announced the vote, until Mr. Campbell, of West Virginia, had the courage to rebuke him by mimicry—were all a remarkable reproduction of the tactics of Count de Morny when presiding over his master's mock legislature in Paris, and as unlike as possible to anything hitherto seen or submitted to in American politics.

Mr. Conkling's nominating speech in the Convention was the first attempt we have seen to set out General Grant's claims to the Presidency. His other supporters who have written or talked on the subject have generally contented themselves with saying that there was no objection to a third term, and that "if the people wanted him they would have him." Mr. Conkling said in substance that the candidate came "from Appomattox"; that he alone could carry the doubtful States at the North; that he is "the most illustrious of living men"; that "he has studied the needs and defects of many systems of government"; that he "never betrayed a cause or a friend," and that the various charges against him have "strengthened and seasoned his hold on the popular heart"; that he "single and alone overthrew expansion and cleared the way for specie resumption"; that "to him more than any other man" we owe it that "every paper dollar is as good as gold"; that "life and liberty will find a safeguard in him," or, in other words, we suppose, that under him there will be no need of courts and legislatures; and, finally, that the only argument against him—the third-term argument—"would amaze Solomon." A better Bonapartist speech was never delivered in France, and, in fact, the candidate was presented as a person fully competent to take entire charge of the Government in all its branches. The charges against his Administration, too, were treated exactly as a sovereign treats charges—that is, as things which it is beneath his dignity to notice, or, in Mr. Conkling's words, as shafts and arrows aimed at him, "which lie broken at his feet."

In spite of the universal interest centring in Chicago, the seat of government has remained at Washington, and the proceedings at the national Capitol have not been destitute of importance. The House has made another offer to adjourn to-day, but the date is still too early. It passed on Thursday the General Deficiency Appropriation Bill, after a characteristic wrestling with the silver problem. Some recognition had to be made of Secretary Sherman's request for more storage, and the bill appropriated $20,000 for that purpose. Mr. Bland wanted all the amounts appropriated in the act and the full amount of Congressmen's salaries paid in silver, and was willing to allow $10,000 for the storage of so much as might be returned into the Treasury in exchange for silver certificates. Mr. Townshend wanted all Federal salaries paid in silver; Mr. Warner, all "Government expenses and obligations" paid in gold or silver coin without discrimination or favor, but without waiving the "right of option"—of course to pay in the baser metal. In the end the original proposition was adopted, and $20,000 more were sacrificed to the "Ohio idea." The bill also contains a provision that no part of the appropriation for marshals and their deputies shall be used in payment of services rendered at any election. On Saturday the House passed the Senate bill authorizing a joint committee to consider the question of increasing the accommodations of the Library of Congress within the Capitol, or of selecting a site for it outside; and on Monday, another tardy and perilously urgent measure—the Senate bill confirming the Ute agreement, but with amendments of an obstructive character.

The Senate's achievements have been the passage of the River and Harbor Appropriation Bill and Mr. Eaton's Tariff Commission Bill. Further debate on the latter measure did not add much to the general edification, but revealed more fully the fact that its chief opponents were the *ad captandum* tinkerers, who think there is no need of a commission to indicate certain immediate and sweeping improvements in the present tariff, and who ignorantly rant about the poor man's being taxed for his tea and coffee. They were, too, all or nearly all Democrats, including Messrs. Beck, Thurman, and Davis of Illinois. There was an unpartisan yet firm majority for keeping this commission out of politics by excluding Congressmen from it; but they were unable to prevent an absurd amendment ordering a final report in January next. Nothing could better illustrate the average legislator's idea of the ease of statistical enquiry. However, if the commission makes a beginning, doubtless it will not be hard to get an extension.

As much as one per cent. was bid in Wall Street during the week for the privilege of buying gold, at any time within one year, at par in lawful money. This means that the bidders believe that the difference between the bullion value of the silver dollar and the gold dollar will show itself in the domestic markets within a year. To do this the foreign exchanges must rule against the United States to an extent sufficient to draw hence a large amount of gold. When the gold dollars thus disappear the silver dollars will be forced into circulation. They will pass within the bounds of the United States at their legal-tender value, which is one hundred cents; but outside of the country they will be taken, as now, only for their bullion value, which of late has ranged between 87 and 89 cents; and the gold dollars will be worth more for use out of the country because of their larger bullion value, although their legal-tender value will of course remain the same as that of the silver dollar. The future value of the Treasury-note dollar, worth to-day 100 cents, because it is yet possible to get a gold dollar for it at the Treasury, will depend on two things—first, the kind of coin (whether gold or silver) with which the Treasury will pay it, and, second, on its prompt redemption by the United States Treasury. The value in the markets of the world of the silver dollar depends, of course, on the London price of silver bullion, expressed in gold prices. When anything happens (like unfavorable foreign exchanges sufficient to draw large amounts of gold from the country) to substitute in our own markets the bullion for the legal-tender value of the silver dollar, it follows that there will be what is called a premium on gold as compared with silver dollars, just as, before the resumption of specie payments, there was a premium on gold as compared with Treasury legal-tender notes; and it is in anticipation of this happening within a year that Wall-Street speculators are willing to pay for the privilege of "calling" gold at par—or, in other words, of exchanging silver dollars for gold dollars at the legal-tender value of each.

At the Stock Exchange there was a very decided reaction from the depression of the last few weeks, and the prices of stocks recovered from 1 to 15 per cent. This reaction was owing partly to the fact that speculation had gone too far on the "bear side," and partly to the fact that railroad earnings still are and are likely to continue very large, so far as the trunk-line rates contribute thereto, the managers of the trunk-lines having had another harmonious meeting. The money market was very easy for borrowers, although the banks added but little to their surplus reserve. Foreign exchange ruled near the gold-exporting point, but no gold was shipped. General trade continues to show a reactionary tendency from the extreme activity of the early part of the year, and mercantile failures are becoming more frequent. The crop prospects for this

country are very encouraging. Silver bullion closed at 52¼*d.* per oz., and the bullion value of the "buzzard dollar" here was $0.8875.

Mr. Gladstone, Lord Granville, and Lord Hartington have all three spoken in Parliament on foreign affairs. Mr. Gladstone denied that the Liberals when in opposition had assailed the Treaty of Berlin generally. What they complained of was that it was not executed and that it did not go far enough, and he declared it to be the intention of the present Cabinet to disabuse the Turks of the notion, which they had got from the course of the last Cabinet, that England was so deeply interested in the preservation of the Ottoman Empire that they could in the last resort always count on her support. But he wished also to rid the Turks of the notion that England wished to destroy Turkish sovereignty in Asia Minor. Lord Granville explained in what points the Treaty of Berlin had been left unexecuted by the Porte, calling particular attention to the failure to institute the stipulated reforms in Armenia, and announced that the Government had come to the conclusion that the only remedy was to be found in vigorous and concerted action on the part of the great Powers. As to what would happen afterwards, he had pointed out to the Turkish ambassador the extreme danger to Turkey of her failure to fulfil the obligations imposed on her by the Treaty, and desired him to warn his Government that if their counsels were disregarded, they would not fail to enforce them. Lord Hartington gave up the treaty of Gundamuck as dead, and said the Indo-Afghan boundary would hereafter be settled without any reference to it, and that Kandahar would probably be erected into an independent state under British protection, but without a British garrison. There will probably be no attempt made to keep a British envoy at Kabul. All the best Indian authorities are agreed that the news of what was going on among the natives could not be half as well obtained through such an officer as through the native "news-writers," generally Persians. These men pursue the trade which flourished in England in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, of making up letters of metropolitan gossip for those at a distance who can pay for them. They have long supplied the Indian press with the Persian, Afghan, and Central Asiatic news, and during all the late troubles in Afghanistan their letters were generally, we believe, found more trustworthy than the Government despatches. For instance, they sent word to India that General Roberts would be attacked by Mohammed Jan, when the general was flattering himself that all resistance was over.

The Ministry is, however, by no means having an easy time. The resistance about Sir Bartle Frere's recall, which seemed to have subsided, has revived, and, though it is not to take the form of a direct motion, the vote of his salary is to be resisted by at least eighty Liberal members in the debate on the estimates. The case against him will be found set out fully elsewhere in our review of Miss Colenso's book. The worst of it is that if the Cabinet quails before this revolt it will probably lead to others, and through them to that disorganization of the majority, through internal dissensions, which the Tories have always predicted, and on which they now count. We cannot help believing, however, that the present discontents are simply a passing expression of the disappointment which was sure to follow the tremendous hopes excited by the magnitude of the Liberal victory, and will disappear before the end of the session.

Mr. Goschen has been received by the Sultan, and has, by request, presented him with a memorandum containing the demands of the Powers, which are simply that he should execute the Treaty of Berlin as regards Greece and Montenegro and carry out reforms all over the Empire. The Sultan has replied, in substance, that he is much obliged to him and will think the matter over seriously. Of course, it is hardly anticipated that the Sultan will do anything in the matter, and therefore it seems to have been settled, or all but settled, that, after giving him a reasonable time for thought, there will be a conference of the Powers, at which Turkey will not be represented, which will decide what further action is to be taken. One thing will probably be done at once, by concert between the ambassadors at Constantinople, and without waiting for the more formal conference, and that is organize a commission, to be protected by a sufficient force, to trace the boundary between Turkey and Greece. The Montenegrin difficulty will have to be dealt with somewhat differently. There the boundary is traced, but the Albanians have occupied the territory ceded to the Montenegrins, and may have to be expelled by force; and the question will be whether the Powers will make Turkey supply this force or supply it themselves. However, according to present appearances, force may not be necessary, as the Albanian resistance seems to be collapsing, partly owing to the outbreak of dissensions between the Catholic and Mussulman tribes, and partly to that more potent influence, the exhaustion of their funds and supplies. Mr. Goschen appears, during his stay at Vienna, to have assured Baron Haymerle that to England the preservation of the Turkish Empire was not a paramount consideration; that what she sought above all things was the execution of reforms. But the Baron declared Austria was not ready to take this advanced ground, and that Turkey was just as dear to Austria as Bulgaria or Rumelia.

Prince Bismarck has received another serious check in the rejection by the Committee of the first section of the New Church Bill, which proposes to allow the Government to exercise its discretion in the matter of prohibiting the appointment to parishes of priests who are foreigners, or who have not taken the required university course in Germany. The whole bill has been opposed by Dr. Falk, under whom, when in office, the laws which it is proposed to modify were passed, and it is by the greater part of the National Liberals considered a distinct step in retrogression. But, besides the objections to the bill on its merits, there are objections to it perhaps not less powerful as a part of Prince Bismarck's new policy, which his recent speech in the Reichstag, after ten weeks' absence, was not calculated to remove. He made it in the character of a weary and sick man, who had built up the German Empire, and was addressing persons who ought to be as much attached to it and as proud of it as he, but who were somehow apparently working for its overthrow; and he warned them that if they were not more careful he would resign and leave them and it to their fate. This tone does not seem to succeed at present.

Rochefort seems not unlikely to have at last been overtaken by an appropriate fate, being in danger of death from a wound received in a duel. He has been living in Geneva since his escape from New Caledonia, but keeps in Paris a son, a lad of seventeen, who seems to be a chip of the old block, and to love a row in the streets. The latter accordingly took part in a fray caused, a few weeks ago, by a Communist demonstration, which the police had to suppress, and received more or less mauling, but was not injured seriously. His veracious father thereupon wrote a letter to the Prefect of Police, M. Andrieux, accusing him of having had the son "sabred" by the police in order to gratify his hatred of the father, and threatening when he saw him to slap his face, adding, with thorough Rochefort absurdity, that nothing better could be expected of a person whose brother-in-law had murdered a man in an unfair duel. Koechlin, the brother-in-law, thereupon promptly stepped forward and arranged "a meeting" with Rochefort, and being only twenty-nine, a good fencer, and of fine physique, while Rochefort is over forty and fat, he got under his guard and gave him a few inches of cold steel in the stomach. The story about the sword accidentally dropping from Rochefort's hand is probably concocted to save his reputation as a fighting man. There is nothing, as we said when he was in this country, at all remarkable in Rochefort's career. He is a smart and unscrupulous "newspaper man," of the third or fourth order, with an immense capacity for telling amusing lies, and probably in any country but France would never have been heard of out of the café he frequented.

THE REPUBLICAN CONVENTION.

THE long delay of the Chicago Convention in making the nomination has, of course, been due to the fact that the main interest of the body was centred in the contest between the rival aspirants to the office, none of whom is in any special manner identified with any principle or policy. The Convention itself was not dominated by any idea of magnitude or importance, or eager to carry into execution any prevailing sentiment. It was not swept by any of the enthusiasm which in 1856 and 1860 and 1864 marked the initiation of one of the greatest political revolutions of modern times. In those years the platform was everything, because it expressed the high hopes, the noble fears, and the unconquerable determination before which slavery was eventually to go down and the Union to be reorganized on a new and better basis. In 1868 the country was still shaken by the throes of the civil war, and doubtful as to the possibility of saving the fruits of so much blood and so many tears; and the man who had brought the war to a successful issue seemed plainly marked out for the task of assuring to it the peace and order for which it had struggled so long and endured so much. In that year, therefore, the platform was not of much importance and the candidate was of great importance, and was happily presented to the Convention almost by the force of events. In 1876 the situation had changed. About the permanence of the settlement which the war had made there was no longer any doubt. There was for all practical purposes everywhere complete acquiescence in its results. Industry had revived; speculation on an immense scale occupied the national mind; the taxation was more than sufficient to meet all the public burdens. But it was plain to be seen that the war had enormously enlarged the administrative machinery of the Government, and that during the long distraction of the national mind from the things of peace huge abuses had sprung up in nearly every department, which made investigation and reform emphatically the most pressing duty of the party in power. In that year, therefore, the candidate was clearly of minor importance; the platform, as containing the intentions of the party in the matter of putting the country on a sound basis, by revision of the tariff and reorganization of the immense civil service created by the war, by the reform of the currency and a return to specie payments, was of supreme importance. The war being fairly over, and the military leader who directed it returning to private life, the Republican party, which had conducted the war, was fairly called on to furnish the country with some indications of its competency to take charge of its peaceful and industrial interests, and those indications were of course to be found, if anywhere, in the platform. In brief, the party in 1876 took, or ought to have taken, what is called a new departure. It is, therefore, worth while to recall what it proposed to do in 1876, as distinguished, of course, from what it boasted of having done, and to compare it with what it has just proposed at Chicago. In doing so it is but fair to observe that it has not in the interval had possession of Congress, so that it is not to be held responsible for the continued existence of many of the abuses which it denounced in 1876. The comparison will, therefore, be mainly useful as a means of ascertaining and marking the drift of party sentiment, and the amount of reliance to be placed in party promises should the Republicans again come into possession of both branches of the Government.

In 1876 there was an act on the statute-book pledging the Government to resume specie payments in 1879. The Convention in dealing with the financial question called for the redemption of United States notes in coin at the earliest possible date, "by a continuous and steady progress towards specie payments"; but a resolution pledging the party to redemption on the day already fixed by statute was voted down, showing that it was not prepared to take any definite ground about the finances at all. Curiously enough, this evasive attitude towards the subject seems to be still maintained. Since 1876 the financial problem has been seriously complicated by the passage of the Silver Bill, so that we are now threatened with a forced cessation of resumption in gold and with the substitution of a silver for a gold or a mixed standard, and of a consequent fall of about twelve per cent. in the value of the greenbacks. It is still further complicated by the fact that the future of the greenbacks remains covered with uncertainty, and neither party has taken any ground upon the very serious proposal, which the continuance of the greenbacks in circulation impliedly makes, that the Government shall assume the novel and, as it seems to many, dangerous functions of a bank of issue. The Chicago Convention, however, while boasting of the rise of Government paper to "the par of gold" makes no mention whatever of the difficulties which threaten the continuance of this par, and makes no suggestion whatever about the silver question any more than if it did not exist.

A plank in 1876 laid down with much emphasis the doctrine that Senators and Representatives should not interfere with appointments, and that the tenure of non-political offices should be dependent on good behavior. All allusion to the subject was this year left out by the Committee, and a civil-service reform plank was only inserted through the vigorous remonstrance of Mr. Codman, a Massachusetts delegate, and after some resistance and with some marks of contempt. The demand of 1876, that no public money shall be voted for sectarian schools, is this year repeated, and made more definite by a proposal that the practice shall be prohibited by an amendment to the Federal Constitution. The demand of 1876 for "incidental protection" to American industry through the tariff is also repeated, but not a word is said of the need of any reform or revision of the tariff, which still bears all the marks of the haste and confusion with which it was first drawn up at the outbreak of the war, and is in most respects discreditable to us as a civilized people. The denunciation of 1876 of further land-grants and subsidies to corporations and private persons is repeated; so is the denunciation of polygamy; so is the promise to pay the pensions of the soldiers and sailors. But the promise of "respectful consideration" for the woman suffragists is not repeated, and, in fact, the claims of this interesting and energetic body of persons are entirely ignored. On the other hand, the suggestion of 1876 that Congress should investigate the effect of "Mongolian" immigration has this year grown into a demand that the treaty-making power of the Government should be used to "restrain and limit" such immigration. The "arraignment of the Democrats" is very much what it was in 1876. In this part of the platform the evasiveness and reserve and caution of the other parts of the platform are always thrown aside, and the drafters express their full thoughts in as plain and simple language as they can command. We do not gather from this year's platform that the Democrats are any wickeder than they were in 1876, but the list of their crimes is, of course, somewhat enlarged, and the danger of letting them have any offices is made more conspicuous.

We have here noticed everything in the platforms of both years which can be called a promise or a recommendation or a demand. The rest is simple boasting—a "pointing with pride," as it is called—about things with some of which the connection of the party is very remote indeed, as the construction of 51,000 miles of railroad between 1860 and 1874, largely with the money of unfortunate private individuals who lost a large part of it. It will be seen at a glance that the party has, in so far as the managers speak for it, actually, within the past four years, curtailed rather than enlarged the sphere of its duties and responsibilities. The reason is plain enough. It has not had it in its power to legislate, but it has had it in its power to discuss, to ventilate, to educate the voters into interest in and devotion to great questions. From anything of this kind, however, the leaders have sedulously refrained. The first two years of the present Presidential term they passed in denouncing and intriguing against President Hayes, and trying to bully or cajole him into surrendering his Cabinet into their hands and abandoning such efforts as he was making to reform the Administration. Since they gave this up in despair they have occupied themselves exclusively in perfecting

their respective Machines, with the view of obtaining control of the Convention which has just met. We can recall no period of four years in which the political leaders on both sides have done so little of their proper work of preparing public opinion to express itself through elections on questions of real national importance. The result is that the Convention has been wholly, or almost wholly, occupied in providing precautions, through procedure, against the success of intrigues on one side or another, which the friends of the candidates have been for over a year carefully preparing, and in making preparations for a final struggle between two of these candidates to whom the most intelligent and reflective portion of the party was well known to be opposed, and neither of whom was in any degree identified with any cause, principle, or idea of which it is now considered either the guardian or exponent.

THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE BLACKS.

THE negro "exodus," as it is called, has at last been enquired into and reported upon, though not fully; that is to say, the Democratic majority of the Senate Committee have summoned and examined one hundred and fifty-nine witnesses, who have given, on the whole, a very favorable account of the negro's condition at the South. But in order to procure this gratifying testimony they used the whole, or nearly the whole, of the appropriation, and left nothing for the minority to pay for a dismal account of it; so that we apparently shall not have the reverse of the picture from any official source. It does not, however, really make much difference, as there is no reason to suppose that the Republican witnesses would supply anything beyond accounts of election outrages, of the occurrence of which about election time, in certain States, we suppose no reasonable man on either side has any doubt. All the testimony taken, and all testimony of every kind which has fallen under our notice during the past four years, from whatever source, goes to confirm the view of the condition of the negro at the South which we have all along taken in these columns, and we would fain believe that with the substantial success of the "exodus" the subject will pass out of politics. A strong probability that the negro would have a hard time after the war was created both by the two great facts that he had been newly emancipated against the wishes of his white owners and neighbors, and that the society into which his emancipation introduced him was by no means what is called at the North a "law-abiding society." Any white man introduced into such a society in such a way would have found life very insecure and unpleasant. Any black man was *à fortiori* sure to find it insecure and unpleasant. That it was not even more insecure and unpleasant for the negro than it proved to be, was due simply to the tremendous depression brought on the whites by the war. The young white men were dead or maimed when the negro began to go about free, and the old white men were weary and dispirited. But for this it is very certain that the abolitionist accounts of the demoralizing effects of slavery both on blacks and whites would have received more confirmation from events than they did. For most assuredly no one who reads and believes the descriptions of Southern society on its moral side with which the anti-slavery agitation was fortified and pushed, and then looks at the wonderful peace and quiet with which that society at the South has become free and industrial, can avoid the conclusion that the war was a necessary preparation for the transformation. It must be confessed, too, that carpet-baggery was not without its uses in making the transformation easy. The whites were aided in accepting negro equality as a fact by being ruled and robbed by the negroes under Federal superintendence. It was not by any means a wholesome experience for the negroes, but it brought home to the whites in a way in which nothing else could have done the fact that the negro was really their equal in the eye of the law, and had powerful friends behind him, who would see that even as a robber he should not fare worse than a white man.

Since the carpet-bag period the society at the South has been, in all States in which the negroes are not in a majority, almost exactly what it is in all countries in which labor is plentiful, and the laborer poor and ignorant, and the employer short of money. If the plantations are worked on shares, and the planter keeps a running account with the laborer, the latter gets the worst of the bargain in various ways at the South, just as he gets the worst of it under similar circumstances everywhere else. There is probably no more prolific source of cheating or overreaching all the world over than the payment of wages in kind; and the negro suffers from it at the South, as the Irishman, and Englishman, and German, and Chinaman, and Coolies suffer from it, not because he is black but because he does not know how to keep accounts, and is improvident and unthrifty. The current account at the store, of which the Southern negroes complain much, is probably the worst burden he has to bear, because it not simply runs him into debt for goods purchased at exorbitant rates, but in many or most cases puts his growing crop into the hands of the creditor as a pledge, with the power of sale at such dates as the creditor may select. But here again the negro is paying a penalty of ignorance and improvidence and poverty from which his class suffers in all countries. The country storekeeper at the South is simply the equivalent of the village usurer in Ireland and in India. In both these countries the presence of the man who advances money or goods at exorbitant rates of interest or profit, and secures himself by liens on the land and the growing crops, and is ready to renew the loan as long as the security holds out, forms a difficulty in the way of perpetuating small landholding by which all legislators have been thus far puzzled. He has in India, among a population much thriftier and more industrious than the negroes, become an evil of the first magnitude, with which the Government is now going to make a desperate effort to deal. The problem is, of course, extremely difficult, as it consists in nothing less than saving many millions of free men from the consequences of their own folly in the management of their own affairs, without undue interference with their liberty. As matters stand the land of India is fast passing into the hands of the money-lenders and the legal owners becoming mere peons, working without hope for a bare subsistence and for the benefit of creditors who can never be satisfied. That the system should make its appearance in the South as soon as there appeared on the soil a very poor and ignorant population of laborers and small farmers, was what every economical observer would have predicted.

The remedy for it is the one to which the negroes themselves have resorted, to which the Irish resort, but which the Indian ryot is too conservative, and too closely tied to the soil by custom and tradition, to think of—emigration. The negro has doubtless been, in some degree, incited into it, as the Senate Committee maintain, by politicians telling him the story of his own wrongs. We think it not unlikely that many, if not most, of the negroes at the South had no idea how badly off they were until they heard of it from politicians seeking to make political capital for use at the North. Very likely, too, railroad agents or Kansas land speculators have spread wonderful stories, and supported them with chromos, of the luxurious reception which awaits the colored emigrant in Kansas and Indiana. But there is no more harm in bringing these agencies to bear on negroes than on Irishmen or Englishmen, on whom, also, they have been freely used. It is, probably, not easy to get a very ignorant man of any race to move from any place in which he has been born and bred without in some way kindling his imagination about the place he is going to, and in doing this there is invariably a good deal of exaggeration, to use a very mild term. But it must be remembered that the employers and landlords and creditors who see poor men going off in droves to seek to better their fortunes elsewhere, invariably assume that they have been put up to it by mendacious speculators and demagogues. This is as true of the Dorsetshire farmer or the Irish landlord as of the Southern planter or storekeeper. All such talk is of little moment, and would nowhere repay parliamentary enquiry. It has been investigated here, mainly owing to the regrettable importance of the Southern negro as "capital" to the Republican party at the North during the last ten

years. When the negro began to remove, his removal was hailed as ample justification for "waving the bloody shirt," and when produced as such justification the Democrats went to work to show that the emigration was wholly the result of political machinations. Neither story was true. The negro is not as badly off as Republican politicians would have us believe; but he is not as well off as Southern politicians would like to persuade us. Nor is it to be taken as settled that the old Slave States are the best places for the colored people to work out their fortunes in, even if born and bred there. They have bettered their condition by leaving Africa, and it is very likely they will benefit it by leaving the South. As a general rule, the best place for a poor man is the place in which labor is in most demand and is paid for in *cash*, and in which the market for the produce of the small farmer is most accessible. If this be true, there is hardly any Northern State in which an enterprising and industrious negro would not be better off than at the South. The shiftless and lazy would probably, owing to the difference of manners and of the climate, be worse off; but it is hardly worth our while to vex ourselves as to what becomes of the latter.

It must be observed, finally, that the massing of the blacks in South Carolina, Mississippi, and Louisiana is a positive misfortune for both races in these States. It gives a ferocious bitterness to political differences, and keeps the State constantly exposed to a danger which can only be, or at all events only is, guarded against by gross electoral cheating or intimidation; and this supplies the annual crop of "frauds" and "outrages" which exercise such a very injurious influence on national politics at the North. Besides this, whatever the future may have in store for it, it is certain that the negro race has not yet displayed much inherent capacity for social and political advancement when withdrawn from all extraneous influences. Dense masses of colored people, therefore, removed from the influences of white ideas and usages and opinions, such as are to be found in the States we have named, are very likely to become centres of barbarism or retrogression, from which both the States and the nation at large must suffer. It is for the best interests of both that the negro population should be more widely diffused. When it is, the "negro problem" will cease to give any trouble and will disappear from politics, and the negro himself be delivered from that most demoralizing condition of a victim with plenty of good people to wail over him and pump him for stories of wrongs, in which so strong an effort is now made to keep him. The reception which he finds for "outrages" is, in fact, cordial enough to convert even a religiously brought-up white man into an arrant impostor, and it is greatly to the credit of the colored race that they have not made the scenes of slaughter which some of them describe more numerous and ghastly.

PARLIAMENTARY WEAKNESS IN FRANCE.

PARIS, May 26, 1880.

WE cannot conceal the fact that the majority of the Chamber of Deputies has shown but little political ability at the beginning of the summer session. On the 13th of May last they nearly overthrew the ministry of M. de Freycinet, without intending to do so, but accidentally, as one may break a porcelain vase. It would be idle to attempt to deny that under existing circumstances the overthrow of the present Cabinet would have had most serious consequences, for a ministry composed of the Extreme Left would be impossible; it would be in such flagrant opposition to the Senate that it would necessitate the dissolution of the Chamber, when the country would be convulsed by the struggle of contending factions.

It was about an unimportant article of the Public Meetings Bill that the crisis was nearly brought about. In order to explain the disadvantages of our political situation, I think it necessary to state the reasons which render the majority so difficult to govern. First, then, it is unquestionable that the majority of deputies have evinced certain unfortunate tendencies, such as errors of judgment, and irregularities of political conduct. They are too eager to carry out reforms in our legislative domain. The right which every deputy has of introducing bills has been greatly abused. The Chamber is beset by all sorts of propositions concerning the different branches of our political or social organization. They have not known how to choose between the most pressing reforms and those which can be deferred; not only is precious time thus lost, but subjects of conflict unexpectedly arise with the ministers, who, on being presented with these hastily prepared bills, are obliged to resist such improvised innovations as seem dangerous to them. The same precipitate spirit characterizes the way they set about the most indispensable reforms, which are alike incumbent on the Chamber and the country. The results are two serious difficulties: first, the Chamber provokes the resistance of the Senate, without whose vote no motion can be definitively passed, and thus, having undertaken too much, they are debarred from advancing a step. They could have effected partial progress, but they wished, at once, to carry out considerable reforms. Hence they have gained nothing, and their fine projects will sleep in the catacombs where those still-born bills are deposited which cannot pass through the ordeal of double deliberation. Besides, supposing these noisy reforms were voted by both Houses, the country would be but ill prepared to receive them and they would not take root.

An example will illustrate one of the objectionable sides of this innovating, radical method. There is before the Chamber of Deputies a very important bill on primary instruction. The Government asked that they should be content with two reforms, for which opinion is ripe both in the Senate and the country, and which are very considerable, since their aim is to make primary instruction gratuitous and compulsory. Still, the Republican party, and with reason, wishes to institute secular instruction, so that the public schools may be open to all citizens without favoring any particular Church. This third reform is not yet generally accepted, as are the other two, and if it is added to them it will cause the bill to founder in the Senate, so that the first two urgent reforms will be postponed indefinitely because the Republican party cannot forego the pleasure of setting forth their principles. Hitherto the majority of the deputies have not swerved from that absolute and chimerical policy whose maxim is "all or nothing." The other day M. Louis Blanc, the famous democrat, declared from the tribune that he preferred the postponement of a law, however excellent, rather than to forego the attainment of an absolute ideal. This dangerous and sterile impatience, however, is only imputable to an ardent minority. If our deputies were consulted individually, most of them would complain of such wrong-headedness even after having pledged their votes to these intemperate partisans.

We may find the cause of the pressure so many reasonable men endure in the origin of the Chamber of Deputies itself. It was elected, as you know, after the alarming crisis of May 16, 1877—a *coup d'état* which failed. As the danger then was great, all the Republican forces were obliged to coalesce in order to confront the enemy. The consequence is a habit of separating themselves as little as possible, even when victory declares itself for them, and of maintaining what is called the union of the Left to the utmost of their power. As always happens in similar situations, the most ardent have the preponderance, because they are the most passionate and noisy. It is to be hoped that at the next elections the different fractions of the Republican party may recover their independence, and that the wise and prudent, by grouping together, may counterbalance the impatience and temerity of radicalism. We must also acknowledge that our mode of election is defective; the districts are sometimes too small: petty local influences have too much weight, and send to the Chamber too many mediocre men, who are what we designate as "cocks of the village." The smaller a constituency is, the greater is its hold on its representatives. We need, therefore, to give our entire approval to the project of extending the electoral basis by substituting the departmental ballot for the district (*arrondissement*) ballot. We shall thus more easily escape mediocrity in the deputies and servility towards the electors, those two scourges of inexperienced universal suffrage.

There is yet another cause of the unfortunate state of the French parliamentary world, and one which prevents each successive ministry from wielding the natural authority becoming to the leaders of the majority: the man who really possesses the power will not assume the responsibility of it. The true political chief is M. Gambetta; he has chosen the honorary post of President of the Chamber of Deputies. Thence he rules, but from behind the scenes. I will describe in one of my next letters the actual rôle of the great republican orator in the politics of the day. It is high time to put an end to this precarious state of the Republican Government, which reminds us somewhat of the Italian Left. The lesson which the latter has just received at the recent elections, from which it came out much weakened, deserves to be pondered in France, for the Right here do not accept our institutions as final, as they do in Italy. They wish to

destroy them, and their success would be full of peril to the present régime. They have shown themselves disposed to profit by every division of the Left, and in the last debates they voted with the Extreme Left. This is not the first time monarchists have been seen to urge on political exaggeration, and the present tactics of the so-called party of order reminds one of a curious episode in the history of our great Revolution. During the month Prairial, in the year III., when the terrible invasion of the National Convention occurred, the President, Boissy d'Anglas, an ex-noble, at the moment he was assailed by the mob in the chair he occupied with such unshaken courage, saw a man wearing a red cap, whom he had remarked as one of the most active fomenters of the riot, approach him and say: "Well, marquis, do you find this hot enough?" On looking at him closely he recognized a fellow-nobleman who had formerly been his friend, whose object in exciting the rioters to the utmost violence was evidently to disgust the country with the new constitution. This marquis is still in existence; he is to be found amongst the Right, and republicans would do well never to forget him when they are tempted to overstep the limits assigned by prudence. É.

Correspondence.

EX POST FACTO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Conkling's resolutions offered at Chicago on Friday, aside from showing a general purpose to intimidate the Convention, illustrate another of his peculiar ideas. The first resolution, viz.:

"*Resolved*, as the sense of this Convention, that every member of it is bound in honor to support its nominee, whoever that nominee might be, and that no man should hold his seat here who is not ready so to agree,"

was carried by a vote of 716 to 3. He then offered the following:

"*Resolved*, that delegates who have voted they will not abide by the action of the Convention do not deserve to vote, and have forfeited their votes in the Convention,"

which he afterwards withdrew, "as there was some doubt" as to the dissenters' position. Passing over the assumption that those who voted not to expel bolters were themselves bolters, and admitting that the first resolution obtained the force of law, it could only operate forwards from the declaration of the vote, and not backwards. But Mr. Conkling's doctrine is that voting against a proposed rule is violating the rule, if it chance to carry. When, then, does he suppose that the resolution began to have the force of law? Apparently when it was conceived in the recesses of his "peerless intellect"—a very natural idea for a believer in personal government. M.

Cambridge, June 4.

DR. DEXTER AND HIS ASSAILANTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the spring of 1876 I published a little book of less than 150 pages, entitled 'As to Roger Williams and His "Banishment" from the Massachusetts Plantation; with a few further words concerning the Baptists, the Quakers, and Religious Liberty: a Monograph.' In due course of time it received the careful, and in some cases extended, notice of some of the ablest critical journals of the day, with results remarkably favorable to its general quality. The Boston *Advertiser*, Springfield *Republican*, Providence *Journal*, *Christian Register*, and New York *Independent* were among this number. The veteran critic of the New York *Tribune* gave it marked commendation; so did the *North American*, the *International*, and *Scribner's Monthly*, while the *Nation* declared its weighty opinion that the author "appears fully to have established" his general positions.

I recount these facts because of the singular zeal—sometimes deepening and darkening into something very like ferocity—with which a few hostile critics have pursued the volume and its author. That I may not be suspected of over-statement as to this I append a few exact quotations from scraps cut from criticisms of this description which have come under my eye. The book, or some part of it, has been denounced as a "Munchausen story"; as "revealing a spirit of bigotry and intolerance befitting a Spanish inquisitor"; as "quibbling of the pettiest kind"; as "petty and ridiculous"; as made up "by garbled quotations and the suppression of facts": and as "a gross misrepresentation"; while one critic in especial has repeatedly insisted that it makes "a dishonest use of the sources of history." The author has in this connection been personally stigmatized, directly or indirectly, as a "self-complacent," "reckless," "pretentious," "illiberal," "ill-tempered," "abusive," "outrageous," "untrustworthy," "quibbling," "dishonest," "discreditable," "morally incapable," and "exceedingly weak" "traducer"; "not in a fit moral state," who can put forth no claim "as an honorable man, to say nothing of him as a Christian minister." One weekly Baptist newspaper, called *Zion's Advocate*, of Portland, Me., has returned to the matter at twelve different times which have come to my knowledge, and has published more than eight columns upon the subject, having, on at least five separate occasions, made it the topic of its leading editorial. Not satisfied with this, or with inspiring utterance in, if not writing through, other Baptist journals, the editor of this *Advocate*, Rev. H. S. Burrage, has once attacked the 'Monograph' over his initials in the *Tribune*, insisting there that I had misstated the facts on one subject, and adding the insinuative comment: "A writer who misstates the facts at one point will not hesitate to do the same at other points." Still further, once over his initials, and once over his full signature, he has made appeal to the public of the *Nation* against me, in the first letter accusing me of "misrepresentation" and a "garbled statement"; in the second charging me with "doubly" misleading my readers while attempting to show that I have made "three" endeavors to explain my "error," which he would have it appear are all different and all unsuccessful.

Under these circumstances I respectfully ask space for the briefest possible reply, to the end that I may not appear to your wide constituency, by silence, to confess the justice of these accusations.

And, in the first place, I ask to have it borne in mind that my whole tractate is of the most condensed description; that only *eleven* pages are devoted to all the "further words" which it utters "concerning the Baptists"; and that there is not a line of its text in which I have breathed any surmise or hinted any judgment upon the topic concerning which I am especially arraigned—to wit, the quality of the whipping of Obadiah Holmes by the authorities of Massachusetts. The columns of insinuation and vituperation to which I have referred have been called forth almost solely by a note [No. 478] of eight lines on page 121, in which—it is curiously remarkable—I had no intent of expressing any opinion whatsoever of my own upon the matter.

Having stated in the text that Holmes had received thirty stripes, it occurred to me to add the most condensed reference to different judgments which eminent historians had expressed concerning that transaction. I accordingly cited my old classmate and life-long friend Arnold's opinion that it was cruel, and on the other side Dr. Palfrey's suggestion that the whipping might have been mitigated. And that my readers might know on what this hope was founded I introduced the two passages from *Ill Newes* to which he refers. To make the matter exact and clear I will put Dr. Palfrey's words and my own side by side:

Dr. Palfrey [*Hist. N. Eng.*, ii. 353].	Monograph [*Note* 478, p. 121].
When he [Holmes] relates that the scourging which he endured "was so easy to him that he could well bear it; yea, and in a manner felt it not," and that he "told the magistrates, 'You have struck me as with roses,'" * the reader ventures to hope that the executioner had been directed by his superiors to vindicate what they thought the majesty of the law at little cost to the delinquent.	Arnold thinks he was "cruelly whipped" [*Hist. R. I.*, i. 235]. But Clarke says "it was so easie to me that I could well bear it, yea, and in a manner felt it not"; and that he told the magistrates after it was over, "You have struck me as with roses" [*Ill Newes*, etc., 22]. Dr. Palfrey suspects the executioner had orders "to vindicate what they thought the majesty of the law at little cost to the delinquent" [*Hist. N. Eng.*, ii. 353].

* *Ill Newes*, 22.

Here, of course—as always, since I discovered the blunder after it was too late to correct it in the plates—I admit having erred by forgetting for the moment that, although it was Clarke's book from which the words were taken, they were still from Holmes's letter in that book; so that I was really making Clarke, instead of Holmes, the recipient of the whipping. I cited Dr. Palfrey's references before I quoted him, because, at the moment of writing, it seemed to me that I could intelligibly condense the whole into less space in that than in any other way. In regard to the main question here at issue, whether Arnold or Palfrey were the nearer right in the view taken, I did not suppose myself to be expressing any judgment whatever—surely did not intend to express any. This, partly because, in some respects and as to some points, there is conflict of testimony; but mainly for the reason that the density of the plan I was pursuing in the composition of the volume ruled out what seemed to be a side issue.

With regard to the whole matter, then, I have simply to say that I was in error—which I have ever freely acknowledged—as to the name aforesaid; and I have no doubt I must have been excessively clumsy in

the construction of a note which has given color in many minds to the thought that I was expressing an independent judgment, when the extent of my purpose was to bring under my reader's eye, in the most compact form, the opposing views already expressed by wiser men than myself. It does not appear to me that I misrepresented history, or that I garbled facts. I certainly did not do so with malice aforethought.

And whether, under all the circumstances, a fair and honorable criticism would pursue such a note year after year, and through column after column, insisting to put upon it a sense utterly and always repudiated by its author, is a question which—not intending to revert to the subject—I cheerfully submit to all candid, not to say to all Christian, men.

HENRY M. DEXTER.

GREYSTONES, NEW BEDFORD, June 5, 1880.

THE INTRANSITIVE VERB "CLAIM."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While thanking you for your notice, at p. 349, of 'Doctor Indoctus,' I hope you can allow me space for a short comment on one of your criticisms there. Quoting from me the words "since he *claims to sit* in judgment on the expression," you remark that the locution italicized, "though often condemned, could long ago appeal to respectable usage on both sides of the water." What you first speak of as a fact, namely, that the locution has been condemned, is a brand-new contribution to my knowledge of the details of ignorance. As to my having authority for it, that I most certainly have. And the authority is of the highest.

Neither Dr. Johnson nor his last editor, Dr. Latham, recognizes *claim* as an intransitive verb. Dr. Johnson, under the transitive verb *claim*, gives, however, a passage from Locke, in which the verb is plainly intransitive, but used absolutely. That passage is adduced by Dr. Worcester, under the heading of "*claim*, v. n."; and Dr. Webster's latest editors have profited by his example.

Of *claim*, as I have used it, there is so early warrant as that of Roberd Mannyng, of the fourteenth century, in a passage cited by Dr. Richardson. I have by me, also, four passages, equally in point with that of Mannyng, from Lydgate; one, a little later, from Sir John Fortescue; three from Lord Berners, of Henry the Eighth's time; and others from 'Ferrex and Porrex,' Shakspere, Lord Herbert of Cherbury, etc., etc. Nor has the use in question ever been in abeyance since it arose. Paley, in the last century, exemplifies it in the preface to his 'Philosophy.' In our own century it has had the sanction of William Taylor, Henry Hallam, Sir Henry Holland, Dr. Whewell, Bishop Thirlwall, Cardinal Newman, Cardinal Manning, George Eliot, Professor Newman, Bishop Ellicott, Sir H. S. Maine, Sir J. F. Stephen, Mr. Leslie Stephen, Mr. John Morley, Mr. Matthew Arnold, Mr. Herbert Spencer, the Rev. Mark Pattison, Mr. William Minto, and Mr. E. A. Freeman. It is simply to avoid tediousness that I cut short this list of references.

From Lord Macaulay I might bring forward four passages to my purpose; two of them being in his 'Essays,' and the other two in his 'History.' We read, in the latter work, ch. xvii.: "At length, in 1805, the last bishop of that society which had proudly *claimed to be* the only true Church of England dropped, unnoticed, into the grave."

In Dr. Webster's Dictionary, ed. 1848, we find, under "*claim*, v. t." (*sic*): "2. To assert or maintain as a right; as, he *claims to be* the best poet of the age." This, as if considered to authorize bad English, has since been struck out by Dr. Webster's editors.

I should define the *claim* under consideration by "profess, as of right," and, sometimes, by "assert a right." The profession denoted, and so the assertion, may be either expressed or implied.

The use of *claim* which seems, on several grounds, objectionable, is that which drops from it the idea of right, title, or due, and retains only the idea of predication or contention; as in the subjoined sentence, from Prof. A. S. Hill's 'Principles of Rhetoric,' p. 163: "Herbert Spencer *claims* that such a principle is to be found in what he calls 'economy of attention.'" Prof. Hill forgets that, at p. 8, he distinctly ostracizes the solecism which he himself lapses into.

But many reputable American stylists do as ill. Mr. J. R. Lowell, for instance, has: "We may *claim* that England's history is also ours" ('My Study Windows,' p. 64). And Dr. O. W. Holmes writes: "The end of all religious discussion has come when one of the parties *claims* that it is thinking or acting under immediate divine guidance" ('Memoir of J. L. Motley,' pp. 206, 207).

That, for some time, Englishmen, here and there, have been giving into this corruption,—together with its variation, *it is claimed that*, etc.,—has not escaped me. The proofs are at my elbow.

The intransitive *claim*, in the sense of "maintain," and followed, like *maintain*, by *that*, is not, however, altogether modern. In a work published in 1648, entitled 'Relations and Observations,' etc., by the cryptonomous Theodorus Verax, there occurs, at p. 41 of Part I.: "About one thousand apprentices, wholly unarmed, came down . . . with another petition, . . . therein *claiming that* to order the city militia was the cities birthright," etc.

Only in America, as yet, a vagabond "*claims to be* a tramp," meaning merely that he "declares himself to be" one.

Your obedient servant, F. H.

P.S.—'Doctor Indoctus,' though a few copies of it have left my hands, is not yet published, and its present imprint will be removed from its title-page.

MR. STOUGHTON'S ARTICLE ON RUSSIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Would it not have been proper for Mr. E. W. Stoughton, in his article on "Popular Fallacies about Russia" in the June number of the *North American Review*, to have acknowledged himself more deeply indebted to Mr. Cobden than would appear from the fact that he quotes him professedly in only two places? The portion of the article to which I refer extends from the words "At the death, in 1572," on page 543 of the *Review*, to the words "property of the Polish peasants," on page 545, a space covering over two pages. In this portion of his article Mr. Stoughton, although stating that his information is taken "from reliable sources," nevertheless gives the reader the impression that he has himself examined the authorities which he quotes, and that all which is not in quotation marks is his own work.

And yet I think I can show, in the first place, that Mr. Stoughton has taken his quotations from Cobden's essay on "Russia" without original examination on his part; and, in the second place, that what would appear by the absence of any quotation marks to be Mr. Stoughton's original work, is nevertheless taken almost verbatim from the same authority.

With regard to the first matter, I will premise that there is not a single quotation made by Mr. Stoughton in that part of his article which Mr. Cobden has not also made in his pamphlet, excepting, of course, where Mr. Stoughton professes to quote Cobden himself.

Moreover, on page 545, where Mr. Stoughton quotes from the "Cabinet Cyclopædia-History of Poland," a comparison of his extract with the original discloses the fact that, in two places, the quotation is not a correct transcript thereof, while it is in precisely those two places that Mr. Cobden's quotation from the same authority also differs therefrom. In Mr. Stoughton's article, and in Mr. Cobden's pamphlet, the words "*cost*" and "*insurrection of* 1830" occur, while the corresponding words in the original are "*expense*" and "*present insurrection*."

Again, on page 544, Mr. Stoughton says:

"The wise reform [*sic*], says an able historian, Herren [*sic*], 'that gave to Russia, at the hands of Peter the Great, the seeds of a power which has since grown to such greatness, and which, if adopted by Poland, would have, in all probability, conducted her to a similar state of prosperity, were absolutely rejected by the profligate nobles, because they must necessarily have involved some amelioration of the fate of the people.'"

I have looked carefully through Heeren's 'Manual of the Political System of Europe and its Colonies' for this quotation, and have failed to find it, while, on the other hand, I find in Cobden's pamphlet (page 96) the following:

"Those wise reforms that gave to Russia, from the hands of Peter the Great, the seeds of a power which has since grown to such greatness, and which, if adopted by Poland, would have, in all probability, conducted her to a similar state of prosperity, were absolutely rejected by the profligate nobles because they must necessarily have involved some amelioration of the fate of the people."

Mr. Cobden refers in a foot-note to Heeren's Manual as his authority for the above paragraph, *which is, however, original with him;* and I think it will be apparent to every one that Mr. Stoughton, in making use of Mr. Cobden's pamphlet, has been led by this reference into imagining that the above sentence was a quotation from Heeren, and that he has inserted it in his article as such without further examination.

With regard to the second matter—viz., that what purport to be Mr. Stoughton's original remarks are nevertheless to be found in Mr. Cobden's essay—the following table will furnish the best evidence that can be

offered. The edition of Cobden which I have used is "'The Political Writings of Richard Cobden.' London: Wm. Ridgway. 1878."

Stoughton.	*Cobden.*
1. "At the death, in 1572, of Sigismund Augustus, the last of the race of hereditary Polish kings, the nobles—between one hundred and fifty and two hundred thousand in number—formed a constitution, exclusively for their own benefit, which did not even notice the existence of the great mass of the miserable people who were slaves, in which it was provided that the nobles should pay no taxes, should have power of life and death over their vassals, should hold all offices—civil, military, and ecclesiastical—and in choosing their king should lay him under any restrictions they pleased" ("Popular Fallacies about Russia," *North American Review*, June, 1880, p. 543).	1. "At the death, in 1572, of Sigismund Augustus—the last of the Jagello race, in whose house the throne of Poland had been hereditary—a new constitution was framed. . . . In this constitution—which was concocted for the exclusive benefit of the aristocracy, and did not even notice the existence of the great mass of the wretched people, the slaves—it was agreed, amongst other enactments, that the nobles should pay no taxes: that they should have the power of life and death over their vassals; that all offices, civil, military, and ecclesiastical, should belong to them; and that, in choosing whom they would for a king, they were privileged to lay him under what restrictions they pleased" ('Polit. Writ. of Richard Cobden,' article "Russia," chap. ii. p. 94).
2. "They met ready to sell themselves to the highest bidder at the court of Austria, France, Saxony, Sweden, or Brandenburg" (*Id.* p. 543).	2. "The members of the diet . . . were ready to sell themselves to the best bidder at the courts of Vienna, France, Saxony, Sweden, or Brandenburgh" (*Id.* p. 94).
3. "One universal scene of corruption, faction, and confusion reigned" (*Id.* p. 544).	3. "Poland became one universal scene of corruption, faction, and confusion" (*Id.* p. 94).
4. "Almost every election was the signal for a civil war, usually lasting during the greater portion of the next reign, so that for the entire period of two hundred years, from the first election to the partition, Poland was the 'constant scene of anarchy, and its attendant miseries—fire, bloodshed, and famine'" (*Id.* p. 544).	4. "Almost every election became the signal for a civil war, which usually lasted during the greater portion of the next reign; and thus, for the whole period from 1572 down to 1772, when the first partition was perpetrated by the three neighboring powers, Poland was the constant scene of anarchy, and its attendant miseries—fire, bloodshed, and famine" (*Id.* p. 95).
5. "The historian who recounts the miseries showered upon the millions of slaves during this career of sacrilege and rapine—for religious fanaticism armed itself with torture and the sword—exclaims, 'Oh! that some strong despot would come, and in mercy rescue these people from themselves!'" (*Id.* p. 544).	5. "The historian who recounts the calamities that were showered upon the unhappy millions, the slaves, during this career of rapine and sacrilege, exclaims, 'Oh! that some strong despot would come, and in mercy rescue these people from themselves!'" (*Id.* p. 96).
6. "And in the order issued to the troops to quell it they were required, under severe penalties, to respect the houses and property of the Polish peasants" (*Id.* p. 545).	6. "And, in the order issued to the Russian troops employed to quell the insurrection, they are required, under severe penalties, to respect the houses and property of the Polish peasants" (*Id.* p. 100).

I will only add that, after eliminating from that portion of the article which is now in question those parts for which Mr. Stoughton seems to have been indebted to Mr. Cobden, the amount of original work is reduced to a minimum of about 13 lines, scattered through the two pages, and serving merely as a thread on which to string the pearls which the author has gathered.—Truly yours, B. McE. W.

New York, May 31, 1880.

NEW ENGLAND TOWN MORALITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some years since our town government was carried by "The Friends of the People." The other party bore with it because they hoped the finances could not be touched, since the treasurer, who had filled the office for some years, and in whom all had the greatest confidence, would probably not be turned out. For some reason the books of the treasurer were examined, and a deficiency of over $8,000 found. The town did not indict him, his bondsmen making up what had been stolen, for the general feeling of the town was: "We don't want to be too hard on the man, for after all he was not so very bad—only a little weak; he was under the control of his partner, who made him do it. But if we could only reach the partner without harming the treasurer we would show some of the indignation we feel."

Not having the town's money any longer to fall back upon, the firm immediately went into bankruptcy. The partner soon found a situation, and now as then is a power in the town, flourishing as formerly on all public occasions, and making after-dinner speeches, etc., while the thief, after being in different occupations, is now in the employ of the United States, assisting in taking the census.

What hope can we have for the future while honest (?) Eastern towns permit and sanction such public morality? *

June 1, 1880.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & CO. publish immediately the English translation of Kossuth's 'Memories of My Exile' and 'An Outline of the Public Life and Services of Thomas F. Bayard.'——R. Worthington announces 'Curiosities of Puritan Nomenclature,' by Charles W. Bardsley, and 'Science of Voice Production and Voice Preservation.'——J. W. Bouton will receive subscriptions for 'The Parliamentary Album and Political Atlas of Great Britain and Ireland for the General Election of 1880.' This work offers in return for the hundred dollars asked for it the portrait of every *candidate*, with a biography and his election address, statistics in relation to his constituency, an analysis of the rival opinions of the press during the elections, and plans of the old and new Houses of Commons before and after the elections, with seats designated. The editor fairly insists on the more than ephemeral value of this memorandum.——S. W. Tilton & Co., Boston, issue several series of what are called Design Cards, of which the first six are for studies in decoration and the seventh (specimens of which we have just received) for studies in general water-color painting. The cards are about six inches by three and a half, and in two sets, one done in faint outline only and the other colored with deftness and precision by Miss Hale, the artist. To the many people of leisure who have recently added painting in water-color to the category of their fancy-work the advantages of these cards will be obvious. The use of them differs from the juvenile practice of coloring wood-cuts in being at once more difficult, since the colors are washed in and not laid on; and less free, since there is a copy to be followed and directions how to do so. It is clearly desirable that the details in the originals should be as distinct as possible, and those before us have been so successful in this respect that their enforced lack of general effect need mislead no beginner with them into supposing the art of painting in water-color learned when they have been copied with never so great fidelity. This latter also, we can assure them, will be found a far less easy task than it may superficially appear.——Copies of sketches by Queen Victoria and the Prince Consort will by permission accompany an essay on "Queen Victoria and Art" in a forthcoming number of the *Magazine of Art* (Cassell, Petter & Galpin).——Loring, Short & Harmon, Portland, have issued a fifth edition of Mrs. Clara Barnes Martin's 'Mount Desert, on the Coast of Maine.' The text has been slightly enlarged, and the work remains, with its pretty photographic vignettes and tasteful typography, the most elegant of our summer guide-books.——Geo. A. Bates, Salem, Mass., has in preparation 'Marine Animals of Our Coasts and Bays,' by Jas. H. Emerton, and 'Illustrations of the Handiwork in Stone, Bone, and Clay of the Native Races of the Northern Atlantic Seaboard of America,' by Dr. C. C. Abbott.——We are glad to learn that Mr. Ismar S. Ellison's recent address on the Germans of Buffalo, N. Y., which we noticed last week, will be issued in pamphlet form by the Historical Society, and that a German edition is also in preparation.——The National Conference of Charities and Correction will be held at Cleveland, Ohio, on June 29 and the three following days.——The Concord (Mass.) Summer School of Philosophy will open for a second term on Monday, July 12, and will continue for five weeks. All students should be registered at the office of the Secretary, Mr. F. B. Sanborn, on or before July 1.——Baltimore is to celebrate, under the lead of the Maryland Historical Society, its one hundred and fiftieth anniversary during the week ending October 9. The Society's programme of exercises includes a civic procession, an assembly of delegates from the various local charities, a musical festival, an historical oration and poem, and a dinner. In the midst of the electoral heat of the coming fall such a celebration will serve a doubly useful purpose. With the aid of the Historical Society and the Johns Hopkins University it cannot fail of success.——The latest among the rapidly growing addenda to the 'Bibliographie Moliéresque' is M. F. Bouquet's 'La Troupe de Molière et les deux Corneille à Rouen,' which, while it contains nothing very new or important, sets straighter than before the story of Molière's sojourn in Normandy.——For the first time, in its May number, *Polybiblion* undertakes a summary review of theatrical literature—"Théâtre Contemporain." The reviewer signs himself only with initials "V V."——In the admirable "Nouvelle Bibliothèque Classique" of M. Jouaust—admirable because the books in it are well edited, beautifully printed, and really cheap—a much-needed selection from Chamfort's writings has just been published. Chamfort's fame rests rather on his wit than on his literary works. For the first time the maxims are arranged in order; they fill the most of the first volume, as the anecdotes and witticisms hold the chief place in the second. They can be recommended to all lovers of La Rochefoucauld and Douglas Jerrold, for, odd as the juxtaposition may seem, it may serve to define Chamfort's quality. There are indexes to each volume. Some of the anecdotes and jests have the directness and freedom of the French Revolution, to the understanding of which they contribute greatly.——The second *livraison*, Bernard-Chabron, of Vapereau's 'Dictionary of Con-

temporaries' (F. W. Christern) is noticeably less rich in new names than the preceding. By far the largest space (5¼ pp.) is allotted to M. de Bismarck, whose career is related without abuse, but with unconcealed antipathy. The Duc de Broglie fills two pages. American names are few. Simon Cameron is admitted, but the hereditary genius shown in his son Don does not secure mention for the latter even in small capitals. Mr. Blaine is not yet a "contemporain." The death of H. C. Carey has been overlooked.——We learn from the *Portefeuille* that Oudemans's invaluable 'Middle and Old Netherlandish Dictionary,' on which the author has bestowed forty years' labor, will be finished next month by the issuing of Part VII., the most bulky of all. The publisher, H. W. Van Marle, of Arnhem, has been ten years in bringing it out.

—Colonel Higginson's 'Young Folks' History of the United States,' which was translated some years since into German, has now had the good fortune to be remarkably well translated into French under the title, 'Histoire des Etats-Unis racontée à la jeunesse,' by two Parisian professors of history, MM. Ovrée and Varembey. The book forms a part of Hetzel's new educational library; it is very neatly printed, and is singularly free from those misprints which disfigure almost every French book when dealing with English proper names. So far as we have examined the translation, it is exceedingly accurate, though ingenuity is sometimes required to give a French equivalent for current popular phrases and nicknames. "Mad Anthony" Wayne becomes "*Antoine l'Enragé*"; "Old Rough and Ready" Taylor is "*le vieux Risque-tout*"; the "Latter-Day Saints" become "*Saints des Seconds-Jours*"; and Monroe's "Era of Good Feeling" is "*L'ère du bon sentiment.*" Some words are left untranslated, as being hopelessly English or American; for instance, *Meeting, Mob, Gentleman, Wigwam, Far-West.* The work is interesting as furnishing, so far as we can now recall, the first tolerably complete history of the United States in the French language; those of Laboulaye and others being only partial. It is evidently edited with great care, and is furnished with some notes on subjects especially interesting to Frenchmen, as Lafayette, Cornwallis, the early French colonization, and other matters. The well-known historian, M. Henri Martin, supplies a preface.

—One who follows the educational literature of the day in this country often has his attention arrested by the reports concerning the public schools of St. Louis. A little pamphlet just issued by Mr. Wm. M. Bryant, Principal of the Madison School of that city, and printed by Geo. I. Jones & Co., seems to us to merit a very wide circulation. The title is fairly indicative of the contents: "Catalogue of Apparatus belonging to the Madison School, and purchased from a fund arising from the annual picnics of the school." These picnics were begun in 1875, and, from the names of the citizens who have freely co-operated to make them successful, it is clear that the German fondness for outdoor enjoyment finds a natural vent in them. A small charge to the upwards of thirteen hundred children, and a slightly higher one to their parents and friends, have sufficed to meet all expenses and to leave a small surplus. This surplus, though quite incidental to the social and festive objects of the picnic, Mr. Bryant had the happy thought to apply in procuring permanent additions to the equipment of the school. He began with purchasing a fine magic-lantern, or sciopticon, with appropriate views, and as the years went on he was able to purchase valuable philosophical apparatus, and a number of books wisely designed to assist the teachers in preparing themselves for their classes, and capable of being read also by the pupils as a special privilege after lessons have been diligently learned. By a requirement of the Board of Education, weekly lectures on general history are now delivered in all the St. Louis schools, but at none, we dare say, under better auspices than at the Madison. We commend these evidences of an enlightened spirit to all educators.

—We have received Part I. of Carl Seelbach's 'Proverbial Treasury,' containing in its 190 pages "2,600 English and 2,300 selected foreign proverbs," translated from more than fifty different languages, ancient and modern (New York: Seelbach Bros., 89 White Street). The author's idea of a proverb is sufficiently liberal. What he gives us is sometimes a short fable; sometimes a definition, as this from W. R. Alger: "Aphorisms are portable wisdom, the quintessential extracts of thought and feeling"; sometimes a text for a discourse, like Franklin's "A Bible and a newspaper in every house, a good school in every district—all studied and appreciated as they merit—are the principal support of virtue, morality, and civil liberty"; sometimes a shibboleth, as, "Am I not a man and a brother?" Nor does a proverb in Mr. Seelbach's eyes require the seal of currency; he ventures, on p. 44, to make one himself—"A good wish is never too late." Any "gem of thought" that he meets in his reading seems capable of turning out a proverb, so that after Shakspere, and Locke, and Wordsworth, and Fuller, and Byron, and J. C. Hare, and Cowper, and George Herbert, it is not even startling to find Gov. Briggs among the coiners of proverbs, and the New York *Tribune* illuminating the same page with Arthur Helps, and William Penn, and Dr. Young, and Solomon, and Rochefoucauld—in this fashion: "A man of no known character would be believed sooner than a man of known bad character." The arrangement of the proverbs is alphabetic, but not according to the leading word. First we have all the *a*'s, then the *all*'s, the *an*'s, the *as*'s, the *at*'s, etc.—a curious grouping, and one which makes it hopeless to try to estimate the completeness of the collection. The letter *a* just fills this first part. Typographically the book is sadly defective: there is no system in the abbreviations, nor in the indication of the source or authorship of the proverbs. Generally the nationality is printed in small capitals, but so is the name of H. W. Beecher after the very first "proverb," as if he formed a geographical as well as a theological category (cf. "saints, sinners, and the Beecher family"). Finally, the author's unfamiliarity with English has caused him to overlook the vulgarity of a few of his examples. Somewhat at random notes are added, often at considerable length, by way of illustration or explanation; and these relieve a little the monotony of the list. The collection, with all its drawbacks, must be pronounced meritorious. Probably no such number of foreign proverbs was ever translated into English for one work.

—In imitation of the successful *Paris-Murcie* the *Art Interchange* of this city has recently published, "for the benefit of famine-stricken Ireland," the *Art Autograph*, of which the contents are contributed by well-known public men, editors and artists, each after his kind. It is an interesting publication, and, aside from the wish that its sale may be large, which every charitable person will feel, it is of value both as a memento and intrinsically. Some of the reproduced drawings by American painters are excellent, and lend a really artistic interest to what might easily have degenerated into a cheap and perfunctory affair; among them we may specify, perhaps, Mr. Vedder's characteristic attempt to depict the abstract quality of supernatural weirdness, and the drawing of a mask of the late Mr. Lincoln taken in 1860, by Mr. Douglas Volk, which is an impressive thing. The autograph "sentiments" are from a range of eminent personages wide enough to include President Hayes and Mary Anderson, but nevertheless, both in its omissions and selections, apparently somewhat hap-hazard. The "sentiments," also, are of wide range; some of them being, superficially at least, open to the imputation—surely pardonable, however, in such circumstances—of irrelevance.

—Mr. Marshall, the well-known line-engraver, has on exhibition in Union Square his painting of "Jesus of Nazareth," which is a colossal head and shoulders without any accessories. Apart from its size, it is large and "important"; perhaps no one who sees it will fail to be impressed by its dignity and the genuineness of the painter's conception, and it is within the truth to say that it is entirely worth seeing. This, however, is not saying that it is entirely successful, and, indeed, it may be safely granted that to be entirely successful a "portrait" of Jesus of Nazareth painted in New York in 1880 would need to be a very remarkable work. The difficulties with which the painter has to contend are obviously great: on the one hand, the conventional face has held its own so long, and, we may add, so well, that some tribute to it the most original of new conceptions must pay; on the other, any variation from the settled type must be a matter of the greater difficulty from the fact that the imagination is thus fettered at the outset. In other words, an essentially new face runs the risk of not being recognized; and one only slightly varied, the risk of being esteemed trivial as a new conception. Mr. Marshall seems to have, no doubt unconsciously, compromised in these respects. Apparently he essays a certain amount of historical portraiture by making the hair, beard, and eyes black, and the whole countenance unmistakably Jewish; but as historically the question is only one of probabilities, in this departure he may be considered original rather than "realistic." Nevertheless the lower jaw and beard are of the conventional type, and any one who chooses can test the correctness of our judgment that the whole is not thoroughly satisfactory by shutting off these with his hand and seeing if it is not they after all which identify the countenance. Above the chin the face looks like that of a well-conditioned young Jew, and indeed it has, perhaps, too Hebraic a cast to suit the average Gentile ideal of the Saviour. For the rest, it is painted in the manner and with the feeling of an artistic engraver who has a delight in color as exhibited in the work of the best colorists, and who has therefore displayed wisdom in paying careful direct attention to tone, gradation, and

so on, instead of using his brush with the freedom with which familiarity alone can endue a painter's handling—or, indeed, his technique in the broadest sense.

—The new Metropolitan Concert-Hall, opened a fortnight since, promises to prove an important addition to the resources of the city in the way of amusement. The development of fashionable summer beer-gardens in New York has been attended with hosts of difficulties. At one time Theodore Thomas seemed to be firmly established at the Central Park, and the music which he gave there was as good as any which could be heard in the world. The place, however, was rather remote, and the so-called "garden" bore an unpleasant resemblance, even when decorated with colored lamps, to an ordinary back-yard. The enterprise, we believe, never proved very successful, and, at any rate, the Thomas concerts came to an abrupt end, and Mr. Thomas went to Cincinnati. They were succeeded by the conversion of the railroad depot in Twenty-seventh Street into a garden, which as a beer-garden was really very fine. But the music was generally poor, and except on rare occasions the vast enclosure had an empty look that was rather forlorn. It resembled too nearly one of those halls in Western cities in which national conventions are held, without a convention. It had, in fact, great capacities, which were never properly made use of. Since the recent accident to the building it has got a bad name and is threatened with demolition, but those who have watched its fortunes for the past few years will always retain pleasant memories of its Gilmorean music, its Titanic cascade, its vast array of tables and boxes and rustic chairs, its serpentine paths, its loud-voiced soloists, its agile cornet-players, its world-renowned artists of all kinds. This garden, however, was never more than a half-success. It was followed by another attempt in Twenty-third Street, which has proved completely successful. Messrs. Koster & Bial have a concert-hall and a garden; but their garden, as must almost necessarily be the case in the lower part of the city, is merely an enclosure surrounded with high walls, which make thorough ventilation out of the question. Besides this, for some reason, the Twenty-third Street Concert-Hall has never become fashionable as either Thomas's or the Madison Square Garden was fashionable. Profiting by all these experiments, the projectors of the Metropolitan Concert-Hall determined to construct their place of amusement on a new and original plan. The first difficulty about any place of the kind in New York is the weather. What people desire to do is to spend the evening out of doors. What they must be ensured against is exposure to the rain. To combine these two apparently opposite requirements was the object to be attained. It has been secured by utilizing the roof of the building as a promenade. Round three sides of the building extends a roof wide enough to afford room for tables and chairs and a walk besides. This affords a cool place for the evening, provided the weather is good, where the music can be heard almost as well as inside. Besides this, the main hall has a sliding roof which can be opened in a few seconds, and which affords perfect ventilation for the centre of the building. Inside, the arrangements are very much those of a large music-hall, with seats near the music, galleries, and private boxes. In addition to all this there is a restaurant, but no bar. This is of itself a distinct step in advance, as the bars connected with the beer-gardens hitherto established in New York have been the main objection to them. For music, the managers have secured the services of Mr. Aronson, whose orchestra is very good, and who leads fairly well. It is hardly to be expected that we should ever have such music again as Thomas used to give, and the popular selections of Mr. Aronson are quite enough for warm summer evenings. The new concert-hall has opened in a very promising way, and its substitution of the roof for the back-yard as a place of evening recreation may be said to make a new and auspicious departure in concert-hall architecture in New York.

—Mr. Wilkie Collins, in the current *International Review*, follows up Mr. Matthew Arnold's recent *Fortnightly* article in behalf of an international copyright law in quite a different temper; whereas Mr. Arnold affected to hope something from the ultimate development in us of "the spirit of delicacy" and scouted the notion of any natural right in the premises, Mr. Collins bases his "Considerations" on the ground of common justice, and, by implication at all events, seems to care very little about "the spirit of delicacy." The editors of the *Review*, indeed, accompany his article with a note explaining in effect that they believe in international copyright, but are not responsible for Mr. Collins's intemperate tone. Nevertheless, the latter protests that he is "cool," and contrives to be moderately entertaining as usual, if not to be unusually instructive. His main notion, however, the axiom with which he sets out, we may say —namely, that American publishers are highwaymen—is hardly to be accepted in this country, since there are several of them of whom the contrary is notorious; and one may venture the wish that he had really attempted to do what, under some curious hallucination, he fancies he has done—"clear away the extraordinary accumulation of delusions under which the unfortunate subject of copyright has been smothered in recent years." Any one treating this "unfortunate subject" at this date ought to recognize two circumstances: first, that enough has been written about it to raise a presumption against a new writer's having anything new to say upon it; and, second, that it is by no means ethically or practically what is called "a plain case," to be disposed of "out of hand." If Mr. Collins had had any general idea to enforce, such as Mr. Arnold's view about cheap books and education, or any distinct remedy to propose, his paper might have been equally objectionable on grounds of taste, but would have avoided the almost humorous aspect of inutility and purposelessness which it actually has.

—There are, of course, various kinds and dignities of what the French call "causerie," but they may be roughly divided into the personal and the impersonal sort, of which the latter includes social and literary essays, both current and standard, that discuss the results of observation and reflection, whereas the former expresses for the most part the emotions which different phenomena excite in the mind of the writer. To personal "causerie," for example, belong the essays of Elia, the letters of Mérimée, the "Roundabout Papers" of Thackeray; to it also belong some recent contributions by Mr. James Payn to the *Nineteenth Century*, which are worth notice for that reason chiefly. For, though Mr. Payn has long been a prolific and more or less entertaining novelist, and the *Nineteenth Century* has for some time been in evident need of a sprinkling of light literature, it is difficult to see why Mr. Payn should have been appointed "causeur" in ordinary, as it were, to so august a periodical. The difficulty is increased when, instead of the social article which we do not know that he could not do to perfection, we find him writing the "roundabout paper" for which he has no apparent aptitude. To make one's own emotions, little conversations with young ladies, little jokes and fond conceits, and favorite little turns of literary expression, acceptable to the public, one must be either a public man or a genius. Even with both these qualifications failure is not infrequent—the personal "causerie" of Dickens, for instance, finally reached a point at which it began to pall upon his public. And Mr. Payn has made the mistake of not perceiving this, and of chatting to the readers of the *Nineteenth Century* in a personal way which is calculated, we should think, gradually to change the austere character of its clientèle and bring it into fellowship with that of the *Atlantic Monthly's* "Contributors' Club."

—Mr. Payn's method of procedure is a common one, and typical enough to be described or, rather, illustrated. He secures, in the first place, a mild paradox as a theme, and then treats this in a half defiant, half deprecatory way, with the constant intimation that—though, considering their obvious soundness, it is singular they are not universal—these are his opinions and nobody else's, and he is prepared to be set down as a fool if the reader pleases, which he knows very well the reader will consider absurd. In a recent article on "Sham Admiration in Literature," for example, he maintained the thesis, already sufficiently popular it might be thought, that one should stick to one's own opinion in defiance of the consensus of competent criticism. In a paper on "The Pinch of Poverty," in the last *Nineteenth Century*, he admits at the outset (in two pages) that absolute want is worse than straitened means, but he thinks the "pinch" as well as the "grip" of poverty unpleasant, and proceeds to discuss it in this wise: "I don't believe in bachelors ever experiencing the pinch of poverty"; he has heard them complain of it at the club while ordering extravagantly, "but, after all, what does it signify even if they were reduced to cockles?" The case is different with the girls of large families with moderate incomes; "I have known some very charming ones" who, when occasionally guests in certain mansions, "trembled when the officious lady's-maid has meddled with their scanty wardrobe." Indeed, "in the investigation of this interesting subject, I have had a good deal of conversation with young ladies" who have been very obliging in point of full information, besides giving it "in a manner so charming that, if it were common in witnesses generally, it would make blue-books the most delightful description of reading." One of these considered it a "pinch" to be obliged to wear black mittens when other girls wore long, white kid gloves, and Mr. Payn says, "I must confess I have a prejudice myself against mittens; they are, so to speak, 'gritty' to touch; so that the pinch, if it be one, experienced by the wearer is shared by her ungloved

friends." The essay concludes with: "A dinner of herbs where love is, is doubtless quite sufficient for us; only there must be enough of it, and the herbs should be nicely cooked in an omelette." All of which indicates the popularity among Mr. Payn's fellow-countrymen of playfulness as such.

—Louis Joliet, to whom, along with Marquette, the credit of discovering the Mississippi, after De Soto, is usually, and in all likelihood justly, ascribed, made two maps to illustrate his journeyings, neither of which has hitherto been printed. A third, which seems of earlier date than the others, has lately been published by M. Gabriel Gravier, President of the Norman Geographical Society, and author of various works touching early American exploration. This newly-found map is a careless piece of work, in which parts of the country which were perfectly well known to Joliet and many of his contemporaries are set down with an inaccuracy which can only have proceeded from haste. It settles no disputed question, and is chiefly interesting for the indications it gives of the change in its author's political attachments. In it he pays his court to Count Frontenac by naming the valley of the Mississippi *Frontenacie*, and calling the Mississippi itself *Rivière Buade*, that being the Count's family name. Afterwards, when a coldness grew up between him and his former patron, he styled the river *Rivière Colbert*, and the adjacent country *Colbertie*. M. Gravier gives a careful analysis of the newly-found map, and a close comparison of it with other contemporary maps. Its value consists chiefly in its being the only specimen of Joliet's cartography that has ever been given to the public.

LIPPINCOTT'S GAZETTEER.*

THE first edition of this Gazetteer appeared in 1855; the second was issued in 1866, and the preface claimed for it that "every portion of the work" had been "subjected to a careful revision"; the edition before us is stated on the title-page to be "new," "thoroughly revised, re-written, and greatly enlarged." A glance of comparison suffices to justify a part of the new claim. The Gazetteer of 1880 is different from its predecessor in extent, print, paper, and binding, and all the difference is greatly in its favor. A closer examination also reveals the fact that the new edition has been subjected to a revision careful to a degree, and has been partly re-written, of neither of which advantages the second issue was ever entitled to boast, as we might show abundantly from the statistical portions. In other more important respects, moreover, the faultiness of the revision of 1866 renders the comparative merits of the latest edition the more conspicuous. The extent of the former neglect is strikingly illustrated by the following: In 1855 Moldavia was "a state of South Europe, . . . under the suzerainty of Turkey and the protection of Russia." And so was Wallachia. Each was "governed by an elected prince named the Hospodar." Moldavia was situated between "lon. 25° 18′" and "28° 18′ E." Its area was "estimated at 18,000 square miles." By the peace of Paris, of 1856, the Russian protectorate was abolished, and a portion of Bessarabia was detached from Russia and annexed to Moldavia, extending the latter to lon. 30° 15′ E., and increasing its area by several thousand square miles. In 1861 the permanent union of Moldavia and Wallachia, under the name of Rumania, and under the rule of one prince, was definitively proclaimed. Of all these changes since 1855 the "careful revision" of 1866 knew nothing; in that year's edition of the Gazetteer Moldavia and Wallachia remained separate principalities, under Russian protectorate and two hospodars, with area and extent exactly as in 1855; no such title as Rumania (or Roumania or Roomania) is to be found in either the main book or the supplement. The edition of 1880 has obliterated this crying defect by inserting an article "Roumania," historically supplementing the articles "Moldavia" and "Wallachia"—unfortunately, however, in so defective a manner that neither the act of union nor the reign of Couza is mentioned.

The reference to the events of 1877–78 as affecting the status and territorial conditions of Roumania is correctly worded. So is also the reference to the changed condition of Bulgaria. Servia's declaration of independence in 1877 is also mentioned. But everything else belonging to Servian history is despatched in four lines. Two lines cover all the history of Bosnia, down to 1879, and eleven words that of Herzegovina, down to 1878. The notice of the last-named country is one of those—and we cannot suppress the remark that such are exceedingly numerous—which are neither "thoroughly revised," nor "rewritten," nor "enlarged." Not even this much are we told, that the Herzegovinians are Slavs. Montenegro has been more carefully looked after. Its northernmost geographical latitude, however, is marked without due regard to the change of boundaries wrought by the Treaty of Berlin. The same is the case with the southernmost latitude of Bulgaria, which is left as it was in the earlier editions, though the annexed territory south of Ghiustendil (or Kostendil) extends that country southward beyond "lat. 42° 8′." Ghiustendil, however, has been correctly changed from a town of "Room-Elee" into "a town of Bulgaria." The city of Batum and the Armenian towns of Ardahan, Artvin, and Olti have also duly been entered as possessions of Russia, which they became by the treaties of 1878. That Alaja-Hissar is still designated "a town of European Turkey, in Servia," is a slip probably owing to the insignificance of the notice. What is less pardonable is that the Servian name of that town is, under the Turkish head, called Kru*schovatz*, and in the respective references Kru*jevacz* and Kru*shovatz*, while the only correct form is Kru*shevatz*. Eastern Rumelia is strangely called "a tributary province of Europe."

Little notice has been taken of the military events of 1877–78. Plevna has been inserted, with the brief remark: "It has been besieged and taken from the Turks by the Russians in 1877," and Shipka Pass as "a famous pass near the centre of the Balkan Mountains"; but Poradim and Gorni Studen, renowned as imperial headquarters during the struggle round Plevna; Dubnik, the capture of which decided the fate of that stronghold; Elena, Kamarli, Zevin, and many other names made memorable by the same war, are entirely ignored. There is no reference to the siege of Erzerum, and Kars is wrongly stated to have been taken in 1878. In regard to the Franco-German war of 1870–71, we notice the omission of Spichern, Vionville, and Rezonville, while Wörth, originally and now a German town, is strangely entered as "Woerth-sur-Sauer," and "Le Mans" is given without a reference to the great battle of January 11 and 12, 1871. Under "Königgrätz" there is no reference to the battle of Sadowa, which the Germans so often designate by the former name, and "Sadowa," which mentions "the great Prussian victory of July 3, 1866," does not tell us over whom the Prussians triumphed. "Kulm" and "Sedan" speak of defeats, but mention no surrender; "Vilagos" has no historical reference, and Kápolna is forgotten. Leuthen is amply noticed as a village "where, December 5, 1757, Frederick the Great defeated the Austrians," and Daun's victory over that monarch at Kolin is as fully stated; but Kunersdorf, where Frederick suffered a terrible rout, and his great triumph at Rossbach are ignored.

Much more attention has been bestowed upon events of the American Civil War, which, incredible as it may appear, the Gazetteer of 1866, with its "Appendix," most completely forgot. The references to that war, in the work before us, are comparatively numerous, but not numerous enough, and unequal as to correctness and fulness. Under "Pea Ridge" we find this detailed and accurate statement: "It was the scene of a battle in March, 1862, between the Union forces under General Samuel R. Curtis and the Confederates under General Van Dorn. The former remained master of the field." "Stonewall" Jackson's capture of Harper's Ferry is still more minutely told. The statements under "Chancellorsville," "Charleston," "Chickamauga," and "Nashville" are equally, or almost equally, full and accurate. Under "Bull Run," on the other hand, the commanders in the two battles are unnamed. Under "Gettysburg" there is no allusion to the fighting on July 1. Under "Fredericksburg" neither the day of the battle nor the commander of the Confederates is mentioned. Concerning the engagements at Winchester there is only a vague phrase without a date. Who was victorious at Cedar Creek we are not told. Under "Pittsburg Landing" we read that "a great battle was fought here between General Grant and General A. S. Johnston, April 6 and 7, 1862"—a statement doubly wrong as to the second day, as Johnston fell on the 6th, and Buell commanded instead of Grant on the 7th. Under "Fair Oaks" we are told that "in the vicinity was fought a bloody battle on May 31, 1862"; that the battle is also known as the Battle of Seven Pines; that it was continued on June 1. But who commanded and who kept the field, is not stated; nor is the name Seven Pines to be discovered elsewhere. To make this worse, the notice "Chickahominy River" speaks of the same engagement as fought in June, ignoring the first day. Under "Stone River" even the mention of the year in which the protracted combat on the banks of that river took place is wanting. The battle of Pleasant Hill, fought April 9, 1864, is placed in April, 1863. No allusion is made to the siege and capture of Wilmington; nor is there any to the battle of Springfield, or Wilson's Creek.

* 'Lippincott's Gazetteer of the World. A complete Pronouncing Gazetteer or Geographical Dictionary of the World. Containing notices of over one hundred and twenty-five thousand places. With recent authentic information respecting the countries, islands, rivers, mountains, cities, towns, etc., in every portion of the globe. New edition, thoroughly revised, re-written, and greatly enlarged. By a number of able collaborators.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1880. Royal 8vo, pp. 2,478.

The freshness of the new edition in regard to more properly geographical matters concerning the United States is apparent on almost every page, in spite of the fact that the statistical data of the census of 1870 had to be used in a great majority of cases. New descriptions of American States, towns, etc., have replaced the old ones, and the Gazetteer actually includes a "vast number of places which have either entirely sprung up since the issue of former editions or have of late, by their growing importance, become entitled to a notice." Nothing is, perhaps, more characteristic of the rapid dissemination of new settlements in this country, as well as of the attention with which the editors of the new Gazetteer availed themselves of the latest official communications on the subject, than the circumstance that four American Plevnas, all of course named after the Plevna of 1877, are recorded, besides two Osmans, named after its defender. The fulness and correctness of the new descriptive portions—whether referring to this or to other countries—must naturally vary according to the ability and fidelity of the "collaborators," a strict editorial control of the whole being almost impossible, and uniform rules as to the use of materials and selection of matter almost equally so. Strict uniformity would, in fact, be a detriment to the work, by rendering its readable portions unbearably monotonous. That single compilers will abuse the latitude necessarily granted them, some by copying without examination and others by sacrificing important points to topics more easily handled, is an almost unavoidable evil. It is only in tangible matters and on salient points that the editors can be made responsible for not "going behind the returns." They are, however, decidedly to be blamed for not demanding new research on many a topic which obviously called for it, or for not consistently introducing new results of enquiry. Thus, the altitudes of mountains (Catskills, Carpathians, etc.) are too often left in the new edition as they were stated in that of 1855, regardless of more recent and more authoritative measurements; and where alterations have been made, bewildering contradictions have not always been avoided—witness the following: Under "North Carolina" we read of "the Black Mountains, of which Mitchell's Black Dome, or Clingman's Peak, attains the height of 6,660 feet." "Clingman's Peak" gives the same height according to Guyot, and the height of 6,941 feet according to T. L. Clingman. Under "Black Mountains" we read that Clingman's Peak rises 6,941 feet, and "another peak, measured by Prof. Guyot and called by him the Black Dome, has an altitude of 6,707 feet. . . . This was formerly known as Mitchell's Peak." "Mitchell's Peak" gives only the latter figure, and also tells us that the peak so called "is sometimes called the Black Dome."

The greatest defects of the Gazetteer, however, are those for which the first edition is primarily responsible, and it sinned chiefly by trying to know too much—a weakness peculiar to most gazetteers in the English language. The remote reason of this lies in the poor orthography of the language, and in the multiplicity of transliterations and forms, correct and incorrect, which it gives rise to. Thus, to cite one of the worst examples, our Gazetteer, in all its editions, has this notice: "Lenczy, . . . [pronunciation]. Lenczyc, ... or Lenczyca, . . . , written also Lentschek and Lenchek, a town of Poland . . . ," and also references to "Lenczy" under "Lentchek" and "Lentschek," though not under "Lenchek." Now, we can positively assure our readers that of all the six forms given only one, Lenczyca (pron. Lentchitza), is correct in any European language whatever; all the others owe their existence to hasty copying and blundering attempts at transliteration. The beauty of the thing will best be appreciated by an American reader if he imagines to himself a foreign gazetteer with entries like the following: "Uti, Utic, or Utica, also written Uthtik or Uthik, a town of New York"; "Uthtik, a town of New York; see Uti"; "Uttik, a town of New York; see Uti." Keith Johnston's Gazetteer—"revised" edition of 1867—was so badly perplexed by this *embarras de richesse* concerning the names of that Polish town that it cut the community in twain, and, giving two notices, placed "Lenczy or Leczyca," with "3,370" inhabitants, in the government and "80 m. W.S.W." of Warsaw, and "Lenczyca or Lentschitza"—this is the second new name—with "5,955" inhabitants, in the government and "83 m. W.S.W. of Warsaw."

The superabundant knowledge of our Gazetteer is also displayed—in all the editions alike—in its foreign and ancient lore. To the heading "Sardinia," for instance, the following is attached: "It. *Sardegna*, . . . [pronunciation]; Fr. *Sardaigne*, . . . ; Ger. *Sardinien*, . . . ; Dutch, *Sardinie*, . . . ; Sp. *Sardeña*, . . ., or *Cerdeña*, . . .; anc. *Sardin'ia* and *Ichnu'sa*; Gr. Σαρδώ, *Sardo*, or Σαρδών, *Sardon*, 'Ιχνοῦσα, Ichnousa." This is at least all sound, if all superfluous; but the similar appendage to the heading "Jerusalem" is far from being equally correct. Instead of finding how the city was called by the Jews, we learn that Jerusalem is "also *Kadushah* in Hebrew," which is to be reduced to this, that the Jews designated the city as *holy* (Heb. *Kedoshah*); and also that one of its Greek and Latin names was *Καδύτις*, *Cadytis*, which is certainly incorrect, though not entirely without foundation. No other Greek or Roman writer knows the name Cadytis but Herodotus, and it is only presumed, and presumed only by some, that by it he designates Jerusalem. A similarly useless piece of classical lore is appended to "Teliscof" (*sic* for Tel-Eskof), the name of an insignificant place near Mosul, which is located "in a large and fertile plain, celebrated for the passage of Xenophon over it and for the battle of Arbela, gained by Alexander the Great." A little more pruning of the original matter, with more enquiry as to the soundness of what must be preserved, would have made the new publication a much better work than it is; but even as now issued it is by far the greatest American gazetteer, and probably superior in many ways to the majority of English productions of a similar character and extent.

A NEW ENGLISH ANTHOLOGY.*

THESE volumes are earnest of the satisfactory execution of an almost ideal literary scheme, description of which is itself nearly a sufficient characterization. According to the preface, it is briefly "to supply an admitted want—that of an anthology which may adequately represent the vast and varied field of English poetry." It is certainly fair to argue that the lack of such an anthology implies the want of one, and we suppose most persons who have reflected about the matter at all have felt a desire for something better than and different from the many existing collections of English poetry, from Chalmers's complete one on the one side to such volumes as the admirable but professedly incomplete 'Treasury' of Mr. Palgrave on the other. The marks of the present collection are its copiousness, which is as great as is consistent with critical selection; its comprehensiveness—it includes every name that is representative or that can be called prominent for any reason; and its fund of criticism. This last is, so far as we remember, unique in an English work of this kind. Each poet is assigned to some critic specially qualified to write about him, and we have thus, before the selections from each, a biographical paragraph and a brief critique by an expert, so to speak. The first two volumes begin with Chaucer and end with Dryden, and the "critical introductions" are distributed as follows: The editor, Mr. T. H. Ward—Chaucer, James I., Watson, Barnfield, "Elizabethan Miscellanies," Drummond, Alexander, Cowley; Prof. Skeat—Langland; T. Arnold—Gower, Lydgate, Occleve; W. E. Henley—Henryson, Samuel Butler; Prof. Nicol—Dunbar, Lyndesay; A. Lang—Douglas, "Ballads," Constable, Chapman; the Dean of St. Paul's—Sackville, Spenser; A. C. Bradley—Marlowe, Beaumont, Fletcher; George Saintsbury—Warner, Daniel, Drayton; J. Churton Collins—Hawes, Skelton, Wyatt, Surrey, Hall, Lord Herbert; Mary A. Ward—Sidney, Brooke, Dyer, Davies; Prof. Dowden—Shakspere; Prof. Hales—Gascoigne, Southwell, Raleigh, Donne, Giles Fletcher, Wotton; William Minto—Lyly, Peele, Marston, Dekker, Ford; Prof. A. W. Ward—Ben Jonson, Cartwright, Oldham, Dryden; W. T. Arnold—Browne, Wither, Habington; G. A. Simcox—Sandys, Herbert, Crashaw, Vaughan; Pattison—Milton; Goldwin Smith—Marvell; Edmund Gosse—Greene, Lodge, Carew, Herrick, Suckling, Lovelace, Waller, Randolph, Denham, Stanley, Davenant, the Earls of Roscommon, Dorset, and Rochester, Mrs. Aphra Behn, Sir Charles Sedley, and Otway.

Two volumes which contain these essays, besides abundant selections from the poets they characterize, have a value and importance that are obvious. They are, of course, not designed for the beginner in English literature, or their distinctively critical vein and the freedom of it could be objected to. Of the tact and discretion shown in making the different selections it is difficult to speak confidently; perhaps no two persons would perform this task alike, and no one could so perform it as to satisfy all readers; but it appears to us to have been executed here impersonally, and when that is secured and the different editors are experts, it may be said of criticism in detail of their labors that it is likely to have been anticipated and carefully considered by them. It is different with the various "critical introductions," and any one may suggest shortcomings or blemishes in these with a freedom tolerated by the clearness of the standard in each instance. The presumption, however, that if you employ men of known competence your work will be well done is confirmed

* 'The English Poets. Selections with Critical Introductions by various Writers, and a General Introduction by Matthew Arnold. Edited by Thomas Humphry Ward, M.A., late Fellow of Brasenose College, Oxford.' Vols. I. and II. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1880.

by an examination of these essays in detail. They are admirably brief; each writer has apparently kept an eye on the purpose of his article, and we have in consequence very little surplusage; indeed, the error, if there be any in this respect, is on the side of meagreness in one or two instances. On the whole, to any one who reflects upon the prolixity and the subjective tendency of much contemporary English criticism contributed to the principal reviews, the excellent form of most of these introductions will prove a grateful surprise; they very pointedly illustrate the progress made in literary journeyman-work in England since 1865, say, when the author of the "General Introduction" here was effectively complaining of its quality. The superiority of the contributions of some of the younger men perhaps serves to explain this improvement, and is in itself an agreeable sign. As good as anything in the volumes is Mr. Andrew Lang's paper on "Ballads," and Mr. Gosse's on Herrick, say. Mr. Gosse, it will have been noticed, is a voluminous contributor, but we find nothing perfunctory in his most trivial paragraphs; both he and Mr. Lang write with directness, simplicity, and acumen, both view their uncommon special erudition as an equipment merely, and both have, as it were, the air of being understood by their audience exactly enough to preclude the necessity of saying anything trite and superficial; to the friends of English criticism, indeed, no indication could be more grateful than that of this confidence in an audience of cultivated perceptions as well as of seriousness. How different from the general run of contemporary criticism, for example, is this by Mr. Gosse on Waller, which almost suggests an entire essay (vol. ii. p. 273):

"English poetry is studded with the names of those who have possessed imagination and warmth of fancy, but who have failed to survive, in popular estimation, through their lack of style. Waller, on the other hand, is a signal example of the converse law, that a writer cannot subsist on style alone. The decay of reputation seems in the latter case to be less rapid, but it is in the end more fatal, for it is beyond the hope of reparation."

Contrast this with Mr. Pattison's laborious ingenuity (vol. ii. p. 296) about descriptive poetry being a contradiction in terms, because a landscape "cannot be presented in words which, being necessarily successive, cannot render juxtaposition in space. To exhibit in space is the privilege of the arts of design." Hegel could not write about fine art more amiss. Or contrast such criticism as this of Mary A. Ward upon Sidney (vol. i. p. 344), "Other writers are sweeter, more sonorous; no other love-poet of the time is so real," with the perfunctory text-book ring of Mr. J. Churton Collins's chanting of Surrey's genius (vol. i. p. 255), "Its characteristic qualities are grace, vivacity, pathos, picturesqueness." Better still, when one considers the usual way in which the euphuists and "the false worship of diction" are spoken of, are such sentences as these of Mr. Gosse on Lodge (vol. i. p. 425):

"This languid, elegant literature was of great service in refining both the language and the manners of the people. There was something false, no doubt, in the excessive delicacy of the sentiment, something trivial in the balanced rhythm and polish of the style; but both were excessively pretty, and both made possible the pastoral and lyrical tenderness of the next half-century."

Fancy Professor Henry Morley countenancing anything that was "excessively pretty." Another instructive contrast is that of Mr. Lang's rapid, easy, appreciative, and even luminous essay on Chapman (vol. i. p. 510) with Mr. T. Arnold's on Gower (vol. i. p. 102), which has qualities not unlike those usually ascribed to Gower himself. It is difficult to see why the editor should have franked the trite surplusage beginning "The moralist declaims, the satirist paints: we are convinced of the deformity of vice in the one case, but we *see* it in the other," and so on. He has not a quick intolerance for what is trite, it may be, and in his own generally excellent essay on Chaucer we find a good deal that is too undeniably axiomatic to be inspiriting. It is all, however, preferable to such elephantine tread as this of Professor Hales (vol i. p. 558): "One may almost invert Jonson's famous panegyric on Shakspere, and say that Donne was not for all time, but for an age." Professor A. W. Ward's essay on Dryden is, perhaps, a little magniloquent; Prof. Dowden's analysis of Shakspere's sonnets possibly a little diffuse; and Mr. Pattison's "Milton," as we have intimated, somewhat over-elaborate and fanciful. But in the main we believe we have found all the fault that can fairly be found, and the quality of what we have neglected to mention is excellent. If the Rev. R. W. Church ascribes Spenser's moral allegorizing to the Elizabethan spirit, some bias of this sort may be forgiven the Dean of St. Paul's Cathedral; and if Mr. A. C. Bradley is a trifle loose in calling Shakspere's narrative verse less "spontaneous and rich" musically than Marlowe's, it should be borne in mind that it is hard to get a hearing for any of the Elizabethan dramatists except Shakspere without some exaggeration and partisan ardor.

Against the errors of personal criticism and of an exaggerated historic estimate of poetry intrinsically trivial the "General Introduction" of Mr. Matthew Arnold is excellent protection. Here, again, examination bears out the wisdom of the editorial plan of securing the services of experts, and, as it would have been difficult to select any one from whom a better essay on English poetry could be predicted, few things that Mr. Arnold has written upon poetry can be considered more instructive and stimulating than this. It is a dispassionate and discriminating essay upon the nature of poetry, and an endeavor "to trace the stream of English poetry," without, of course, attempting definitions or scientific precision of any sort in the discussion of a subject whose essence is so evanescent. The argument is briefly this: Poetry has high destinies; without it science, philosophy, religion are felt to be incomplete. Our standard of it should be proportionately high; we should have constantly in mind, in reading poetry, "a sense for the best, the really excellent, and of the strength and joy to be drawn from it." This is the only real way of estimating poetry, indefinite as it may seem. Two other kinds of estimate threaten to supersede this—the historical estimate and the personal estimate. "A poet or poem may count to us historically, they may count to us on grounds personal to ourselves, and they may count to us really." To discover what is really excellent there can be no better help than "to have always in one's mind lines and expressions of the great masters and to apply them as a touchstone to other poetry." Other poetry need not be like them, but in this way we shall, "if we have any tact," discover if it has the same "high poetic quality." This method Mr. Arnold then follows out, beginning with Chaucer and ending with Burns. Fanciful as it may seem to *à priori* or sceptical philosophers concerning poetry, it has, used as he uses it, an evident value; it has, at least, the advantage of keeping one's mind fixed upon the real pith of the matter, unobscured by so-called "laws" and theories, scientific or other; and any one may apply it. To those, however, who may find it trivial, the results of its application by Mr. Arnold to Chaucer and Burns may be formally commended. The estimate of Burns is by far the closest and justest, to our mind, that has been made, and concerning this, as well as the estimates of Shelley, Gray, Dryden, and others, we advise the reader not to be beguiled by the fluidity of Mr. Arnold's prose into a somnolent inattention to their real importance.

THE ZULU WAR.*

THE fatal ignorance which may beset a nation in regard to the things which make for its peace, is very strikingly illustrated by the popular feeling in Great Britain respecting its Indian and Colonial possessions. No clear-sighted and unbiassed mind can fail to perceive that these dependencies vastly increase the vulnerability of Great Britain, while they bring her no advantages which she would not equally obtain from them if they were independent. This fact is more obvious in the case of the colonies than in that of India. The British colonies, or by far the larger portion of them, are self-governing communities, and the single duty which the mother-country is required to fulfil towards them is that of freely expending her blood and treasure in their defence. They, in fact, fritter away and exhaust her strength without making her any return whatever. For, as regards commerce, the present commercial relations between herself and her dependencies, seeing that these are based upon interest and necessity, would remain unaffected though every British colony became independent tomorrow. But if any writer or politician has the temerity to point out these obvious facts, a shout is immediately raised that he is a traitor in disguise who wishes to disintegrate the Empire. All right-minded people are entreated to shut their ears and not listen for a moment to what he has to say. In Kaffir wars, Zulu wars, Afghan wars, the credulous British public is hocus-pocussed into believing that it is somehow carrying on a noble and civilizing work, which more than compensates for the sacrifices it entails, and the burdens which, in consequence, have to be laid upon the poorer classes at home.

No part of the British colonial possessions has been the theatre of crueller and more devastating wars than South Africa; and these have been the more lamentable because the Kaffirs, against whom they have been carried on, are a race of superior intellectual capacity. Had they

* 'History of the Zulu War and its Origin. By Frances E. Colenso. Assisted in those portions of the work which touch upon Military Matters by Lieutenant-Colonel E. Durnford.' London: Chapman & Hall. 1880.

been treated with ordinary humanity and justice, they were capable of appropriating the advantages of civilization, and would have lived in peace and friendship with the white man. But the fact is that justice and humanity are qualities which flourish only under the restraints of a high civilization; and the men are few who, when they get beyond the reach of the police and the magistrate, find in the law written on their hearts an adequate substitute for those fleshly embodiments of justice. A notable example of this is to be found in the recent Zulu war. In Great Britain itself this war has been condemned with almost entire unanimity. Among the European residents at the Cape and in Natal it has been almost as universally applauded. These colonists cannot be brought to see that between them and the savage races which surround them the instincts of humanity and justice ought to be allowed any scope at all. Whatever they deem to be their own immediate personal interest, that they consider they have a right to take by fair means or by foul, as may be most convenient. Whenever the Englishman settles in a land peopled by what he considers an "inferior race" he regards the members of it as "interlopers." On a property which is rightfully his he feels towards these "interlopers" much as a Spanish inquisitor might have felt towards Jews and heretics; and hence the unsparing severity with which in India, as in the colonies, wars against these "inferior races" have been too often conducted. In the case, however, of the Zulu war, it would be unjust to lay the entire responsibility upon the colonists. The colonists greatly applauded a war whereby an "inferior race" had to be well-nigh exterminated at the cost of Great Britain. This was an achievement which harmonized in every way with their predilections. But they may be acquitted of having initiated the design. The secret history of that war is not yet fully divulged. Meanwhile Miss Colenso, in the book before us, has given a deeply interesting narrative of its origin and course down to the capture of the unhappy Ketchwayo, so far as these can be set forth without a knowledge of the Queen's and Lord Beaconsfield's private letters to Sir Bartle Frere.

A more pathetic story has never been told. The most marked characteristic in the Zulus and their king was their firm belief in the equity and good faith of the British nation. For fifteen years the encroachments of the Boers of the Transvaal upon their borders had been a cause of irritation and alarm to the Zulus. Left to themselves, the Zulus would have declared war against the Boers—a war which, beyond a doubt, would have resulted in the destruction of the little Dutch Republic. They had, however, not done so, in deference to the urgent entreaties of the English governors of Natal. Despite delays and disappointment, for fifteen years they continued to trust in their assurances that they would see right done between them and the Boers. It was after this long period of hope deferred that, in 1876, the Transvaal was annexed to the dominions of the Queen. This annexation—an act of disgraceful treachery—was deeply resented by the Boers; and the consequences which have since ensued show, for the millionth time, the futility of doing evil that good may come. The plea originally put forth in justification of the annexation of the Transvaal was the cruel treatment of the natives by the Dutch Boers. These had involved the Boers in a war with Sikukuni, a Kaffir chief, which the Republic appeared to be incapable of bringing to a conclusion. It was hardly doubtful that the conflagration would spread. The Zulus had complaints of long standing against the Boers, and would very probably make common cause with Sikukuni. These facts abundantly justified British interference in the affairs of the Transvaal; but they did not justify a sudden and violent appropriation of Dutch territory. In the secret instructions given by Lord Carnarvon to Sir Theophilus Shepstone—the present Commissioner of the Transvaal—that officer was directed not to annex the Transvaal unless he was satisfied that a clear majority of the inhabitants were in favor of the change. How far these instructions were sincerely intended it is impossible to say. At any rate, Sir Theophilus Shepstone entirely ignored them. He annexed the Transvaal in defiance of the protests of its inhabitants. This fact, however, was withheld from the knowledge of the British people. They were told that a majority of the Dutch residents had joyfully consented to the loss of their independence; and this falsehood having been propagated, it became necessary to conciliate the Boers at all hazards. There was only one way in which this could be done, and that was by attacking and destroying their old enemies, Sikukuni and the Zulus. The English had interfered in order to protect these Kaffirs from the Boers; they now were about to assail these Kaffirs in order to conciliate the Boers. When the Zulu king learned that the Transvaal had passed under British rule he was heartily rejoiced. It was, to his mind, tantamount to the disappearance of an inveterate foe, and the appearance in his stead of an old and trusted friend. Now, at last, he thought, the justice he had waited for for fifteen years would be rendered to him. He little guessed the sort of man he had to do with in Sir Bartle Frere. This gentleman is a distinguished partisan of the High Church Party—a man prominent at missionary meetings, a defender of Christianity—one whose unctuous piety has been the main lever which has raised him to eminence. And this is the way he put the question in dispute between the Boers and the Zulus in a despatch to the Colonial Secretary:

"The Boers had force of their own, and every right of conquest; *but they had also what they seriously believed to be a higher title, in the old commands they found in parts of their Bible to exterminate the Gentiles and take their land in possession.* We may freely admit that they misinterpreted the text, and were utterly mistaken in its application. *But they had at least a sincere belief in the Divine authority for what they did, and, therefore, a far higher title than the Zulus could claim for all they acquired.*"

This remarkable excursion into the regions of theology is dated November 16, 1878, and requires explanation. Sir Bartle Frere's fixed policy, as also that of his subordinate, Sir T. Shepstone, was to make war on the Zulus, and in the boundary disputes between them and the Boers it was hoped that a sufficient pretext had been found. Until he became Commissioner of the newly-annexed Transvaal, Sir T. Shepstone had always held that in these disputes the right was on the side of the Zulus. After the annexation he became a convert to the opposite faith, and reported that he was in possession of evidence "the most incontrovertible and overwhelming" to establish the justice of all that the Boers demanded. Not a tittle of this evidence was forthcoming at the time, nor has a tittle been produced since. The statement was, in fact, a fabrication in order to pave the way for a rupture with the Zulus. Sir Bartle Frere, however, appears to have been deceived by the solemn effrontery with which it was made, and to have agreed in consequence to the proposition of Sir Henry Bulwer, the Governor of Natal, to appoint an English commission to investigate the whole matter on the spot. The result of this investigation was an award wholly in the favor of the Zulus; and Sir Bartle Frere, to his profound disgust, found himself without any *casus belli* against the Zulus of a more sufficing character than the Boer belief that they had a divine commission authorizing their extermination and the appropriation of their lands. To the devout mind of the British High Commissioner, however, this was enough; and in making the award known to the envoys of Ketchwayo, Sir Bartle Frere coupled it with an *ultimatum* to the effect that if the Zulu army was not disbanded within thirty days their territory would be invaded. Hence the war. Lord Beaconsfield and his colleagues disclaim all responsibility for this ultimatum, but their disclaimer is one which requires to be established by evidence stronger than their unsupported assertions.

In addition to the history of the origin of the Zulu war, Miss Colenso's book contains a clear and instructive account of the military operations, and especially of the defeat at Isandlwhana. This account, if accurate, is utterly destructive of the reputation of Lord Chelmsford, the British general, and it is not a little strange that it should have been received so quietly in England.

The Extravaganzas of J. R. Planché, Esq. (Somerset Herald), 1825–1871. Edited by T. F. Dillon Croker and Stephen Tucker (Rouge Croix). 5 vols. 8vo. (London: Samuel French; New York: S. French & Son. 1880. Testimonial edition.)—After having written nearly two hundred plays or parts of plays, all of which have been acted, the first of them in 1818, and the latest and, as it proved, the last in 1871, the late Mr. Planché survived, at the age of eighty-three, to see this testimonial edition of a selection of his brightest and best work safely through the press and in the hands of the subscribers. Mr. Planché had various claims to regard and consideration. He was the author of some of the neatest little plays in our language, including the "Loan of a Lover," "Faint Heart never won Fair Lady," and the "Captain of the Watch." He was the reformer of costume on the English stage, for it was almost wholly owing to his efforts and his researches that historical heroes appeared in the habit they wore when in the flesh, and made use of weapons and armor and other properties like to those they actually had under their hands. He gave us one of the most amusing of all books of theatrical reminiscence, published in two volumes in England, and immediately condensed here to fill about a third of one of Mr. R. H. Stoddard's "Bric-à-Brac Series." And more important still, though he was not strictly the inventor of any of them, he may be said to have enriched our theatrical literature with three new dramatic forms—the classical extravaganza, the fairy spectacle, and the French *revue de fin d'année* (which he transplanted into British

soil with fair success). Classing all these three types together as "extravaganzas," the editors have picked out for the present volumes forty-five of the most successful and most characteristic, and it would be difficult to find anywhere in the works of any author so many light-some little pieces, marked by taste and innocence, point and purity, a playful fancy, a nimble vivacity, and, above all, unflagging *esprit*. Here are the "Invisible Prince" and the "Yellow Dwarf," the models of what dramatized fairy tales may be; here are "The Birds" of Aristophanes and the "Golden Fleece"; and here are "Mr. Buckstone's Ascent of Mount Parnassus" and "Success, or a Hit if you like it," skilful attempts to acclimatize in England the French *revue*, with its songs and hits at the times and at the other theatres. The most of these forty-five little pieces of pleasantry are written in rhyme. To each piece Mr. Planché prefixed a note setting forth the circumstances of its origin and performance. He also appended such foot-notes as might be necessary to explain the many ephemeral allusions with which the text of burlesque and *revue* of necessity bristles. The five volumes are adorned with seventeen neat lithographic portraits, of Mr. Planché himself at the ages of thirty-nine and eighty-three; of Mr. Charles Dance, his collaborator in writing the earlier extravaganzas, and of the chief actors in the various pieces, including two of Robson, and one each of J. P. Harley, Mme. Vestris, Charles Mathews, and J. B. Buckstone. To the list of *dramatis personæ* at the head of each play are attached the names of the actors taking part in the performances. In the fifth volume the editors print a list of all Mr. Planché's dramatic pieces, drawn up with his assistance, and giving the place and date of first performance. They number 176, of which 72 were original, 10 of them being written in collaboration with Charles Dance, and the remaining 104 either alterations of old English plays or adaptations from foreign languages. It is to be regretted that in the case of these last the foreign original was not always clearly pointed out.

Free Land and Free Trade. The Lessons of the English Corn Laws applied to the United States. By Samuel S. Cox. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1880.)—The sub-title indicates the plan and intention of Mr. Cox's little book: he wants to point the moral of the English experience of free trade since 1846 for the American people. Those chapters which bear directly on this subject are interesting and valuable. If any one can write anything on that subject which will be read, and will really touch the convictions of the people about free trade, he does well to try. As for free land, what Mr. Cox says about it refers to Ireland and the Irish land question. We do not see the proper connection between this subject and the other. "Free land and free trade" makes a taking title, and we are by no means disposed to deny that there is a true connection between the two, if the obscurity as to what is meant by "free land" can be cleared up; but what has the Irish land question to do with the correction of American protectionism? The Irish land question is so difficult that we may gladly leave it to those who are forced to deal with it, and we cannot gain anything for the solution of our own problems by drawing into the solution another problem so difficult as that presented in Ireland.

Another reflection which has been suggested to us by reading Mr. Cox's book is this: Is it not remarkable that a member of Congress should take up the methods of the journalist, scholar, or agitator, and abandon the opportunities which his position affords him for winning practical results? Is there not something very significant in this fact, both for the free-trade controversy and for our political methods? The strength of protection now is not in the faith and will of the people. The people are ignorant or they are sceptical about protection. The strength of protection is in the lobby of Congress and in the personal interests of members of Congress. The writers and speakers who work for free trade by public agitation find that their efforts are ineffectual because they never reach the real sources of protectionist strength. They can, at best, create a conviction of the folly of protection in the minds of a large, unorganized mass of people, who suffer by protection, but who are mulcted in only small amounts each, while they are so occupied with their affairs that they cannot spare time to organize and defend themselves. The protected interests, on the other hand, are few, greatly interested, closely organized, and in direct connection with the legislature. Would it not seem, then, that a free-trader who is a member of Congress is right in the heart of the battle, where he can do all that can be done anywhere on behalf of free trade?

Nevertheless, we can easily understand why Mr. Cox should turn aside to work upon public opinion. Probably no one knows better than he does the strength of the protectionist phalanx, the ramifications of its alliances, the perfection of its discipline, and the solidity of its entrenchments. He knows also the weakness of the opposing party. One party is based upon self-interest; the other on scientific conviction. One is profiting by an old political abuse; the other is preaching a reform which would, at best, cost trouble and worry and change of habits. The Congressman on the free-trade side, being thus overmatched in the immediate contest, seeks recruits. He wants a strong public opinion to support him. He cannot dislodge vested abuses, even if he form one of a majority, unless this earnest support is behind him. There is food for reflection here as to the theory of government which looks for initiative and impulse to the great mass of the people, while public men wait to be pushed or ordered; but we pass that by. As things are, we recognize the need for the course taken by Mr. Cox and the propriety of it. Whenever the old and faded issues of the war die out, so that the public can no longer be cajoled by reference to them and politicians can no longer avoid the trouble of thinking and acting on new questions by repeating the old party cries, there will be a chance for a fruitful agitation of the tariff question, and it will be well to have a good body of literature ready.

Notes d'un Globe-Trotter. Course autour du monde. Par Émile d'Audiffret. (Paris: E. Plon & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern. 1880. 16mo, pp. 378.)——*Some Things in America*, set forth in Thirteen Letters. By Charles Waring. (London: Ridgway. 1880. Pp. 78.)—M. d'Audiffret started from Paris in August, 1878, taking the Suez and East India route, reached Yokohama in October, and established himself in Japan for the next three months, securing a house, not without difficulty, in Tokio. The more important part of his notes is that which describes his residence in the Japanese capital. During that time he studied the government and the manners of the people with some care, and with the advantages of wealth and social position, and he adds a few new points to our knowledge of the country. His account of the marriage customs of Japan, customs which have been frequently misrepresented, is especially curious. For the rest, the book has all the faults and the merits of a hasty and vivacious traveller's way of looking at things. Between January 28 and May 26 of last year M. d'Audiffret completed the homeward tour by crossing the Pacific, making the overland trip from San Francisco to New York and Philadelphia, where he spent "deux mois charmants," and taking the steamer to Havre. While he is *en route* his sketches are superficial enough, and often inaccurate—as, for instance, his account of the Stewart obsequies—and he appears to have been made the victim of one or two innocent deceptions at the hands of his club friends. But he is diffident about generalizing, and for the most part describes only what he actually saw, which he does in a lively and eminently readable manner.

A little later in the same year Mr. Charles Waring came to this country, and he has reprinted the letters which he wrote home to *Vanity Fair*, and in which he manages to misunderstand or misstate nearly everything he saw or heard. Perhaps the date of his visit may account for this in part, for in the early autumn months he may very well have found the towns empty and really believed that nobody ever rode or drove in private vehicles. This generalization is of a piece with his other inferences. Mr. Waring declares that the people here are not amusing; are all on the same model and the same level; that the refined moral and artistic satisfactions of life are lacking; that there is no contrast of rich and poor; that dramatic and comic elements are entirely wanting; that there is no fun, no pleasantry, no gayety in society, and no laughter, no merriment amongst the people. He saw no idlers or loafers, no soldiers, and no drunken men, heard no laughter or blasphemy, and witnessed no hilarity—which leads him to infer that the grim humorous stories which pass for Americanisms are of European manufacture, and would scarcely be allowed here unless taxed by the high protective duties charged on all imported goods. Very much in the same spirit he discusses religion and churches, harvests and American meat supplies, railroads and freight charges, free-trade and protection. Naturally enough, his picture is not only less agreeable than M. d'Audiffret's, but is less truthful, and he really gives less absolute information than the Frenchman, who has only a tithe of his technical knowledge.

Geodesy. By Colonel A. R. Clark, C.B. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co.)—One of the greatest wants in English scientific literature is that of manuals intermediate in grade between the ordinary text-books of the schools and the discussions in periodical and learned societies. In this country, or in England, a student who has creditably completed the most advanced technical course in our colleges and high-

schools may be entirely unable to understand those discussions of his own subjects which he will meet with in the more advanced literature referred to. To fill the gap he must have recourse to French or German works, as he will be almost certainly unable to find what he wants in English. If Captain Clark's book does not entirely fulfil these wants for the student of geodesy it is because the subject is too extensive to be treated in a single volume. If we had to embody the author's idea in preparing the book in a single condensed statement, we might say that it was to present the beginner in geodesy with the first elements of nearly everything relating to the subject which he would be required to know. The ground covered is, in consequence, so wide as to make the manual typical of those prepared to be "crammed" by the candidate for the civil service. This, however, must not be taken for a reproach so much as for an illustration of the impossibility of adequately presenting every branch of the subject.

We can present to the student the best idea of what he will find in the book by describing the subject-matter and treatment of the principal chapters. The first thirty-six pages are devoted to "geodetical operations," but are really a condensed history of the geodesy of the last two centuries. Perhaps we should be a little more accurate in saying that it is a résumé of the more important geodetic operations during that interval, as no such fulness or continuity as we should have in a history is possible. We next have chapters on spherical trigonometry and the method of least squares. These are most suggestive of a manual for cramming, because they are devoted to subjects amply treated in text-books which are accessible to all. The treatment of spherical trigonometry is so excellent as to make us wish to see a full treatise on the same plan; yet we cannot but doubt the advisability of devoting space in the book to what the student ought to know before he begins the study. It is when the theory of the figure of the earth is reached that the difficulties to be contended with are most fully seen. In complete incongruity with what precedes, the author here presupposes on the part of the student a knowledge of the higher mathematics which he can hardly be expected to possess unless he has already studied them in very advanced treatises. Where shall we look for a student who has yet to learn spherical trigonometry but is nevertheless the master of the integral calculus and the theory of potentials? The connected subjects of spheroidal triangles and geodetic lines complete the purely theoretical part of the work. The seventh and eighth chapters are devoted to practical operations of geodesy. This is followed by fifty pages devoted to the calculation and adjustment of triangulation, and is followed by the calculation of latitudes and longitudes determined geodetically, the heights of stations, and the connection of geodetic and astronomical observations. The concluding chapters are upon the figure of the earth as determined by measurement and by the pendulum, and furnish the student with suggestive examples of the methods of calculation.

From this description it will be seen that the principal defect of the book is the want of homogeneous and systematic treatment. Many of the chapters, to be adequately treated, would require a volume as large as Captain Clark's whole book. It might be difficult to put into a single volume a fuller collection of things which a young man entering upon a geodetic survey ought to know, yet we should have liked to see a different style of treatment adopted. Special and narrow lines of investigation are followed out, to the great detriment of that breadth of treatment which would have given the student material for continuing his studies in other works.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles. *Publishers.—Prices.*

Adkins (Rev. E.), The Ages to Come.....(Authors' Publishing Co.)
Arr (E. H.), New England Bygones.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
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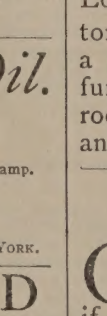

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 17, 1880.

The Week.

NOT the least of the merits of General Garfield's nomination is that it will save the public from witnessing the "eating of boiled crow," as the slang phrase is, by the editors who supported the candidature of Grant and Blaine. "Eating boiled crow" is the most degrading spectacle of modern times, except the cannibalism of some of the African tribes. It consists in turning round in a single week and beginning to praise fulsomely as worthy of the highest confidence and respect a man whom you have for some months previously been denouncing in unmeasured terms as a deceiver, trickster, or selfish and ambitious political profligate. Not only does a large part of the public, however, sanction this exhibition but it insists upon it, and "stops its paper" if it does not get it; and the supply of it, if called for, has come to be part of the regular business of "journalism." It is one of the things which bring the editorial calling into the ill-disguised disrepute in which many of the best men undoubtedly hold it, in spite of the outward deference and flattery which they so often lavish on editors. No profession can stand really high of which "eating boiled crow" is one of the occasional duties. No editor who respects himself, however, will indulge in furious abuse before the nominating convention meets of a candidate whom he means to "support" if nominated. General Garfield was so little thought of for the nomination that all the editors will, we believe, be able to support him without humiliation or pleading the "necessities of journalism"—though there will, of course, be something a little comic in the Grant and Blaine editors pretending that he is just the kind of a man they were longing for. But then a moderate amount of the comic is a good thing in a campaign. It "softens the manners and prevents ferocity," as the poet says.

One of the most interesting features in the proceedings of the Convention was the collapse of two of the Bosses almost at the beginning. The revolt of the National Committee against Cameron seems to have completely demoralized him, and he thereafter sat silent and gloomy until the end, watching the ruin of his hopes and the prostration of all his little schemes. Logan roared in bad English like a bull, for a day or two; then he, too, was still. The exhibition he makes of himself on public occasions makes one wonder that the Chicago people should wish to have any convention in which he is expected to play a prominent part held in their city, because it must be rather mortifying to have strangers from all parts of the Union see the kind of man a State like Illinois sends to the United States Senate. Senator Carpenter has not yet, we believe, been heard from, but as what he sought in the nomination of General Grant was simply the triumph of virtue over vice, as he announced in the Senate, his feelings now must be a little too sacred for exposure. There is no more affecting and solemn sight in the world than a moralist overcome by the failure of a cherished plan for the regeneration of his country, and we hope the reporters will respect his privacy for a few days. Mr. Conkling held out to the end, though momentarily confused by Mr. Campbell's well-timed mimicry. His resolution that everybody who would not pledge himself to support the nominee should be turned out of the Convention was an amusing piece of audacity, considering the way he "supported" General Dix and Mr. Hayes. We presume there can be hardly a question that if General Arthur had not been nominated the Boss would have "supported the ticket" by catching "malarial fever," and seeing that the State was carried by the Democrats. He is now very much in the frame of mind of Paul de Cassagnac when his Prince was killed by the Zulus.

We have received several letters, asking whether there is any means of "scratching Arthur," from readers who are not unnaturally disgusted with his nomination. There is, of course, no way open to the voter of separating him from General Garfield. He could only be reached through instructions to the Presidential electors of some State. If the office he may fill were an important one it might be worth while to try to bring this about, but there is no place in which his powers of mischief will be so small as in the Vice-Presidency, and it will remove him during a great part of the year from his own field of activity. It is true General Garfield, if elected, may die during his term of office, but this is too unlikely a contingency to be worth making extraordinary provision for. General Arthur's nomination is undoubtedly a concession to Conkling and the Machine, and one which does not give a very encouraging idea of the spiritual condition of the party, but no smaller one could well have been made, and Conkling's accepting it, considering what he was aiming at in the Grant movement, is very like taking a suit of old clothes in lieu of the English mission. His defeat is a substantial one, and the friends of reform may, we think, be content with it. Besides, they will have a good deal of amusement during the summer watching the Republican newspapers blowing General Arthur up into the likeness of an "eminent citizen," if not of a "great and good man." Of course, even if he had not made himself in his Custom-house administration the determined enemy of the reform to which the party had pledged itself in its platform, his willingness for so many years to fill the humble place of silent henchman to Mr. Conkling would fix his status, and make his selection for the Presidency of the Senate something more than unfit. But we think the wiser course now is to let it pass, with the single remark that all exaltation of him is condonation of the Machine practices in this State.

The report that the President is so dissatisfied with the recent political activity of Commissioner of Internal Revenue Raum that the removal of that official is imminent, may be said to lack probability. There is not the least difference of opinion possible as to the flagrant character of Raum's conduct in aiding and abetting Logan's "theft" of the Illinois delegation, as the Chicago *Tribune* aptly termed it; but except on the theory of a non-political civil service we do not see what business it is of the President's, and interference in other people's affairs is not habitual with him. It is true that this theory was explicitly promulgated by Mr. Hayes and has been acted upon in one or two instances, but it has been just as explicitly abjured, and the warmest friend of the Administration would not maintain that it had any other than an historic interest at present. Secretary Sherman's cordial approval of Appraiser Dutcher's stumping this State for Cornell at the last election would certainly form a humorous contrast to an order removing Commissioner Raum, whose absence from his duties must have been much briefer than Dutcher's. Moreover, as the Secretary himself was "the Administration candidate" at Chicago, the obvious inference as to the President's motives would be irresistible. We are even disposed to believe that in regard to the civil service Mr. Hayes has finally settled down into a consistent course, of which it would have been a violation to warn Raum beforehand (as he is said to have done) that he was not expected to electioneer for Grant while maintaining outwardly intimate official relations with the President.

"Magnetism" plays a very considerable part, as everybody knows, in politics, and is sometimes produced as an ample substitute in a candidate for nearly every other quality he ought to have. It has never, to our knowledge, been accurately defined, nor has its precise source been pointed out. A quack-medicine man has now come forward, however, to supply this great want, and is, judging from his advertisements, prepared to supply "personal magnetism"

to all comers. He says, "it is not the result of will power, nor of any special mental forces, because many persons who have little will and less mind are personally very magnetic." He concludes that it comes from "some powerful union of the chemical elements which takes place in the system," and this union takes place in the kidneys: "they are the seat of magnetic power in the body." "Destroy the kidneys," he justly observes, "and you destroy the personal magnetism which they cause. Restore the kidneys and you bring back the power which they alone can produce. This is a new truth, but one which the experience of every careful observer will confirm." The duty of every politician, therefore, who knows that his talents or character furnish him with no claim to office or public confidence, is to provide himself with thoroughly magnetic kidneys at the opening of the canvass, which we learn he can readily do by purchasing or procuring from the committee of his party a few bottles of the medicine in question.

The accident which a great many people have been expecting ever since the Sound steamers began to carry passengers to and from Boston at one dollar a head has at last occurred, and with it very great loss of life. One dollar a head means enormous crowds of passengers, four hundred to six hundred to a boat, and they are practically entrusted to the care of two pilots and two or three mates. The crew are 'longshoremen, whose skill is confined to the "handling of freight," and they and the colored waiters greatly increase the risk if anything goes wrong. The boats, too, are of enormous size, and are the frailest structures afloat. There are lifeboats, but they are generally covered up in tarpaulin not ready for lowering; and the crew do not know how to lower them quickly, and are really under nothing that can be called discipline. Some day the story of the freedom from all public inspection with which these boats are allowed to run will seem marvellous to the American public. The one excellent thing about them is the piloting. In spite of this collision, it must be said that the speed and immunity from accident with which they run, in all weathers, night after night, through waters crowded with steamers and sailing craft, are remarkable displays of vigilance and skill. No boats could be better handled, on the whole, by steersmen and engineers; their defect, and it is a monstrous one, is the virtual absence of all preparation for accident.

While the press has done its full duty in pointing out the defects of the life-saving discipline and apparatus—the means for mitigating the disaster when it has once occurred—but little has been said of the culpable lack of those precautionary appliances which would have *prevented* the collision. The first of these is the Barker code of fog-signals, by which, through the instrumentality of a pointer moved on a graduated circle by the pilot's finger, the steam-whistle automatically indicates the vessel's course as E., N.E., etc., according to the conventional number and order of its sounds. The second is Professor Mayer's topophone, lately described in these columns, which enables the navigator to calculate the direction and distance of a fog-signal, and whose accuracy increases in proportion to the nearness of the sound-producer. The third is the steam steering-gear actually in use on the larger Sound boats, which turns a vessel instantly from its course at any required angle, and which, if the *Stonington* had had it, might have, at the worst, made her strike the *Narragansett* broadside on. Any one of these inventions would have gone far to save the two boats from meeting as they did; all together would have rendered the meeting impossible, and impossible the public will demand that this sort of accident shall hereafter become. The subsequent collision of the ocean steamers *Queen* and *Anchoria*, happily without loss of life, emphasizes the lesson of the earlier one.

As we go to press, Congress is in the act of adjourning, with all the appropriation bills disposed of, but with the usual amount of unfinished business. The bill regulating the appointment of deputy-marshals was amended for the better in the House, by directing the circuit courts to be opened for that purpose at least ten days before a registration, when there is one, or ten days before the election. By filibustering, the Republicans prevented a vote from being taken on the Electoral Count bill, and it was accordingly made a special order for the first Monday in December. The postponement is of little moment unless, what is very unlikely, the President chooses to regard the resolution as worse than no provision for the count, and so summons an extra session to perfect a law on the subject. One of the ablest and most labored speeches in opposition to the scheme was that delivered in the House on Thursday last by Mr. Updegraff, of Iowa, who made a very convincing historical survey of the usage in regard to counting by the Vice-President, and argued that on the one hand the proposed counting by the two Houses would be a judicial act beyond the sphere of Congress, and on the other would conflict with the unquestionable prerogative of the States to appoint their Presidential electors in their own fashion. Apparently he holds that the President of the Senate might disregard the joint resolution, and count the votes according to his own estimate of their validity; and it is, in fact, difficult to see how he could be punished for preferring to act as minister of the Constitution rather than of Congress. Mr. Updegraff supposes, in the spirit of Mr. Edmunds's bill, that "the 'Legislature' of a State has 'directed' that all disputes concerning the choice of electors shall be settled by its highest judicial tribunal, and that the decision and certificate of such court shall be the final and conclusive evidence of the State's choice," and asks where the Constitutional power resides for setting that decision aside. Yet under the Morgan resolution such a certificate would have no better standing than any "paper purporting to be" the regular list of the electoral vote of that State. Repudiation of the States-rights doctrine could hardly go further than this.

The Deputy-Marshals Bill has encountered a not unexpected veto, which is, however, explicitly based neither on Mr. Edmunds's objection to the appointment of those officers by the courts, nor on Mr. Hoar's protest against the recognition of parties in dictating the selection. The President recites the existing statutes, and finds that the deputy-marshals of the proposed act are not at all the same officers as those already provided for, who nevertheless "have no other or greater power to supervise and control the conduct of the Congressional elections than the State executive officers exercise in regard to State elections." But those contemplated in the bill under consideration "lack the power, responsibility, and protection which are essential to enable them to act efficiently as executive officers." As this, in default of ability to repeal the existing statutes outright, was precisely what was aimed at by the framers of the bill, the proposition will meet with no denial from any quarter.

Upon the adjournment of the Republican Convention at Chicago the National Greenback-Labor party succeeded to its seats, and in large degree to its humor. Stormy sessions, due to the turbulence of the delegates rather than the applause of the galleries, which were lamentably vacant, were held on Wednesday and Thursday, the last adjourning at daybreak on Friday morning. Kearney abounded, but appears not to have been in particularly "good form," being indeed somewhat cast into the shade by the extravagances of the Convention chaplain. A dangerously latitudinarian spirit seemed to triumph in the admission, in spite of vigorous conservative protest, of the "Socialistic Labor Party," the "Hoyt-Pomeroy Union Greenback Party," the "Social Workingmen," "Working-Women," "Kansas Workingmen," and the "Eight Hour League." The platform finally adopted was more remarkable for sonority than for novelty, but was philosophic and argumentative in tone. The eloquence of Mrs. Spencer, of Washington, was instrumental in winning the Convention over to the Woman-Suffrage cause, though Kearney stoutly opposed it. Nominations for a candidate for President included General Butler, but the well-known Weaver, of Iowa, was finally chosen, and General B. J. Chambers, of Texas, was made the nominee for Vice-President.

At the Stock Exchange, confidence is gradually taking the place of the distrust which prevailed during April and May, and during the week the prices of the stocks most subject to speculation advanced still further from 1 to 9 per cent. There are also signs of improvement in the merchandise markets. Perhaps the most important event of the week in the money market was the decline in the rates for bills on London. If the market for these bills and other forms of foreign exchange is to be strong at any time this year it should be now, in the interval between the shipment of the old and the new crops. If, during this interval, gold is not needed for export it is not likely to be when cotton, breadstuffs, and provisions begin to go forward in the early autumn. The loss of no amount of gold which at any time it has been thought might be shipped before July 15 would have had much effect on the summer money market, but every million lost would have counted fourfold in its strain upon the autumn money market, when all the facilities of the banks are brought into full requisition. The decline this week in foreign exchange from the gold-exporting point has, therefore, been an important element in restoring confidence in all transactions dependent on the condition of the money market during the remainder of the year. The New York banks now hold a surplus reserve of $17,500,000, or about $11,000,000 more than a year ago. In some parts of the country harvesting has already begun, and the yield is beyond expectations. Crops not ready for harvest look well; and as the reports from Europe indicate average crops, the prospect for cheap food the world over was never better. The present indications respecting cotton are that even last year's enormous yield will be exceeded, although it is not too late yet for present estimates to be materially modified. Silver bullion in London has advanced to 52½*d.* per oz.; and the bullion value of the "buzzard dollar" here has advanced to $0.8933.

Mr. Gladstone has produced the financial stroke which he has been known to be preparing for some time. It is doubtless expected by his friends to distract attention from the small faults which the left wing of the Liberals have been finding with his administration, and it was undoubtedly necessary, owing to the condition in which the late Ministry have left the Treasury, and to the deficit in India, which cannot be wholly thrown on the Indian budget. Negotiations for a renewal of the Treaty of Commerce with France, which expires in six months, have been long pending, and it has been for some time evident that, owing to the enormous increase in internal taxation in France since it was made, concessions to France were absolutely essential to secure its renewal. He now proposes lowering the duties on light wines from thirty-six to twelve cents a gallon as the concession in return for concessions on English goods as part of the bargain. He thus conciliates the largest and most influential industrial interest in France, but he strikes a blow at the home brewers of beer, whom he conciliates by the abolition of the malt duty. By these two measures he loses $6,800,000 of net revenue, but he meets the deficiency in part by a tax on beer and an addition of one penny on the pound to the income-tax, which will, he calculates, yield $7,125,000. He also proposes an increased license duty on liquor-dealers. The opposition to these changes will come in the main from the Irish and Scotch distillers, whose product is discriminated against in favor both of the French wines and the English beer. The rest of it will emanate from the Tories in general, who are eager for the discovery of faults of any kind, and will probably bear mainly on the addition to the income-tax, which already presses heavily on the large class of fixed annuitants. They are just now a good deal exasperated by a bill before the House, introduced by Sir William Harcourt, giving tenant-farmers the right to kill "ground game"—*i.e.*, hares and rabbits, whose ravages among the crops and preservation by landlords for sporting purposes have been a long-standing grievance of the tenants. The bill, too, deprives the farmer of the right of contracting himself out of its operation. There will probably be a good deal of abuse of the financial resolutions, but on the whole the confidence in Mr. Gladstone's financial skill and forecast is so great that the opposition is likely to be short-lived.

The controversy between Germany and the Pope over the Falk Laws, and the prospects of Turkey, are the two great questions which are just now occupying the European mind. The leading feature of the bill modifying the Falk Laws, which is now before the parliamentary committee of twenty-one, is, as we have already pointed out, not so much the alteration of the laws as the bestowal of discretion on the Government as to the execution of them. Bismarck's first idea, as revealed in the diplomatic correspondence recently published, giving an account of the negotiations between Prince Reuss and the Papal pro-Nuncio at Vienna, was to extract concessions from the Vatican in a bargain, and the Pope, in a letter to the Archbishop of Cologne, showed that he was perhaps willing to discuss the matter; but when it was proposed to go to work he hung back, and wanted to hear more and reflect. Then Bismarck lost patience, and brought in the pending bill giving himself full powers. Then the Curia backed out altogether, and declined to recognize the Falk Laws at all, and the *Voce della Verità* declared that not only would the Curia have nothing to do with any arrangement based on these laws, but that any Catholic deputy who voted for it would incur, *ipso facto*, the major excommunication pronounced on all who pass or assist in passing laws directed "against the liberty of the Church or against its rights." Herr Windhorst, the Ultramontane leader in the German Parliament, has explained the Papal position still more fully by declaring in his place that the Church can make no arrangement with the state about its rights except by treaty or concordat. The situation stands thus at present, and it is not probable the committee will report before the end of the month. What is driving the Ministry into action is the fact that one thousand Catholic parishes are left without priests, and nine of the eleven Catholic bishops are absent from their dioceses, and the Church and state are charging on each other the responsibility for the souls which may be lost owing to this state of things. The National-Liberals, led by Dr. Falk, are holding out firmly against the bill and accusing the Chancellor of preparing "to go to Canossa," alluding to the penance which was done at that place before Pope Gregory VII. by the Emperor Henry IV. in 1077.

The withdrawal of M. Léon Say from the French Embassy in London to be President of the Senate has led to the appointment of M. Challemel-Lacour, an old Radical and friend of Gambetta's, who figured prominently during the war in several capacities, and apparently made himself extraordinarily obnoxious to the Conservatives—they allege, by plundering convents and other excesses. We believe he has met some of these charges successfully by libel suits, but anyhow his reputation is not savory. He was proposed as minister to Germany, but not pressed, on the announcement that the Emperor would not like him. There is a story that the Queen has also objected to him, but not so strongly. He does not belong to the diplomatic profession, and is, in fact, not in "good society." Curiously enough, however, it is not by the London Tories that objections have been raised to him in England, but by the Irish Home-Rulers, through Mr. O'Donnell, who managed the other day, in the House of Commons, to accuse him of arson, pillage, and massacre, in the form of a question to the Ministry, Mr. Gladstone seeking to restrain him by a motion which has not been made in the House for two centuries—"that he be not heard." A stormy debate, in which the Conservatives showed their rancorous bitterness by siding with the Home-Rulers, ended in a postponement of the subject. Unless M. Challemel-Lacour can in the meantime cram Sir Charles Dilke with a complete vindication, the situation will become very awkward. On the other hand, how can Sir Charles ask him whether he had really plundered a convent and massacred Mobiles? There are some "charges" to which a man may volunteer an answer, but which no friendly person can well ask him to meet.

THE REPUBLICAN NOMINATIONS.

THE selection of General Garfield for the first place on the Republican ticket is a far happier deliverance from the nominations which seemed most probable when the Convention met than most people ventured to hope for. In fact, considering the haphazard way in which the "dark horse" is brought to the front after the delegations begin to "break," and the excitement under which he is voted for, and the small amount of favor which men like General Garfield are apt to find in the eyes of those who are most potential in conventions, the result has almost the air of a special Providence. He had not been talked of, or even much thought of, for the Presidency. He was not even formally put in nomination at the Convention, and showed by serving as a delegate that he had himself not dreamed of what was in store for him. He had no "boom" behind him, and nobody "working" for him either in his own State or any other. He has never even occupied the position of a Favorite Son, and has never to our knowledge been announced as anybody's First Choice, except that of some delegate, unknown to fame, who during the earlier ballotings occasionally gave him a vote, which only drew on him the ridicule of the reporters. In fact, if there was any wisdom or forethought or skill among the supporters of the candidates formally presented to the Convention, if the arrangements made to promote their nomination had any value whatever, General Garfield was as unlikely to get the prize as any man on the floor.

But this is not all. Usually "the dark horse" is a gentleman about whom the public has everything to learn. In fact, to make a horse "dark" it may be said to be necessary that he should not have been prominent in public affairs, and that the revelation of his greatness and of his claims to public confidence should have to be made by the campaign biographer and the party newspapers during the canvass. General Garfield is, however, one of the best-known men in public life, and is known in an excellent way. We have several times of late spoken in these columns of the growing tendency of politicians to neglect real politics—that is, *the business* of the country—for the work of electioneering and management, and of the growing disposition on the part of the public to let politicians of this class take possession of the Government and use it in their own game for their own hands. The Independent opposition to the nomination of Grant and Blaine and to the dictation of the Bosses was really in large part a protest against this tendency, and an attempt once more to force politicians to occupy themselves with politics and earn their honors by their attention to public affairs. General Garfield's political career has, however, been as far as possible removed from that of the ordinary manager and machinist. His life in Congress has really been that of a statesman of the earlier constructive type. We do not profess to know what it is in his relations with his district which has enabled him to give so much of his time to the proper business of a legislator without endangering his political prospects, but we do know that he is most honorably associated with every question of importance which has come up in Congress during the past twelve years. Everybody who has given even slight attention to politics knows what his opinions are on nearly every matter by which the public mind has been much stirred since 1868, and we can recall no such matter on which his opinions were not sound, or, if not sound according to our way of thinking, were not defended so as to show that they had been carefully and intelligently formed. On the currency question he has never for one moment gone astray, and never for one moment concealed his view of the highest expediency. He never gave any countenance, as nearly every prominent Republican politician did, to the plan of paying the bonds in paper. He opposed the Silver Bill almost alone among the Republicans, in the teeth of the craze which was sweeping over the whole West, especially his own State, on this subject. He was one of the earliest and most strenuous advocates of civil-service reform, even in the sense in which the Independent Republicans have of late been preaching it. His position towards the South since the war, which for a time caused him to be frowned on by the clique who were trying to build up their personal fortunes by fanning the flames of civil strife, as a heretic and blasphemer, has placed him on this subject almost alone among Republican politicians in the serene air of the highest statesmanship.

It is said that Mr. Conkling knows a great deal of Burke by heart, but apparently it only serves him as an exercise in elocution to aid in the development of his "chest notes." General Garfield has done better than commit Burke to memory: he has appropriated his spirit and ideas, and has had the courage to produce them at a time when some of the leading men of his party were energetically illustrating Burke's maxim that "a great empire and little minds go ill together." When that great scandal of free government—the doctrine that the President withdrew the troops from the South *mero motu*, as the Czar might reduce the garrison of Warsaw, and that Southerners ought therefore to have voted the Republican ticket out of "gratitude"—was being spread abroad by both press and politicians, General Garfield was bold enough to say that the true justification of the President's course was that he had done what it was his constitutional duty to do. In saying this he did more than defend Mr. Hayes: he reminded his own party that this is a Government of law, and that there is under it no place for gratitude to an executive officer except in the case of a pardoned criminal. In fact, the steady constitutionality and rationality, if we may use the expression, of General Garfield's course in Congress during times when most of his fellow-Republicans lost their heads, have been very remarkable, and show that he is not only a man of courage, but that he does not, in the strife and turmoil of what is called practical politics, lose his hold on the great truth that this nation, in spite of its enormous natural advantages, must live as every other human society has lived, by remembering, comparing, and foreseeing. We do not deny that his heart has sometimes seemed to fail him, and that he has occasionally been frightened into temporary retreat and self-contradiction by finding that he stood so nearly alone in some of his positions. In plainer language, he has had his moments of weakness. But we hold that a public man, like a private one, is entitled always to the benefit of his whole career in judging single shortcomings or transgressions. Mr. Sherman, for instance, although he has more than once been found in very bad financial company, could never be fairly accused of indifference to the public credit or to the condition of the currency, in view of the fact that, in spite of occasional aberrations, his general course has been in the right direction.

We have no intention of trying to present General Garfield as the usual campaign embodiment of all the virtues. He has, like the rest of the world, a good many defects and has committed many errors; but considering the times we live in, and the peculiar condition of politics, we think the Convention could, for the purposes of those who entertain rational expectations of improvement, hardly have made a better choice. The "Bosses" and the "Old Set" will all probably only give him a half-hearted support, and probably intrigue against him and sneer at him, which will make it all the more necessary that those who are satisfied with him should see that he gets fair play and effective help. But Mr. Hayes's experience ought to satisfy him, even if he did not see it himself, that the hostility of the Bosses cannot be disarmed by partial concessions. Mr. Hayes has not gained a single adherent or admirer by the extraordinary lengths to which he has in some instances gone to strengthen himself by the use of means of which his letter of acceptance was a solemn repudiation; while he has disappointed and alienated thousands of those who were led to expect great things of him when he took office, and on whom, after all, the party is dependent for real and permanent success. The contempt which the late Convention displayed for civil-service reform, for instance, it is impossible not to attribute to the strange manner in which the subject has been dealt with by a President who came into office as its apostle. In fact, Mr. Hayes's attitude towards civil-service reform furnishes an excellent illustration of one sense in which the French saying that "small reforms are the worst enemies of great reforms" is profoundly true. In the words of an able writer, "A small and tem-

porary improvement may really be the worst enemy of a great and permanent improvement, unless the first is made on the lines and in the direction of the second; and so it may, if it be successfully palmed off upon a society as actually being the second. In such cases as this . . . the small reform, if it be not made with reference to some large progressive principle, and with a view to further extension of its scope, makes it all the more difficult to return to the right line and direction when improvement is again demanded."

We make no pretence, as our readers know, of "supporting" a candidate in the ordinary sense of the term. We do not believe that the nation is to be saved or lost by any one election, but by the devotion of the people to great principles and great virtues. We, therefore, do not mean either to ignore or gloss over the flaws of a moral kind which General Garfield's opponents are now busy in pointing out in his political career. His connection with the Crédit Mobilier, in 1873, and his manner of extricating himself from the unpleasant consequences it involved, bore at the time a very unfortunate appearance. There was nothing at all discreditable to a man as ignorant of commercial affairs as General Garfield is said to be in accepting the favor he did accept from Oakes Ames, and the profit on the transaction ($329) was very paltry. But he undoubtedly bore himself badly when the uproar began and he discovered what a very serious view the public took of Ames's dealings with Congressmen. The Committee of Congress, however, after full enquiry, did not condemn him as it condemned others, and the public has since—and in the public we include men of the highest character, who live in close relations with General Garfield—fully condoned his offence, if offence it was. The reason of this condonation is undoubtedly to be found in the fact that a man, in being judged for any single act of which two explanations are possible, is sure to get the benefit of the general tenor of his life, and of what is known of his temperament and character. General Garfield is not a speculator, or jobber, or a man bent on enriching himself, or with a taste for pecuniary ventures. He has never been accused, like Mr. Blaine, of following up moneyed men and demanding a share in their profits as the price of his services, or of claiming credit with them for having put them in the way of "a good thing." Nor has he, like Mr. Colfax, been found guilty of pocketing a regular monthly tribute from a Government contractor. In fact, he is known to be a person of considerable simplicity in money matters, who in times like those of 1873, when all the financiers in the country were busy in putting professors, ministers, lawyers, and doctors up to easy ways of adding to their incomes, might readily have been led by a friend whose integrity and kindness he had no reason to suspect, into a transaction which, harmless enough in itself, his position as a legislator made dangerous or impossible. There is probably no professional man during those years who had not financial proposals made to him to which subsequent events lent an aspect very different from that which they wore when first presented, and it is easy enough to see how such a man might readily deny, and deny stoutly and honestly, that the "operation" which excited the public indignation was the one to which he had originally become a party.

Of the De Golyer charge we cannot this week speak with accurate knowledge. But it may be said now of both it and the Crédit-Mobilier affair that General Garfield and his advisers will do well not to pass them over in silence as mere campaign "mud." They will strengthen his friends as well as meet his enemies by producing a full statement of his side of both stories, because the facts have faded from the public mind, and it is thus in the power of his opponents to reproduce them with glosses and embellishments which may make them very damaging. This is rendered all the more necessary by the extraordinary course of the Convention in putting General Arthur, the very embodiment of Machine politics, and who is only known to fame as the silent and faithful henchman of one of the Bosses, in the second place on the ticket. His safety in this position lies in the fact that the voters cannot get at him. If they could there is hardly a doubt that he would be "scratched" out of sight. The only value of his nomination lies in the fact that the Conkling Machine will *probably* be worked for his benefit, and if worked for him must be worked for Garfield. But it is very certain that he loads the ticket heavily in the eyes of all the reform element in the party, and that his presence on it renders it all the more necessary that General Garfield should give it overwhelming strength. If the Democrats should present a strong issue of *character*, by the nomination of Bayard, for instance, the New York Machine might not be such a powerful aid as the majority of the Convention seems to have imagined.

THE PLAN OF THE BOSSES AT CHICAGO.

"GENERALS GRANT and Sheridan have received a perfect ovation by the old soldiers of Wisconsin and their thousands of friends congregated here. . . . The General did not allude, at any length, to his position before the Chicago Convention, but said he was grateful to his friends who had stood by him, particularly to Senator Conkling, who he said should have been nominated."—*Press despatch from Milwaukee, June* 10.

Had the *Nation* been called on for proof of the soundness of the position it has taken against those supporters of General Grant who maintain that three years of travel abroad and of calm reflection upon the past have changed his natural tendency towards what was bad in his Administration, no stronger evidence than that contained in the above despatch could be required. A valuable lesson for the future may be gathered from a study of those efforts of his friends for which he is grateful, and such a study is all the more necessary because it is only since the Convention that we have been enabled to see into the exact character of the plan by which the Bosses expected to nominate their man. When Conkling, Cameron, and Logan, in the face of adverse majorities from every quarter, kept up till the last their boast that Grant would be nominated on the first ballot, the cooler heads of the community looked upon it as idle words intended solely to bolster up the courage of their followers. That they seriously expected to accomplish their object against a numerical majority of more than a hundred was hardly suspected by any one. But, looking back at the proceedings before and during the Convention, we shall see that their object was so readily attainable by the methods they had in view that nothing but the firmness of the National Committee prevented the consummation of the plan. Had this committee yielded to the claims of its chairman, the temporary organization would have been completely in his hands. To secure the success of his plan he would then have only had to adopt, at the proper stage, the very methods which his coadjutors actually attempted at a subsequent period.

The first step would have been that attempted by the New York delegation under Senator Conkling—namely, the recognition of the right of each delegation to have its whole vote cast by its chairman as a unit, on the resolution of a majority of its own members. It was, of course, well known that the opponents of Grant would scorn such tactics in most if not all the States in which they had the majority, because, if for no higher reason, they would be acknowledging the right of their adversaries to adopt the plan; besides, the majorities were so distributed that they would have been able to gain only 37 votes by the process. It was well known that the Grant party had no such scruples; so the result would have been the complete suppression of every anti-Grant vote in all those States where the Grant men were in a majority, or rather the transfer of all such votes (90 in number) to the Grant side. For example:

Anti-Grant vote in Grant States (First Ballot).

Alabama	4	Texas	5
Illinois	18	Virginia	4
Kentucky	4		
Missouri	1	Total	90
New York	19	For Grant	304
Pennsylvania	26		
South Carolina	1	Total (by unit rule)	394
Tennessee	8		

Grant vote in anti-Grant States.

Georgia	6	Mississippi	6
Indiana	1	North Carolina	6
Kansas	4	West Virginia	1
Maryland	7		
Massachusetts	3	Total	35
Michigan	1		

This would have given the Grant men a total of 394 votes against 362 on the other side, a nominal majority of 32, which it would have been impossible to overcome, because the men in power would have taken every vote in this same way. If, for instance, the question were whether the unit rule should be enforced, the fact that a majority of individual members were opposed to it would avail nothing unless they were allowed to vote as individuals. Deprived of this right by the ruling of the chair, the vote would throughout have been in favor of the unit rule, and no appeal to the Convention would have been possible, for the simple reason that the unit convention would have been the only one to appeal to, unless the majority seized upon the Convention by physical force. The question of permanent organization would have been decided in the same way, and the anti-Grant majority on the committees would have been of no avail, because the Convention itself would have had the ultimate decision upon all their reports, and could have elected the presiding officer against the will of the Committee on Organization.

Had it been considered dangerous to carry this programme out to the end, a very neat device was all ready in the hands of Mr. Conkling to render it unnecessary. At the critical moment, when the programme was fully exposed but not fully executed, perhaps before the permanent organization was completed, he had only to introduce his resolutions pledging each delegate to the support of the nominee, whoever he might be, and excluding all who refused. The best men among the opposition would not have stultified themselves by such a pledge when it was evident how the Convention was to be managed, howsoever willing they might have been to take it in favor of a real majority. The seats of all the more troublesome of the opposition would then have been vacated, thus greatly simplifying the problem which the Grant managers had in hand, and enabling them to offer concessions to their opponents which every Grant organ in the country would have pronounced so liberal that those refusing them were entitled to no support or sympathy whatever. Mr. Conkling's resolution was so ill-fitted to serve him any good purpose at the time of its introduction that one can hardly doubt its being originally intended for the crisis we have described. The working of the whole machinery would have been so smooth and efficient as to excite the wonder and admiration of all supporters of Boss government. If any one doubts that the Bosses would really attempt so desperate an enterprise as this, let him reflect that we have not supposed a single step which they did not actually propose or attempt, and the validity of which they did not sustain before the Convention. We have only supposed them to combine the various separate measures which they attempted in such a way as to bring about the result which they so confidently predicted from the first. Had the project not been nipped in the bud by the National Committee, its consummation would have been inevitable unless by a bolt of the small majority, and the man who believes that anything like the entire majority would have resorted to this extreme measure has remarkable faith in the independence of the men who nominate a President. Indeed does not the retention of every would-be author of the outrage in official position in the councils of the party, and that after making himself as personally offensive to his associates as he well could, prove how easy would have been the victory had the weapons of warfare once been allowed in their hands?

It must be remembered that the Bosses had a great advantage in having their forces thoroughly disciplined into implicit obedience, while their opponents were under no single head whatever. No one had an idea of the strength of their organization until he saw how, on the final ballot, not a man of the 304 was seized by the panic which carried away almost the entire vote of the other candidates. To some it may appear that this affords a splendid example of the efficiency of Boss rule; and so it does, but it is only the advantage of any armed force over the peaceable inhabitants of a country they are invading. It is gained by substituting an organized force for the ordinary machinery of good government through the duly expressed will of the majority. The spectacle of a troop of soldiers driving judge and jury out of court and forcibly placing the plaintiff in possession of the defendant's property, furnishes an equally striking example of the superiority of military over civil modes of procedure, and is worthy of imitation and admiration as much as the proceedings of the Grant party during the campaign. To sustain the introduction into politics of disciplined masses under chiefs to whom they are bound to render implicit obedience, is as much a backward step as the introduction of Force as the judge instead of Law. If we admit the principle that the will of the majority should select the candidates, the only legitimate function of the organizer is to facilitate the expression and determination of that will, an end at which the mode of organization practised at Chicago does not aim at all.

For General Grant the danger is that his passive approval of the plans of his henchmen will connect his name with a very odious political conspiracy. Our readers will bear in mind that we have never opposed his candidacy on either of the usual grounds, that of opposition to a third term, or that of his having reached such an elevation above ordinary humanity that he would be demeaned by being voted on as a Presidential candidate in a political convention. We have opposed him simply on his character and his record, and he and his friends have now done their best to show that our opposition was even better grounded than we had supposed. The golden moment when he could have shown that better things might be expected of him arrived when Cameron attempted, by an insignificant majority, to force the unit rule on the Pennsylvania Convention. He might then have said to Cameron: "I do not desire the nomination unless I am the choice of an actual majority of the Republican voters; and if it is necessary to suppress the voice of minorities in any quarter, that of itself would show that I have not a majority of the whole. I shall decline unless the representatives of the party from every district have the fullest and fairest liberty to vote on my nomination, and I therefore desire my friends to make no attempt to force a vote in my favor." Had he spoken thus, he would have made impossible the conspiracy which had to be suppressed by the highest council of the party; he would have justified some of the encomiums of his admirers, and he would have greatly increased the chances of his nomination by fair means. A still more urgent opportunity was lost when he failed to rebuke the trickery by which Logan chose a solid delegation from Illinois in his favor. Silence could thenceforth mean nothing but consent. And now, when the battle of the year is lost, comes the voice of his friends declaring that he is grateful to them for their efforts, and asserting their determination to bring him forward again in 1884. In justice to their estimate of human nature, we must say that they seem to ground their hopes principally upon the supposition that the Democrats will succeed in the coming election, and will present the country with such an administration that in their opinion no one but Grant will be able to set things right. But the gradual subsidence of the Grant boom during the past six months shows that the memory of Grant's Administration extended over the interval of three years, and we cannot suppose that the insolence of his managers at Chicago will be forgotten during the four years to elapse before the next nominating convention.

MR. EDWIN ARNOLD'S BUDDHISM.

'THE LIGHT OF ASIA,' which has already run through several editions on both sides of the Atlantic, and has commanded general attention, professes to set forth in a popular form the teaching of Buddha, the great Eastern sage, as it came from his own mouth, more than two thousand years ago. That an intelligible account of Buddhist doctrine is desirable, can scarcely be doubted; but whether Mr. Arnold

has succeeded in this, which was as much a part of his plan as the making of a fine epic, may perhaps be questioned. As far as Buddhist doctrine is concerned, his book may be divided into two parts: first, the historical portion relating to Buddha's life, which embraces many questions of faith, including the first 210 pages of the work; and, secondly, the sermon delivered by the sage in the presence of his father, which includes the remaining 28 pages of the book. In each of these parts there are many faults commingled with scattered seeds of truth.

The introductory lines of the first book show that Mr. Arnold has not searched deeply into the system of the Buddhist universe:

> "Below the highest sphere four Regents sit,
> Who rule our world, and under them are zones
> Nearer, but high, where saintliest spirits dead
> Wait thrice ten thousand years, then live again;
> And on Lord Buddha, *waiting in that sky*,
> Came for our sakes," etc.

Now, Mr. Arnold might easily have learned that the Tusita heaven in which Bodhisatwa was living prior to his incarnation, was not a Zone *underneath* the higher sphere of the four Regents (the four Mâhârajas), but far above it. Then, again, why throughout his poem does he persist in speaking of *Buddha* as though that were the sage's name prior to his complete enlightenment? There is no particular more carefully attended to in original works than the distinction between *Bodhisatwa* as he existed before his illumination, and *Buddha*, the name he assumed after that event. But perhaps the student of Buddhism would readily forgive Mr. Arnold for any faults such as these, if he had avoided the great fault found in his description of the palace scene on pages 84 and 85 of his work. Buddhist records tell us that the turning point in the life of the young prince, on the night of his escape from his palace, hinged on the sight he saw there of the women lying about in disorder, their hair dishevelled, their features with no remnant of loveliness, their bodies in attitudes repulsive and ungainly; seeing them thus, "as painted jars full of poison or filth," the prince resolved once for all to forsake such companionship and seek wisdom in the solitude of the mountains. Now, Mr. Arnold alters all this, and in the rich abandonment of his poetical fancy describes the women as objects of tenderest love and attraction to the prince:

> "The perfect lines of grace,
> The bosom's placid heave, the soft stained palms
> Drooping or clasped, the faces fair and dark,
> The great arched brows," etc. (p. 84).

But this is wrong. The occasion, indeed, offered a fine field for poetical display; but the description is not fair to the story of Bodhisatwa's "great renunciation," of which, indeed, it wholly changes the quality.

Then, again, where does Mr. Arnold learn that Bodhisatwa "sate the scorching summers through" (p. 111) on Mt. Ratnagivi? There is no such record. His painful sojourn was in the Uravilva desert, not at Râjâgriha. We have also just reason to doubt whether the names of Shiva or Vishnu were known as popular objects of worship in Buddha's time. At any rate, we read nothing about them under this aspect in any primitive Buddhist book—nor, indeed, about Brahm either; and therefore we take it that the verse found on p. 211 also contains an anachronism:

> "The Books teach Darkness was, at first of all,
> And Brahm, sole meditating in that night:
> Look not for Brahm and the Beginning there!"

Mr. Arnold is quite right in his general estimate of Karma, as explained in the Buddhist scheme:

> "Who toiled a slave may come anew a Prince
> For gentle worthiness and merit won;
> Who ruled a King may wander earth in rags
> For things done and undone" (p. 213).

This is very true, for Buddhism teaches us as plainly as words can speak that "our works" for good or evil follow us; but where do we read throughout the system of "a Power divine which moves to good"? (p. 215). There is no such Power known, except it be the power of Karma, which cannot in any sense be called "divine," as though it were objective and external. Karma is subjective, and works not outside a man, as Mr. Arnold puts it, "Out of the dark it wrought the heart of man" (p. 216), but *in* a man; working, as Buddha puts it, as the power in the snake which enables him to cast off his skin. Nor do we quite understand our author when he says, on p. 218, "though Dharma tarry long." What is this *dharma?* Ideally, *dharma* is that which *makes a thing what it is*—the "*Form*" of Aristotle; in a moral sense, Dharma is "religion" or "religious law," but it is never used in the sense of Fate. Lastly, though Mr. Arnold is too keen-sighted to allow for a moment the *nothingness* which some would find in the idea of Nirvâna, still we doubt whether "the dew-drop [on the lotus-leaf] slips into the shining sea" (p. 238) will convey to the mind any right thought upon this abstruse subject. Nirvâna is not *absorption*. It may be figured rather under the form of the morning mist disappearing in space—not *destroyed*, yet not cognizable by any human sense or to be described by any form of words. The formula which Mr. Arnold calls into requisition, "Om! mani padme," has nothing whatever to do with the lotus-leaf or the pearly dewdrop, but is, in fact, an invocation of "the Highest"—the *Gloria in excelsis* of the Buddhist church, as it is represented under the form of the Mani, or Suramani, gem, surmounting the figure of a lotus; and so it is seen on the highest architraves of the gates at Sanchi and Barhahut.

THE INNER LIFE OF GUIZOT.

PARIS, May 14.

M. GUIZOT had two daughters, who married two brothers, the descendants of the famous De Witt; only one of them now survives, Madame Conrad de Witt, who has just published a volume, well worth reading, under the name of 'Monsieur Guizot dans sa famille et avec ses amis, 1787-1874.' I myself had the honor of knowing M. Guizot, and I can bear witness that Madame de Witt's book well describes his home, the simplicity of his Puritan life, the domestic graces and virtues of a man who would only be very imperfectly known if known only as a statesman.

François Pierre Guillaume Guizot was born at Nîmes on October 4, 1787. He belonged to a Protestant family which had given ministers to the "Desert" in the times of the persecution. His father was a lawyer, and though he had at first espoused the ideas of the French Revolution, he became a victim of the Terrorists, who were nowhere as cruel as in the South. He died on the scaffold on the 8th of April, 1794. Madame Guizot was left with two young children. She went with them in 1799 to Geneva, which had remained a sort of Jerusalem for all the Protestants of Europe. She found there the *gymnasium* and the *auditoria*, just as they had been organized by Calvin. François Guizot received his education at these establishments; and when he was eighteen years old his mother returned to Nîmes with her second son, and sent him to Paris to pursue his law studies. She wished him to become a lawyer, like his father. Under his mother's care, and under the influences of Geneva, which had not yet become a city of hotels and a caravansery of tourists, young Guizot had become a Puritan, and he remained so during his whole life. From Paris, the dissolute Paris of the Directory, he wrote to his mother: "God and the religion of Christ, these are my only guides. . . . I will always keep and I will boldly profess my principles in matters of morality, of religion, and of virtue." He did not judge the eighteenth century as it was judged then; this is what he said of it to his mother:

> "It was for this age of sensibility to make maxims of the cowardly and effeminate opinions which make of a love without courage the divinity of all hearts; this age would give to virtue a perpetual smile and take away all its force. The eighteenth century was so amiable that it had ceased to be virtuous; the people were so polite that they were no longer sincere; the women were so courted that they were no longer loved. . . . I cannot help being angry when I see all the efforts made for taking away from virtue all its thorns; people cannot rise to it and will drag it down to themselves. . . . Let us look at virtue with all its difficulties, and let us make ourselves strong in order to conquer them."

In these lines you have the whole Guizot, the Puritan, who is fond of effort and does not believe in victory without a struggle. What he was in the field of morals he became as a statesman. He did not believe that liberty, that prosperity, could be conquered and preserved without a struggle; he did not share the belief of our revolutionists in the virtue of the people and in the beauty of license; he had been taught that the natural man is depraved, and he logically concluded that depravity must follow him in politics as well as in domestic life.

Guizot received much encouragement in Paris from M. Stapfer, the minister for Switzerland. He was often in his house, and M. Stapfer, who received all the confidences of the young student, determined Madame Guizot to allow her son to give himself up to literary pursuits, instead of the law. At the age of twenty-two we see M. Guizot working in every direction—translating a German 'Journey to Spain,' making long notes for a Gibbon, beginning a history of all heresies, writing articles for dictionaries, contributing to the then famous *Mercure*, giving lessons, etc. He was poor, but laborious, and anxious to move in the first literary circles. M. Stapfer presented him to M. Suard, the perpetual secretary of the French Academy, who became for him a sort of patron, and in whose house he got acquainted with some of the representatives of the old philosophical school and with some members of the French nobility who were members of the Academy.

M. Guizot became acquainted with Mlle. de Meulan, whose family had been entirely ruined by the Revolution, and who had resorted to literary labors. He married her, and a few days afterwards he became a professor at the Faculty of Letters in Paris. One of his colleagues was Royer-Collard, who showed him much sympathy. Guizot was professor of history; but what history could be then as interesting as the history of France itself? Napoleon's end was approaching. Guizot saw the tragic events of 1814 and 1815 from the high rock where Lucretius has built "sapientiæ templa serena." In 1814, M. Royer-Collard recommended M. Guizot for the post of secretary-general of the Home Office, and though Guizot was a Protestant, the Abbé de Montesquiou gave him the post. During the Hundred Days Guizot remained faithful to the cause of Louis XVIII., and, leaving his wife in Paris, followed him to Ghent. When the king returned to Paris, Guizot was transferred as secretary-general to the Ministry of Justice. He left this post soon afterwards, and entered, as *maître des requêtes*, the Council of State. In the great battle which was opened between the Duc de Richelieu and the Duc Decazes and those royalists who were called the *ultras*, Guizot took sides with the first. He was named Councillor of State in 1818, and had a part in the preparation of all the laws of the time. He was ranked in the group, headed by Royer-Collard, of the *doctrinaires*—men who were professors of political philosophy, of constitutional law, theoretical upholders of liberty, and generally great admirers of English institutions. The influence of the *doctrinaires* became predominant when the Duc Decazes was made Prime Minister. Under his administration M. Guizot was appointed director of commercial and departmental affairs at the Home Office. The assassination of the Duc de Berry in 1820 was the signal for a reaction. The Duc Decazes fell from power, and M. Guizot retired for a while into private life.

In his correspondence of that time I find a curious anecdote about the famous General Cambronne, of Waterloo reputation; the Cambronne who said, or did not say, "La Garde meurt, et ne se rend pas." He was dining at Lille with the King of England, and drank nothing but water among all those Englishmen who gorged themselves with wine. The only word he said was: "The king likes white uniforms." Thereupon M. de la Châtre remarked: "They have this advantage, that you put in each regiment facings of different color, and you know easily, after a battle, to what regiment each soldier belongs." "We have been," answered Cambronne, "as many as six hundred thousand men in blue, and we always knew each other very well"; and he became mute again. This anecdote shows well what were the feelings of the old Bonapartists under the Restoration.

Guizot was writing pamphlets on various political subjects; he tried to reconcile old France and the new France of the Revolution; he was at the same time liberal and anti-revolutionary, devoted to the fundamental principles of the new French society, and full of affectionate regard for the great things of the past. He developed the same ideas in his public lectures; but the *ultras* found him too liberal and his lectures were stopped in 1822 by order of the Government. Guizot then undertook the publication of a vast collection of memoirs concerning the ancient history of France. His wife worked with him, translating herself the Chronicle of Gregory of Tours. Guizot began also his essays on the early history of France, during the domination of the Romans in Gaul, a subject which was then completely new. Madame Guizot became ill, and died on the 1st of August, 1827. "She died," wrote Guizot to his friend M. de Barante, "while I read to her a sermon of Bossuet's on the immortality of the soul; I knew at what moment, at what phrase, she ceased to hear me." He worked even harder than before, and the first two volumes of the 'History of the English Revolution' appeared in 1827; a year afterwards he became the editor of the *Revue Française*, a serious review which discussed all the questions of philosophy and of political economy. A new ministry gave M. Guizot a place in the Council of State and allowed him to recommence his lectures, which for two years attracted to the Sorbonne a large concourse of auditors. These lectures on the history of civilization in Europe and in France had an immense influence. The eloquence of Guizot was admirable, grave, serious, at times pathetic; his historical science was solid; he did not lose himself in too many details, but surveyed history, so to speak, with the eye of a philosopher. Madame Guizot had herself recommended her husband to marry again. She had adopted one of her nieces, Élise Dillon, and M. Guizot, when he married this niece, probably thought that he satisfied a wish of his first wife. Élise Dillon became completely absorbed in her husband; she worked for him, thought with him, read, spoke for him; she was a Catholic, but by degrees her creed broadened so much that she became first unconsciously, afterwards consciously, a Protestant. She followed M. Guizot through life as the shadow follows the body.

On the 23d of January, 1830, M. Guizot was elected deputy in Normandy. He had never visited his electoral college of Lisieux, but his reputation had made him friends all over France. He entered the field of active politics in a great crisis. The Revolution of 1830 was approaching; the Chamber was dissolved on the 16th of May, 1830, and Guizot, who was assured of his re-election in Normandy, went to Nimes, in order to give his support to his friends. He did not foresee a revolution. "There are many elements of agitation; but as soon as an explosion seems near, or even possible, all draw back. . . . Nobody wishes to use any but legal means. . . . Except for extraordinary circumstances, the river will remain in its bed, even if it threatens to leave it." These extraordinary circumstances were preparing. Guizot, on his way back to Paris, heard on the 26th of July of the famous *ordonnances*. He arrived in Paris on the 27th, and found the capital in arms. When Louis Philippe received the crown from the Chamber of Deputies Guizot spent three months at the Home Office, and reorganized the whole administration. He attached himself to the part of the Government which was the least revolutionary—to M. de Broglie, to Casimir-Périer; and when Laffitte became President of the Council he retired with them. His political temper is well shown in this letter, which he addressed to the Duc de Broglie in 1832, after some days of insurrection in Paris:

"The Government has retaken possession of the guns; a power without guns is as impossible as a power without reason. Charles X. fell for want of reason; we were tottering for want of guns. Now we have both reason and guns. The King has appeared in person and faced the danger, simply and successfully. . . . On the 6th of June he gained his crown. . . . Rémusat has come back from London, satisfied with the state of England. He believes that the national good sense will correct the excess of violence and blindness in the electoral reform. We must believe in the good sense of the nations; we must believe in it as we believe in God, without seeing him, and almost without comprehending him; he is revealed in his works. . . . I have a great taste for the personification, the incarnation of the good and the true. However, I don't complain; the invisible God is better than idols."

Correspondence.

THE FOUNDATIONS OF RELIGIOUS BELIEF.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In two recent articles you have referred to an address of mine at Princeton which was published, with appended matter, in a small volume entitled 'Faith and Rationalism.' As what you say of my position on the grounds of religious belief does not adequately describe my opinions on that subject, perhaps you will give me room to set down my views, as concisely as I can, on two or three main points.

I do not hold, nor do I know of any Christian theologian who does hold, that anything is to be believed in religion without evidence, and without such an amount of evidence as rationally justifies conviction. To believe a proposition because one wishes to believe it, or because one chooses to believe it—on the maxim, *voluntas stet pro ratione*—is to abjure reason. At the same time, feeling and will have a great part, and a legitimate part, in connection with religious belief. Let us see how. There is, of course, the general reflex influence of character on intellect in quickening or blunting its perception of evidence—a fruitful topic, were there room to consider it. The fact is one with which everybody is familiar. All philosophers attest it. "So intimate," says R. W. Emerson ('Works,' ii. 431), "is this alliance of mind and heart that talent uniformly sinks with character. The bias of errors of principle carries away men into perilous courses as soon as their will does not control their passion or talent. . . . Hence the remedy for all errors, the cure of blindness, the cure of crime, is love. 'As much love, so much mind,' says the Latin proverb. The superiority that has no superior; the redeemer and instructor of souls, as it is their primal essence, is love," etc. But I must pass by this particular theme. We have to distinguish between the genesis of a belief, or the way in which we come by it, and the grounds of its validity. It may be, however, that the subjective antecedents of a belief constitute also its reasonable warrant. Now—to take the first great truth of natural religion, the being of a personal God—the belief in God is engendered in the soul, as I suppose, by the feelings of dependence and of obligation. God is spontaneously recognized in consciousness as the correlate of these feelings, and they are the rational ground, as well as the psychological source, of faith in him. This faith

is corroborated by the great argument of design. If the reader supposes that this argument has been weakened in the slightest degree by modern science—unless materialistic or agnostic monism is assumed to be "science"—I commend to his attention M. Janet's work on 'Final Causes'; or, if he has not time for that, Mozley's Discussion in one of his collected Essays, or F. W. Newman's trenchant article in the *Contemporary Review* for 1878. The alternative is now, as it always has been, chance or design; and which is the true explanation of the world it may still be safely left to the common sense of mankind to decide.

But though there be valid evidence of the personality of God, the argument from design is not demonstrative, and the feelings which are psychologically and rationally the data of faith, notwithstanding that they belong to all men, vary widely in the degree of their intensity. All know how true this is of the feelings of conscience—self-approbation, shame, remorse, praise, blame; that is to say, different minds have different perceptions of the evidence. Besides, an act of the will is required, not at all to eke out a deficiency of proof, but, first, because the proof is probable, not coercive. In a word, the conclusion *cannot be forced upon us;* it must be freely accepted; secondly, because, from the nature of the case, no experimental verification is possible. The proof is good, but of a peculiar kind, and the conclusion is of so momentous a character that the mind staggers in the presence of it. This hesitation, as Dean Mozley has well said, is "not from any want of cogency in the reasons, but from the amazing nature of the conclusion—that it is so unparalleled, transcendent, and inconceivable a truth to believe. It requires trust to commit one's self to the conclusion of any reasoning, however strong, when such as this is the conclusion; to put enough dependence and reliance upon any premises to accept upon the strength of them so immense a result. When reason draws conclusions which are in accordance with experience, which have their parallels in the facts which we are conversant with in the order of nature and of common life, then reason is called reason; when reason draws conclusions which are not backed by experience, and which are not paralleled by similar facts within our ordinary cognizance, then reason is called faith. . . . The inward energy of the reason has to be evoked, when she can no longer lean upon the outward prop of custom, but is thrown back upon herself and the intrinsic force of her premises" ('Miracles,' pp. 79, 80).

We approach the evidences of *revealed* religion with the great assumption of Theism, which is furnished by natural theology. The possibility of miracles is a necessary inference. Whether they actually occurred is to be settled by an examination of the testimony and of the character of the system of doctrine which they are to attest. I should have small respect for a theologian who did not rejoice to see the historical proofs subjected to the severest possible scrutiny. There has been no modern attack having claims to notice which has not been met by Christian scholars. No one will set Strauss, in learning and scientific ability, above Neander—not to speak of his other opponents. 'Supernatural Religion' is the most elaborate attack in English upon the genuineness and credibility of the Gospels. Let any competent scholar judge how much was left of that work after the series of articles by Dr. Lightfoot in the *Contemporary Review* in reply to it. Professor Abbot's articles on the authorship of the Fourth Gospel will hardly be denied to be scientific. The one last published comes as near to a demonstration, as it seems to me, that this Gospel was one of the "Memoirs" of Justin, as is ever practicable in such enquiries. The main questions are: Do the Gospels present the testimony which the apostles gave? Were the apostles truthful? Let the issues be squarely met. If there is any other reasonable hypothesis besides that of Christian believers for accounting for the origin of Christianity, let it be presented and tested. The mythical hypothesis is mostly given up. The most learned scholar on the unbelieving side, M. Renan, driven by the evidence, holds that miracles were supposed by the bystanders to be wrought by Jesus. His theory is that Jesus connived at a pious fraud. Is this "scientific"? If so, let it be accepted. If not, give us another theory which will satisfactorily account for the claims of Jesus, the faith of the apostles in him, and the rise of the Church. When we deal with the *internal* proofs of Christianity we enter a province where the affections and the bent of the will strongly influence the perceptions. Take, for example, the character of Jesus. Men differ very much in their appreciation of excellence in character. The corollaries which they draw must be greatly determined by their varying sense of the moral elevation of Christ. Take the question of the adaptedness of the Gospel to the moral and spiritual necessities of man. The Apostle Paul, with his vivid sense of the power of sin—"that which I do, I allow not"; *video meliora proboque, deteriora sequor*—perceived certain, to him marvellous, adaptations in the Gospel to the moral distress that afflicted him, which gave to these adaptations a probative force beyond what they could carry to minds not partaking in his experience. But the internal proof is just as scientific as the external. And both are parts of one whole.

The point which I wish to illustrate is, that no sensible theologian will allow for a moment that there is any more solid foundation for scientific beliefs than for religious beliefs. The thesis of Arthur Balfour, in his 'Defence of Philosophic Doubt,' is a sound one, whatever exception may be taken, here and there, to the ingenious argumentation by which it is sustained. One main object of the little book on 'Faith and Rationalism' was to point out the *unscientific* character of much of the current Rationalism, in its impatience of mysteries, its ignoring of moral and religious feelings, which are facts that science is bound to take account of; its frequent disregard of implicit mental processes, its exaggeration of logic to the neglect of the phenomena which provide logic with its materials, etc. "Science" is a term used nowadays with remarkable indefiniteness. Much would be gained, in my judgment, if the distinction between science and philosophy were carefully observed.

At the risk of trespassing on your patience, I must express my dissent from the *Nation's* opinion as to the mutations and anarchic condition of theology. There is change, there is progress, as there ought to be, but no *bouleversement.* The Apostles' Creed is accepted by the great body of Christians as a summary of the facts of Christianity. In later days, attention has been drawn more to the central truth, the person and work of Christ. Jesus, on a certain occasion, called to him the dozen peasants whom he chose to be his companions and apostles, and asked them what opinions were popularly entertained respecting him. When they had answered the question, he enquired what they themselves thought of him. On Peter's declaration that he was "the Son of God," Jesus declared that his Church should be built, and that it should be stronger than the gates of Hades—than all the powers of destruction. What was involved in that name, "the Son of God," Christians generally find to be substantially defined in the Nicene Creed. The chief departures from previous opinion are in the field of Biblical criticism. But the example of the illustrious German theologians, as Neander, Julius Müller, Nitzsch, Rothe, Bleek, Dorner, proves that there may be a wide modification of traditional views in this direction without the least renunciation of the fundamental principles of the evangelical creed. Even Professor Robertson Smith, who has gone so far as to ascribe to Deuteronomy a post-Mosaic origin, and has just been restored to his chair by the Free Church of Scotland, believes, like the religious body in which he is a teacher, in the doctrines of the Westminster Confession. The progress of natural science has opened up new views in cosmology and zoölogy; but the new facts furnish no logical foundation for atheism. As to the notion that "science" has disproved the reality of the free and responsible nature of man, or proved consciousness to be a mere function of the brain, perishing with it, this is but an empty pretence. And as to the appalling facts of sin and death, of which redemption is the correlate—these remain unaltered.

GEORGE P. FISHER.

NEW HAVEN, June 10, 1880.

Notes.

THOUGH the entire matter for the proposed 'Bibliography of Ohio' (Cincinnati: Peter G. Thomson) is ready for the printer, the subscriptions, we regret to learn, fall short some two hundred of the requisite number. The author renounces his profits in favor of the better manufacture of the volume, which is promised to be the handsomest of the kind ever published in this country.——'What to Drink and When to Drink'; 'Ancient Rome and Its Connection with the Christian Religion,' by the Rev. Henry Formby; and Felix L. Oswald's 'Summerland Sketches,' are in the press of J. B. Lippincott & Co.——'Appleton's Dictionary of New York' appears in a revised edition for the current year. Articles like the Museum of Fine Arts, Lenox Library, Astor Library, Elevated Railways, East River Bridge, Coney Island, etc., show the editorial vigilance in corrections and additions. Those handy water-omnibuses, the Brooklyn Annex-boats (which, by the way, perhaps should have a cross-reference under Annex), are not credited with their full activity. Under Statuary the dates of erection of our public monuments are not uniformly given, though this would be worth a little pains. We should like to see an extension of this article, indicating the more important portraits and other busts and reproductions from the antique visible in our public institutions.——G. P. Putnam's Sons have issued

No. 11 of the *Journal of Social Science*. It gives the usual report of proceedings and selections from the Saratoga papers of last year, of which Prof. Watson's report on the protection of life from casualties in the use of machinery is as noticeable as any.——The firm name of John Murphy & Co., Baltimore, will not be altered in consequence of the recent death of the senior partner, who will be succeeded by his son, Mr. Frank K. Murphy—one more gratifying evidence of the hereditary tendency of our American publishing houses.——We spoke last week of the St. Louis school system, and might have referred to its *Public Library School Bulletin*, published quarterly at a small price. The books entered are liberally supplied with descriptive notes in the excellent fashion set by Mr. Cutter in his Athenæum *Bulletin*.——Sir W. R. Drake, F.S.A., has bestowed great care in compiling a very full and exact list of 185 examples of the skill and genius of the "etched work of F. S. Haden" in a descriptive catalogue just published by Macmillan & Co. As Mr. Haden himself took much interest in his friend's task, and afforded ready assistance to the compilation, it may be relied upon in every respect, the introduction being especially to be commended as containing definitions of "trial proof," "state," "new state," and other nice terms not too well understood by the public generally.——In the *Athenæum* for May 29 Prof. Masson prints a letter from Col. Joseph L. Chester establishing beyond question a discovery made by the latter as long ago as 1868, that Milton's mother was the elder daughter of Paul Jeffraye, of St. Swithin's, London, merchant tailor.——The same paper announces among forthcoming English publications Trevelyan's 'Early History of Charles James Fox'; a translation of Madame de Witt's 'Monsieur Guizot in Private Life'; and a list, to be drawn up under the auspices of the Philological Society, of all English words whose forms have been falsified by mistaken analogy or false etymology, and all words containing needless letters. The revised spellings will be recommended by the Society.——Prof. Dr. Hermann Sevin, at Mosbach, Baden, invites subscriptions to a photographic (heliotype) reproduction of Uolrich Richental's 'Concilium ze Costenz,' 1414–1418,' after the Aulendorf MS. of 1424, the earliest and most authentic. The imperfect printed editions of 1483 and 1536 followed a probably sophisticated MS. of a date posterior to 1433. Richental's contemporaneous account of the Council of Constance has a peculiar value from its large number of portraits and coats-of-arms, the latter numbering more than 600. These will be painted to order if desired. The subscription price is 150 marks (160 bound) or $37 50 to $40.

—The tenth of Mr. Sidney S. Rider's Rhode Island Historical Tracts presents the publisher's own researches concerning the attempt to raise a regiment of slaves by Rhode Island during the Revolution. The subject has two interesting phases, one involving the reputation of the State for prudence and superiority to prejudice, the other the reputation of the enlisted slaves. Historians as respectable as the late S. G. Arnold on the one hand and the late George Livermore on the other have fallen into serious exaggerations and perversions of the truth, while tradition has been as reckless as usual. Mr. Rider carefully marshals all the passages in printed works which pass for a true record of the facts of the case, then examines in detail the laws and other original pieces which show what actually occurred, and finally compares and comments the two series. Foot-notes and statistical tables complete the exhaustiveness of the enquiry, from which it clearly results that the act authorizing the enlistment of slaves and their manumission with compensation to their owners was not directly suggested by General Varnum nor endorsed by Washington; that it was passed by an expiring legislature and was quickly repealed by the new and much altered General Assembly, having been in force only four months (February–May, 1778); that the black "regiment" was never more than a battalion, including some eighty-eight freedmen; that it did not display extraordinary valor against the Hessians in the battle of Rhode Island; that it was not in existence at the time of the defence of Red Bank (October 22, 1777), where it is said to have behaved with gallantry; that its behavior at Point Bridge on the Croton River (May 14, 1781), when its colonel, Christopher Greene, was surprised and killed, is rather censurable than otherwise. The sum of the experiment, which cost upwards of ten thousand pounds, is thus given in Lieutenant-Colonel Olney's order of February, 1782, viz.: "It has been found from long and fatal experience that Indians, negroes, and mulattoes do not (and from a total want of perseverance and fortitude to bear the various fatigues incident to an army cannot) answer the public service." They had, however, their share of suffering in the ill-fated expedition against Oswego, and were denied equal treatment with white men in respect of bounties and allowance for depreciated currency, and they were victims of a conspiracy to obtain their wages on forged orders. A memoir of Colonel Olney precedes the enquiry and gives an agreeable impression of this brave soldier.

—Harper & Brothers have published in their Half-Hour Series a very desirable little book for the student of history, Eginhard's (or Einhard's, which appears to be the preferable form of the name) 'Life of Charlemagne,' translated from the text of the 'Monumenta Germaniæ' by Samuel Epes Turner. There is another English translation, by W. Glaister, London, 1877. The importance of Einhard's 'Life' as a literary production is evident from Guizot, who calls it the most distinguished piece of history from the sixth to the eighth century—indeed, the only one which can be called history. No historical work had borne such characteristics since the great productions of Latin literature. It is a classic of the ninth century, written originally in Latin. From the fifth century on to our own times, says Guizot again, the human mind was at its lowest point in modern Europe in the seventh century. As Charlemagne revived the Roman Empire of the West, Einhard revived good composition and in Latin of superior quality. It is an unpretending work, and narrates first the public exploits and then the private life of the greatest king of the Middle Ages, with a variety of interesting details as to the times of the man by one of his own officers. Einhard was the minister of public works of Charlemagne. He is often called his secretary also, though, we believe, not by contemporary documents; but his statement that the emperor could not write has been received with considerable doubt, the fact, if a fact, seeming hardly consistent with the monarch's love of learning and his energy and general accomplishments. It may be doubted, however, whether the emperor, if he wrote his own will, incorporated into this biography, also revised it, as he orders that a certain "silver table which far surpasses the other two in weight and in beauty of workmanship, and is made in three circles, showing the plan of the whole universe, drawn with skill and delicacy, shall go, together with the golden table, to increase that lot which is to be devoted to his heirs and to alms"; for the bequests to his heirs and those to the poor already formed distinct lots.

—Summer amusements in New York are not so numerous that we can part with any of them, however insecurely established, without a pang of regret. It was perhaps hardly to be expected that Mr. Delancey Kane's coach would ever become a permanent institution, but while it lasted it contributed to give an agreeable and exotic variety to summer life in the city. The causes which have led to its withdrawal have not been publicly stated, but they would probably well repay analysis to those interested in minor social problems. The difficulty of getting good roads and keeping them in order was one of the main obstacles contended with, and the migration of the well-to-do classes in New York to the mountains and sea-side during the hot months was another. It must be admitted, too, that public sentiment was against the introduction of coaching, as an English and aristocratic occupation. To the foreign observer of American manners it may seem difficult to explain why the daily spectacle of a gentleman mounting on a coach-box, and assuming the lawful occupation of a common carrier of goods and passengers, should be regarded with aversion, or why this common-carrier himself should inspire distrust, and be suspected of an insidious attempt to "establish caste" among a hitherto free people; but that such distrust and suspicion were aroused by Mr. Kane, no one who is an attentive reader of the newspapers can have failed to observe. The logical process at the foundation of this phenomenon is, we believe, something like this. When a well-to-do amateur undertakes an occupation as an amateur which others may in theory (although they do not in practice) undertake seriously, he emphasizes in an odious way the difference between the "swell" and the ordinary citizen, and calls attention to the unpleasant truth that swells have more time on their hands than ordinary citizens. Add to this that coaching is a distinctively English sport, all the appliances for which have to be either imported from England or made here in imitation of English fashions, and it is clear that no man could undertake to run a coach here without serious risk to his reputation as a true American. Notwithstanding the enormous social changes of the last twenty-five years there is still a prevailing unwillingness to recognize the fact that there is any rich, idle class in America which needs to be provided with amusement and recreation, and will be provided with it in some way either in or out of the country. The normal type of American citizenship is still in theory regarded as excluding the idea of frivolous enjoyment of any kind, and perhaps Mr. Kane's greatest crime was that he occupied himself with introducing a

taste for an amusement of an undemocratic sort among a class which, so far from being entitled to amusement, is barely entitled to exist at all. Mr. James, in his recent essay on Hawthorne, attempted to enumerate all the interesting social phenomena which in England make up so important a part of life, but which are with us so conspicuous by their absence. Mr. Kane may, by those who think that what America most needs is Europeanization, be regarded as a reformer who has unsuccessfully attempted to supply one of these numerous deficiencies. Like other reformers he has struggled manfully against difficulties which were too serious for him. Like the attempt to transplant fox-hunting to Long Island, it has met with a firm resistance in the habits, customs, and prejudices of the people, and unlike fox-hunting, in which the reformers had an opportunity of feeling their way by first establishing a hunt in which there was no fox, there was no way of introducing it gradually. Moral and political considerations apart, we regret the failure of Mr. Kane's attempt. In view of the position of the United States in the modern world it may have been a wrong thing for him to run the "Tally-ho" from the Hotel Brunswick to New Rochelle and back, but the trip was a very pleasant one to take, and afforded to the worldly-minded rich, while it lasted, a very agreeable recreation.

—If Signor Rodolfo Lanciani has not been led away by undue enthusiasm in his report to the *Athenæum*, touching a "memorable and unique excavation," some two months since, at the foot of Aurelian's wall, which enclosed the fourteenth or trans-Tiberine region of Augustus at Rome, the discovery is of uncommon interest and value. Besides two inscriptions and a portion of a third on the mausoleum of "C. Sulpicius Platorinus, a decemvir litibus judicandis, and of his daughter, Sulpicia Platorina, the wife of Cornelius Priscus," there were dug up six cineraria of the most exquisite design, the marketable value of which is approximately ten thousand francs apiece; three gold rings; one intaglio and two camei; a mosaic pavement; a bust, "one of the most refined and carefully executed (female) portraits ever found in Rome"; "a full-size marble statue of a beautiful young woman," recalling to the mind the Vatican Pudicitia, and a statue of the Emperor Tiberius, which will require the aid of the restorer. It is thought strange that the tomb should have been built so very near the Tiber, by which it must have been overflowed ten or fifteen times a year.

—The series of historical monographs edited by Prof. Schmoller chooses subjects which have a bearing upon economical questions; a second series, edited by Prof. Gierke, of Breslau (*Untersuchungen zur deutschen Staats- und Rechtsgeschichte*), aims to discuss questions of constitutional history. The first of the series is 'Geschichte des Rathes in Strassburg,' by Dr. Winter. Its most notable point is its attempt to compromise between the views of Arnold and Nitzsch as to the origin of the free constitution of the German cities, which Arnold (with whom Heusler agrees) refers to an original free element in the population (*die Altfreien*), while Nitzsch denies any such element, but considers the population of the cities to have been wholly unfree, and ascribes the formation of the free institutions to the great economical development in the eleventh and twelfth centuries. Dr. Winter agrees essentially with Nitzsch, at least for Strassburg (Cologne would support Arnold's view); he admits the existence of a free population in the early times, but believes that they lost their independence in consequence of the grants of extensive privileges made to the bishops by the emperors of the tenth century. The author then goes on to discuss the growth of the Council (*Rath*), and of its two principal powers—jurisdiction and the right to levy taxes—down to the statute of 1263, in which the practical independence and sovereignty of the city are recognized in the right to form treaties and alliances, a right which had already, to be sure, been exercised without formal authority. The second *Lieferung* is 'Zur strafrechtlichen Stellung der Sclaven bei Deutschen und Angelsachsen,' by Dr. Jastrow. The Franks, Langobards, and Anglo-Saxons fill the principal part of the book. Under each head there are four divisions—the Personality (especially the Wergeld), Delicts committed by the slave, Delicts committed against the slave, and Procedure. The term *slave* is defined with the greatest strictness as indicating a person who is absolutely a chattel in law. Nevertheless, the most interesting, and we may say the most important, point brought out in the discussion is the gradual elevation of the slave into a quasi-personal condition, in which the law regards him partly as a man and partly as a thing. In this the Church had considerable influence. We see also, side by side with this movement, a gradual sinking of the common freemen, until the two classes are hardly distinguishable from one another; this is the twofold origin of the mediæval serfs. An appendix of thirty-three pages contains all the Anglo-Saxon laws bearing upon the question, with commentary.

—No other institution of modern civilization has worked so ill in Russia as has the jury, which was introduced some ten years since, and which was obligatory, even in political cases, down to the trial of Vera Zassulitch. Various causes have been assigned for its inefficiency—the severity of the punishment for certain offences combined with the proverbial goodnature of the Russian people; the bad management of the crown-officers, etc.; but the real reason, according to the Moscow historian, Ilovaisky, who has been writing on the subject in a St. Petersburg paper, is the impracticably liberal organization of the jury itself. The original Russian jury, it seems, consists of thirty-six members at the beginning of the session, but in a short time at least six of these are allowed to excuse themselves, while of the twelve impanelled the defendants' counsel is allowed to challenge eleven, and never hesitates to make full use of this right. The criminal statistics do, indeed, show a fair percentage of convictions, but they occur in unimportant cases. Petty thieves are almost invariably convicted and condemned to severe punishment, but defaulters, and even murderers, go free. While, in the opinion of Mr. Ilovaisky, prisoners from the ranks of the common people rarely escape, any one who can pay for the chicanery of a skilful lawyer has little reason to fear. The remedy proposed is the narrower limitation of the right of challenge.

ENGLISH OPINION IN 1789.*

DR. EDWARD RIGBY was born in 1747. He was educated at Dr. Priestley's school, was connected with the Taylors and Martineaus, and belonged to the enlightened and priggish society which at the close of the last century was the glory of Norwich. He held "strong opinions against the French Government, Church, and noblesse." He was, in short, a typical Whig, though he would probably have been termed a Democrat by the "old Whigs" who followed Burke. In 1789 he passed two months on the Continent, and by good fortune was at Paris on the day when the Bastille was taken. He wrote frequently to his "dear loves" at Norwich. His daughter, Lady Eastlake, has now published his letters, being convinced that "in the light of contemporary history all contributions, however humble, are valuable, and all pens, however unpretending, acceptable." Her conviction, though oddly expressed, is perfectly sound: her father's letters have a real value to any student of history, but it is value of a peculiar kind. They do not contain, as far as we can observe, a single new fact of any importance; they are not graphic; they are not marked by any special originality of thought on the part of the writer. They are, in fact, exactly such letters as ninety-one years ago scores of intelligent English gentlemen might have written, and probably did write, home from France for the information and entertainment of their families. It is, however, just in the fact of Dr. Rigby's letters being the ordinary letters of a certainly not extraordinary man that their value consists. They give, without the writer's intending it, a sketch of Whig (we might probably say of English) sentiment at a stupendous crisis in European history. In these letters we can catch something of the tone, the color, the atmosphere, so to speak, of English society at the dawn of the revolutionary movement. We can learn not so much what men did, but (a matter which is at bottom of even more consequence) what men felt, before the bright morning of French freedom was succeeded by and forgotten in the heat and glare of the revolutionary noonday.

This is a matter which it is in general almost impossible to ascertain. The ninety-one years which have passed since the States-General met at Paris have witnessed such changes that neither Englishmen nor Frenchmen find it easy to recognize or understand the feelings with which their fathers welcomed the new era. It is, further, a necessary incident of a revolutionary period that men's opinions and views change with the utmost rapidity. Hence nothing really reproduces the sentiment of a given time which is not strictly contemporaneous. The *Annual Register*, for example, for 1789 looks at first sight like a veracious record of that year's feelings. It was, however, published in 1791. It belongs, therefore, to a time differing widely in tone from the year which it records. If we are to know what men felt in '89 we must see what they wrote from day to day, we must look to diaries and letters; and among the letters which are curious as records of feeling Dr. Rigby's may claim not a high but a respectable place. Looked at in this light they contain scarcely a

* 'Dr. Rigby's Letters from France, etc., in 1789. Edited by his daughter, Lady Eastlake.' London: Longmans, Green & Co.

line which has not a certain value. Take, for example, the following passage, which might easily be matched by others of like character:

"Everything we see bears the mark of industry, and all the people look happy. We have, indeed, seen few signs of opulence in individuals, for we do not see so many gentlemen's seats as in England, but then we have seen few of the lower classes in rags, idleness, and misery. What strange prejudices we are apt to take regarding foreigners! I will own I used to think that the French were a trifling, insignificant people; that they were meagre in their appearance, and lived in a state of wretchedness from being oppressed by their superiors. . . . The soldiers are very clean; so far from being meagre and ill-looking fellows, as John Bull would persuade us, they are well formed, tall, handsome men, and have a cheerfulness and civility in their countenances and manner which is particularly pleasing."

These sentences in one sense contain nothing; in another, they are full of value, for they tell modern readers what we are all of us apt to forget, that the ignorance which divided Englishmen from foreigners was in the last century different in degree if not in kind from the ignorance which now divides educated men of one country from those of another. The tone of Dr. Rigby's remarks is unmistakable. He clearly must have felt that France was separated from England nearly to the same extent to which modern Englishmen feel that Japan is separated from Great Britain, or to which a modern American feels that China is separated from New York. Dr. Rigby was an enlightened person, he was what would now be called a man of culture; yet he obviously experienced the same gratified surprise at finding that Frenchmen were not after all markedly inferior to Englishmen, which a benevolent traveller would now experience at discovering that a love of freedom, sound views of education, and a high estimate of Parliamentary government had made great progress in Morocco. For Dr. Rigby's good-will to France, though he knew little of Frenchmen, is no less marked than his surprise at finding that he had been a victim to prejudice. Here, in fact, we catch one of the best traits of 1789: Englishmen had prejudices, but they had learnt that to get rid of prejudices was a sign of enlightenment, and had not yet been led, under the influence of the reaction against Jacobin excesses, to conceive that philanthropy was inconsistent with good sense and patriotism.

"I shall always," writes Dr. Rigby, "feel the strongest partiality for the people [of France], and I hope that in no future time the wrong-headed politics of our country will oblige us to consider them as our enemies. To the eye of the moralist and philosopher the prospect of the effect of this Revolution on science, manners, and human happiness can but be most gratifying. The population of this country is so great, and the inhabitants, even when living under many disadvantages, have given such proofs of their industry and ingenuity, that it is inconceivable to what a height of improvement with regard to knowledge and wealth they will arrive when they are at liberty to exercise the powers of the mind, and secure to enjoy its fruits."

Philanthropic enthusiasm reached its height with Dr. Rigby, as with every lover of freedom throughout the civilized world, at the fall of the Bastille. He himself saw one of the few prisoners whom it contained on the 13th of July leave its walls. The man, as report said, had been originally confined for an attack on the Jesuits.

"He was suffered to remain in prison either because he was forgotten, because he had no friend at court to petition for his enlargement, or because it was thought impolitic to forgive, especially where the court had acted on an error. . . . Every one who witnessed this scene probably felt," writes Dr. Rigby, "as I did, an emotion of horror and detestation of the Government which could so obdurately as well as unjustly expose human beings to such suffering, and of pity for the miserable individual before us. The latter feeling increased as my attention became more fixed upon them. . . . Perhaps to some persons I should be ashamed to acknowledge it, but you will not think the worse of me: I was no longer able to bear the sight—I turned from the crowd, I burst into tears."

Here breathes the very spirit of the time. As we read the dramatic episodes of the Revolution we are apt to fancy that the men who took part in the performance were conscious actors. No idea is a more complete mistake. The period was, strange though the expression sounds, an age of faith. Vehement feeling excited vehement demonstrations, and when a middle-aged English doctor burst naturally into tears there is no need to suppose that the sentimentality, the oaths, the embraces, the hysterical demonstrations which marked the whole contest between throne and people in France, were other than the genuine and at the time natural displays of real, honest emotion. For the whole action of the generation to which Dr. Rigby belonged was influenced by a sentiment or conviction of which his letters bear abundant traces: forms of government seemed to the men of that age not only one cause but the main cause of the misery or happiness of mankind. Despotism was in their eyes the certain source of human degradation and woe; Liberty was the equally certain cure for all the evils which afflict humanity. This belief appears in a passage already cited, for Dr. Rigby confidently believes that the French will arrive at an "inconceivable height of improvement" when they "are at liberty to exercise the powers of the mind, and secure to enjoy its fruits." The same creed is traceable throughout his letters. His friend recovers a watch through the honesty of a Swiss innkeeper, and Rigby is "as much gratified by this trait of *republican honesty* as by our friend's recovery of his property." The words we have underlined give, we may be certain, the point of the sentence: Honesty is the natural fruit of republican virtue. The innkeepers and postilions of Prussia cheat our friend and his companions. "Impositions of all kinds we begun to experience as soon as we entered a country governed by a despot. Bad money was also in circulation here." At Wesel the English party come across a fellow-countryman forced into the Prussian service:

"He was [whilst passing through Wesel] detained and imprisoned for several days, and harshly treated till he enlisted. But he said he looked forward to the time when he should be discharged and be able to return to England, for Prussian soldiers are enlisted for only ten years and a day, and he had already served six. . . . I had an opportunity afterwards of telling this tale to a Prussian officer, and he said: 'Yes, he will be discharged if, at the end of the term, he is in any way unfit for service; but if otherwise, and he should demand his discharge, he would immediately be tied up to the halberds and well flogged, and that would be called a renewal of the contract.' What an instance is this of tyranny! How can a country flourish under a government capable of such actions? But it does not flourish. The land is uncultivated and depopulated. In the dominions of this fool of a king there is scarcely any peasantry. Every new-born babe is made a soldier, and, in a little while, there will be no inhabitants left to till the ground. Who would wish to live in Germany? But these despotic systems must have an end, and the tyrants who divide this country so blest by nature must expect a fall."

This prediction is remarkable, and the whole passage in every way noteworthy. As we read it we begin to understand why the Revolutionary armies were welcomed in Germany and Italy as deliverers from oppression. We can believe the tale recorded in Palmerston's journal (incredible as it sounds to modern ears) that Jena was lost because German scouts deserted to the French; and can enter into the feeling which certainly as late as 1830 made many of the countrymen of Stein look back with more than regret to the rule of Napoleon, and look forward with more than acquiescence towards union with France. The reflection further inevitably suggests itself that the nineteenth century has lost something in forgetting that a king or minister is a "fool" if he thinks that the height of statesmanship is attained when every man of every country is turned into a machine for destroying human beings. For it is to the sentiment of Dr. Rigby's language, to its profound contempt and hatred for despotism and its genuine belief in freedom, that our attention should be directed. We have here a feeling which constituted part of the moral atmosphere of '89. It could not flourish during the years of reaction, when even wise men were still disturbed by having learnt "how many crimes have been committed in the name of Liberty," and when unwise men could not distinguish rational freedom from the bloody tyranny of the Reign of Terror. It can hardly flourish in an age which, like the present, has never known, or has at least only faintly known, the evils of established despotism, and which has begun to think that freedom, because it is the common heritage of many nations, is not a matter to be specially prized. It was precisely the sentiment natural for men who, like the Englishman of '89, had first learnt to take a personal pride in the cause of liberty because freedom had been the privilege of Englishmen; and next, under the influence of the enlightenment of the eighteenth century, had learned to believe that the freedom to which England owed her greatness ought to be the common heritage of mankind. In the mode in which this creed was applied there was some error. In Dr. Rigby's ignorance of France one sees represented the weak point of his generation. They knew far more about Man than about the real men whose wants, whose follies, and whose ignorance made France's struggle for freedom turn out at least but a half-success. But Dr. Rigby's philanthropy, his love of liberty, and his hatred of despotism were the strong points of his contemporaries, no less than of himself. These sentiments may have had an element of illusion. If, however, they were illusions, they were generous errors; and no one can understand the events which make up the Revolution until he has understood the feelings and the illusions of '89. Nothing will prove more helpful to the attainment of such understanding than the intelligent study of 'Dr. Rigby's Letters from France.'

THE RUSSIA OF TO-DAY.*

CZAR ALEXANDER II., the emancipator of twenty million serfs, and liberator of Bulgaria, hunted like a wild beast by revolutionists, and sick of the names of freedom and war; the Tzesarevitch coquetting and co-operating with the Aksakoffs and Tchernayeffs in the interest of a Panslavic and anti-English extension of the empire, the borders of which now extend from Behring's Strait to the Warthe, and from the Polar Sea to Mount Ararat; the Grand Duke Nicholas despised as a profligate and corrupt prince, and a worthless commander; the Grand Duke Michael and other princes equally despised; Gortchakoff successively drifting into a war which he dislikes and into secret diplomatic manœuvres which end in Russia's isolation; Ignatieff successfully intriguing for a crusade, disgraced after Plevna, triumphant at San Stefano, and disgraced again after Berlin; Gourko, Todleben, and other vanquishers of the Turk transformed into governors-general in the style of the Valmasedas, for the stamping out of the revolutionary plague; Tolstoy restoring in universities and academies the autocratic rod and nod which were believed to have disappeared with Czar Nicholas; Miliutin, the reckless reformer and propagandist, become moderate from want of success and energy; Loris-Melikoff made imperial lieutenant with unlimited powers for the extirpation of Nihilism, after its most furious regicidal attempt—such are some of the striking aspects which governmental Russia presents to the observer in these latter days.

And more striking still are some of the popular phenomena developed in the test phases of Russia's revolutionary travail. This movement began during Alexander I.'s vacillating between liberalism and despotism, was falsely believed to have been stifled in the blood of the Decembrists when Nicholas ascended the throne, was nurtured in the shade under the stupidly tyrannical sceptre of the latter monarch, drew strength from the Muscovite Old-Russian reaction against the leadership of St. Petersburg—a reaction which culminated in the Panslavic propaganda—was systematically developed by the clandestine republican agitation of Alexander Hertzen, became almost general when the Crimean campaign had laid bare the impotence of Czardom, forced Alexander II. upon the path of reform, yielded to patriotism during the Polish insurrection of 1863, but soon renewed its activity as destructive Nihilism, and drove the Czar into reaction, war, and terrorism.

Bakunin, who began as a disciple of Neo-Hegelianism, ends his career by proclaiming "universal destruction" and "shapelessness" as the last aims of revolution, and political assassination as a chief duty of a radical reformer. His emissary Netchayeff commits assassination with the *sang-froid* of a bravo. Two young Jewesses head a revolutionary demonstration in front of the Kazan Church in St. Petersburg—a city in which permission to erect a synagogue is vainly petitioned for. Vera Zassulitch coolly shoots the St. Petersburg prefect of police, Trepoff, a man personally unknown to her, in order to avenge a wrong done a conspirator, Bogoliuboff. A girl of nineteen carries out the assassination of a presumed traitor to the cause in Moscow. Idalia Pohlheim, in Southern Russia, is directed by her Socialist circle to become the mistress of a rich old landowner, and to poison and rob him for the benefit of the Socialist treasury. Unmoved by scruples, the conspirators are still less accessible to terror. Mirski, the would-be assassin of the chief of the secret police, Drenteln, instead of defending himself before the court, turns a calm and determined accuser of the Government and its tools. Solovieff, certain of his doom for attempting the life of the Czar, boldly proclaims his principles and evinces heroic firmness to the last moment. Deutsch, detected with his secret printing-press, baffles his captors by shooting himself. Mladetzki, led to the gibbet, casts pitiful smiles upon all who surround him. (The last two names, of course, do not occur in the book before us, which was finished last year.)

Whence springs this strange mixture of conditions and tendencies? that fatal proclivity towards unbridled despotism in the rulers? that savagery of revolutionary enthusiasts? Why is it that "under the polished and elegant exterior of officers of the guard, aristocrats, officials, and others of that sort, whom foreigners have been taught to recognize as the representatives of the Russian nation, lurks not unfrequently the nature of an Asiatic despot," and that the Russian hater of tyranny and radical reformer so readily becomes an incendiary? Our author thinks that "a single obvious reflection more than half suffices to solve the apparent enigma." He says:

"The Russians of the second half of this century are either the sons and grandsons of serf-proprietors, or the descendants of former serfs, or men who themselves have tasted the bitterness of serfdom. . . . From whatever side we approach the social history of the nation—whether we fix our eyes upon the antecedents of the Imperial house and high nobility, or those of the bureaucratic, the burgher, or the peasant class—it is equally plain that the cradle even of the present generation was surrounded by an atmosphere which can be described by no other name but that of barbarism. The mild and enlightened Autocrat who has abolished serfdom and the knout is the grandson of that Emperor Paul who seemed to belong not to the Christian era, but to the age of the Cæsars. His uncle was that Grand-Duke Constantine whose savageness amazed the Congress of Erfurt, and who himself confessed his inability to rule a modern state. The fathers of the statesmen who have given laws to modern Russia, led her armies, and conducted her diplomacy, were actors in the palace conspiracies of 1762 and 1801, men who despised any one below a colonel, and who harried their subordinates just as they were harried by the emperor. The clergy, whose duty it is to humanize the emancipated peasants and teach them to read and write, were ordained for the most part by dignitaries of the Church who regarded as their chief mission the persecution of heretics, and whose folly was only surpassed by their cruelty—men, in fact, who even till quite recently were accustomed to curse with bell, book, and candle, at least once a year—December 24, O.S.—all the heretical nations of the west. . . ."

This leading observation our author elucidates by biographical sketches of prominent Russians, such as Hertzen, Bakunin, and Prince Tcherkasski—sketches which rival in interest his still more important chapters on the universities, female education, the late war, the present situation, etc. We doubt, however, whether this main explanation goes as far as the writer thinks. The rest of the solution must, anyhow, be sought in the admixture of Mongolian blood which the Russian people suffered during the centuries of Tartar invasion and domination; in the fierceness which the long struggle with those oppressors, in the name of a church intensely Byzantine, impressed upon the Russian character—a fierceness further developed during the unification of the Russias and the wars with "heathen" Poland, Sweden, and Turkey; in the vital antagonism caused by Peter the Great's violent Europeanization of the surface of the empire between the ruling circles, varnished in Occidental fashion, and the heart of the people, still beating in Muscovite naturalness; in the clashing of liberal German and French notions, introduced under Catharine II. and Alexander I., with the general ignorance of a nation of serfs; in the immaturity and extravagance of conceptions so natural there where political liberalism grows up without a sphere of activity, and becomes rank from want of experience; and, finally, in the deadly animosities evolved by the conviction, on the one side, that the people is incapable of self-government, and by the equally firm belief, on the other side, that Czardom will never attempt a gradual abdication of its powers—unless terrorized into doing it. As to the attitude of "society," placed between the old régime and an unfathomable Nihilistic future, let us hear our author:

"Every day serves to illustrate more clearly the enormous ravages of discontent and internal decomposition, and yet nowhere in Russian society are the vestiges of symptoms of a reaction discernible. Even those who speak of a reaction do not believe in its possibility, and manifest by their conduct that the measure of the evils under which the nation groans is greater than the measure of those difficulties and disturbances which they think are to be feared from a violent overthrow of the present system. This is the real reason why the courts of justice, whenever they are placed in a position to act at all, act with leniency towards even the most dangerous of political criminals. This explains the apparent apathy of the party of order, who refuse to rally around a government which they distrust and fear. This is the reason why even the moderate organs of the press criticise the existing state of things in a manner which entails such heavy penalties, and why the professors at the universities deplore the uncertain and short-sighted action of the Government still more loudly and bitterly than the students, who have been sent back to their uniforms, and subjected again to the old ridiculous dry-nursing and surveillance. That such a disposition of the public mind should be possible at a time when the very foundations of social order and security are imperilled, and the fear of assassination threatens to become permanent, would be incredible and inconceivable in the absence of facts to prove it. But such facts exist and are notorious. . . ."

The book is published anonymously, but there are sure indications that it is the work of Julius Eckardt, a publicist of Hamburg, born in Livonia in 1836, and till 1867 a subject of the Czar. He has long been widely known as an eminent authority on Russian history, politics, and literature, and the volume before us cannot but raise the reputation which he has acquired by his 'Baltische und Russische Culturstudien aus zwei Jahrhunderten' (1869), 'Russland's ländliche Zustände seit Aufhebung der Leibeigenschaft' (1870), the often reprinted, equally anonymous 'Aus der Petersburger Gesellschaft,' and other publications. He

* 'Russland vor und nach dem Kriege. Auch 'Aus der Petersburger Gesellschaft.'' Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus. 1879.—'Russia before and after the War. By the author of 'Society in St. Petersburg,' etc.' Translated from the German (with later additions by the author) by Edward Fairiax Taylor.' London: 1880. New York: Harper & Brothers.

allows himself to speak as a Russian, but he combines with the knowledge which his studies and public life in St. Petersburg and Livonia procured him an entire freedom from Russian national prejudices. His writings are rich in precise and exhaustive information on topics generally obscured by external or subjective restraints, race antipathies, and political bias. The present work is more remarkable for fulness of statement and lucidity than for elegance of style. Its tone is fair, though severe; its conclusions, as to the immediate future of Russia, are very far from cheering. "The prospect, indeed, is gloomy, and the situation critical in the extreme." Among the few subjects of his praise are the excellent bearing of the Russian soldier, the genius and wisdom of Ivan Turgeneff, the political sagacity of Shuvaloff, and—which is only apparently strange after all that has been said above—"the amiability and gentleness of the Slavic nature."

The English translation is generally good enough, but its spellings of Russian names—mostly, but not consistently, after the German—are shockingly incorrect.

RECENT POETRY.*

IT is to his intellect rather than to his inspiration that Mr. Swinburne's latest volume must be ascribed, and we suppose his thick-and-thin admirers will be as ready as any one else to admit that it is for its genius rather than its intelligence that the Swinburne muse is mainly admirable. This latter is an unfailing trait of the lyric muse, it may be said, if indeed it be not one of the marks that distinguish poetry itself from prose, when one penetrates beyond expression; but certainly some of the most striking manifestations of Mr. Swinburne's lyric genius—and the lyrical is the overmastering note in his poetry—have been in songs whose sense and sound have, it might fairly be said, no connection whatever; at least, the significance of his verse when its rhythm and swell are most seductive is apt to be either trivial or paradoxical. At the same time it has always been clear that Mr. Swinburne's lyric expression is not thoroughly simple; his verse has by no means been content with being purely decorative, with having used language pictorially, and having won a position at the head of impressionist poetry, so to say. He has always had a gospel to preach—a gospel now very well known, and in its stark form become, through persistent satire, sufficiently ridiculous; and if, in spite of its caricaturists, it is seen by people who are sensitive as well as sensible to contain an element of truth and to have a poetic side, it still remains indisputable that Mr. Swinburne's preachment of it has been too distinctly polemical to be thoroughly poetic. Parts of the 'Laus Veneris,' for example, are rhythmically and pictorially exquisite, but its spirit is controversial, not poetic; it is not so much *laus Veneris* for Venus's sake, the spontaneous minstrelsy of a sincere worshipper, as the plea of an advocate. In general this is the penalty that neo-paganism has to pay for enjoying "mysteries not permitted except among heathens," and the classic attitude, the Greek spirit, are no longer possible except at some expense of absolute sincerity; and absolute sincerity is, of course, essential to true poetry. Mr. Swinburne is altogether too much a child of his century to chant the praises of Aphrodite simply and freely, in the first place, and in the second his poetry has an impetuosity, a vehemence about it wholly foreign to the serenity of the classic spirit. His neo-paganism is of a wholly different quality from that of Keats, though it is a thousand-fold more aggressive; it rings false, and the reader is only too glad to lose it in the melodious cadence and vivid imagery that are Mr. Swinburne's heritage. How far the sense is inferior to the sound in some of his shorter lyrics, such as "A Forsaken Garden" and "The Sundew" and the "Atalanta" choruses, any one who appreciates the beauty and impressiveness of them would hesitate to say; but it is at least clear that the order of ideas dealt with in, let us say, "A Forsaken Garden," is too directly allied with feeling, too personal and passionate, for the effect of the poem to be as permanent as it is vivid. Mr. Swinburne has never written anything better. Its pictorial and literary qualities, its imagery and sentiment, are exquisitely intertwisted, its total effect is single, and in form it is very nearly perfect. In such lines as

> "Not a flower to be pressed of the foot that falls not;
> As the heart of a dead man the seed-plots are dry;
> From the thicket of thorns whence the nightingale calls not,
> Could she call, there were never a rose to reply,"

we have Mr. Swinburne at his best. But no one will fail to see that even when, as here, he is most impersonal his verse is admirable for its sensuousness, its intensity, its fine form, and not particularly valuable for the thought with which it is freighted. In fine, if we take such a representative poem as the "Hymn to Proserpine," and note what we admire most in such lines as

> "Wilt thou yet take all, Galilean? but these thou shalt not take:
> The laurel, the palms, and the pæan, the breasts of the nymphs in the brake,"

where the intention is polemic; or,

> "All delicate ways and pleasant, all spirits and sorrows are cast
> Far out with the foam of the present that sweeps to the surf of the past,"

which is perhaps a sentimental lament; or, further on,

> "Will ye bridle the deep sea with reins, will ye chasten the high sea with rods?
> Will ye take her to chain her with chains, who is older than all ye gods?"

which is sonorousness merely, we find in each case that it is in spite of their strictly intellectual side that their genius seems admirable.

In these 'Songs of the Springtides,' therefore, it is interesting to note that Mr. Swinburne has, as it seems to us, made a distinct effort to exercise his intelligence as a stimulant and guide of and check upon his impetuous genius, with natural if various results. The songs are four in number, and all cast in ode-form and written in irregular iambic lines, varied now and then by regular strophic stanzas. They are called "Thalassius," "On the Cliffs," "The Garden of Cymodoce," and "Birth-day Ode for the Anniversary Festival of Victor Hugo, February 26, 1880." They are all of considerable length and, save the last, all about the "mother and lover of men, the sea," which even more than the praise of Venus is the favorite of Mr. Swinburne's lyric verse. The last is a large performance, and marked not only by the skill which the author of "Erectheus," "Atalanta," and "Bothwell" has shown in metrical ease and effectiveness, but by an ingenuity really astonishing in cataloguing the works and narrating the life of its subject, without once sinking to the plane of prose in the long course of five hundred lines of sustained effort. It is a matter of course that it has a majestic movement, but we may add that it has also a dignity of substance with the significance of which it is by no means necessary to sympathize in order to recognize its poetic value. There are passages in the tragedies than which nothing could well be more mature, but in this ode, and in the three which precede it as well, the reader will find an evident maturity which is almost foreign to the fervor and freakishness of most of the songs and ballads we all know, though occasionally, as when some allusion is made to any of the Bonapartes, there is a lack of measure and taste that smacks of extreme youth and—which is more singular in the instance of Swinburne—is fatal to the poetry which is meant to embalm it.

"Thalassius" is perhaps the best of the four songs, after the "Birth-day Ode" at all events; and it is certainly a fine thing. Its argument is the finding by "a warrior grey with glories more than years" of a child on the sea-shore, who listens to the wise instruction of his mentor and follows it till he is led away by "the great god Love" for a season, after which, however, he returns to the paths of wisdom. Advantage is taken of the obvious opportunities of the scheme to set forth the ideas of the poet upon many things. Of course it is not a philosophic, or any species of didactic, poem, and its ideas are perhaps not too coherent; what we wish to point out is that it deals with ideas directly, and that they are of a different kind from those belonging to the gospel of neo-paganism, of which, indeed, we here lose sight as a cult and perceive only the flavor. The line

> "Of his dread lady's hot, sweet hungering eyes"

would ordinarily fit into its surroundings, for instance, but with its actual context it really seems out of key. The long *tirades* of Mentor are really lofty, and in one sense worthy of Wordsworth; the ideal of the poet, a stranger to Swinburne would say, is not at all a sensuous one at bottom, and about its expression there is noticeable a sanity, a reserve, a positive restraint at times, that are certainly new. Traces there are of the worst faults of the familiar diction, of course, and no one could read a couplet and not discover the author; even here, however, the usual surfeit of assonance and alliteration has a little the air of a perfunctory reliance upon a mannerism now grown easy and habitual instead of, as formerly, the air of glorying and exulting in extravagance.

What we have been noticing, moreover, if a gain, is secured at the ex-

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* 'Songs of the Springtides. By Algernon Charles Swinburne.' New York: R. Worthington.
'De Profundis. By Alfred Tennyson, Poet Laureate.' The *Nineteenth Century* for May.
'The Poems of R. H. Stoddard.' Complete Edition. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1880.
'The Princess Elizabeth: A Lyric Drama. By Francis H. Williams.' Philadelphia: Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger. 1880.
'Allaooddeen: a Tragedy, and Other Poems.' London: Smith, Elder & Co. 1880.
'The Ode of Life.' Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1880.
'Thanksgiving, and Other Poems. By Agatha.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1880.
'Hesperus, and Other Poems. By Charles De Kay.' New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1880.

pense of what we prize most in Swinburne, as we began by intimating. What has been well called "the lyrical cry," though it is now and then audible, is rarely heard in these four poems, and it is for this, transfiguring and intensifying his verse, that he is really great. The strophic interludes are by no means equal either in movement or sonority to some of the ballads published two years ago, to say nothing of "The Triumph of Time" and "Dolores." Such lines as

> "— a little child
> That well-nigh wept for wonder that it smiled,"

are fine, but they are not in Mr. Swinburne's most characteristic vein, and they are very few in number. As compensation for

> "Long, mysterious reaches fed with moonlight,
> Sweet, sad straits in a soft, subsiding channel,
> Blown about by the lips of winds I knew not,
> Winds not born in the north nor any quarter,
> Winds not warm with the south nor any sunshine,"

his utterance in these 'Songs of the Springtides' of the thoughts which arise in him in contemplating the sea is scarcely adequate. We prefer him as he is, and are content to look elsewhere for "the noble and profound application of ideas to life."

Mr. Tennyson's latest poem is likewise an intellectual *tour de force*, and though we have all been familiar with these in Mr. Tennyson since the last of the idyls, at any rate, to go no further back, we confess to some slight disappointment at a fresh intimation that there is no longer anything laid upon the laureate to write, and that, as the malicious Taine says, he is merely amusing himself, "happy among his beautiful books, his friends, his honeysuckles, and his roses in the Isle of Wight." M. Taine is emphatically a Frenchman, and perhaps to feel the importance of Mr. Tennyson it is more necessary in his case than in that of any other poet who is his peer that one should have Anglo-Saxon sympathies and prejudices. We all know, if M. Taine does not, how much true poetry may be born of even "merely caressing and contemplating the ideas of others," and can recognize the service rendered to the stability of Anglo-Saxon "institutions" by the poetry which has buttressed instead of attacking them. Mr. Tennyson's share in this service has been large, and though it is not, of course, his chief title to fame, it is a subtle poetic justification of his laureateship, and the poem before us calls it pointedly to mind. The 'De Profundis' is at bottom thoroughly English, manly, reverent, contained, however superficially elegant. It expresses a father's emotions at the birth of a son, in the most elaborate and decorated manner possible even to a writer to whom refinements of expression are so much as they are to Mr. Tennyson. It has been pointed out that the occasion is a common one, that its celebration is obscure, and that the sublimity of the poem is perilously near the ridiculous. But nothing in it seems to us so remarkable as the success with which it really triumphs over all of these objections, in virtue, we may say, of intelligence and industry. It is easy to imagine an analogous ballad by Wordsworth which should be a genuine inspiration, and yet a failure in the dignity which Mr. Tennyson's conscious abnegation of spontaneity contrives to confer upon this; and it is due to the same extremity of care and skill that it is only apparently obscure, and even manages to shame the satirist by its determined seriousness. This, however, has little to do, perhaps, with the essence of true poetry. We are never far from mental mechanism in Tennyson. The consciousness with which he keeps his faculties when most "possessed" is always as clearly recognized as is consistent with the surrender of one's self to the influence of his filtered inspiration. But here there is no evidence of inspiration whatever, and one is moved precisely as he would be by a "prize poem" of extraordinary literary rather than poetic merit.

The other works on our list need not detain us long. Mr. Stoddard's poems make a handsome volume of some five hundred octavo pages. They are of various forms, though lyrics largely preponderate, and they are of a very even excellence. Mr. Stoddard's popularity during a long poetical career renders it unnecessary to take advantage of this occasion to say that his pen is a very facile and fertile one, and that his acquaintance with and admiration of the product of the greatest lyrical masters is not less apparent than his delight in self-expression. His undisguised fondness for Keats, especially, is attested not only by the sonnet to his memory, p. 433, but at the outset by the first line of the "Proem" with which the collection is prefaced: "Like one who hath been long in cities pent"; but his sympathies are not narrow, and we have similar frank testimony to his feeling for what is fine in English song from Milton to Tennyson. How much more pleasing this is than affected originality or crudity need not be insisted on.

Mr. Williams's "lyrical drama" is rightly named and we like the interspersed songs and an occasional phrase, such as "the greensward dozes in the sun," better than the involutions and subtleties of expression which, perhaps as more befitting an action that takes place in 1548–9, he has borrowed from the Elizabethan treasure-house; to call it Shaksperian would be misleading, but it is clear from it that the writer has read Shakspere a great deal, and read him with implicit confidence.

'Allaooddeen' is something more than a versified melodramatic tale, and is in some respects a genuinely poetic production. The argument is based on the history of the Muhammadan (as the author, who is a purist, spells it) monarchs of Delhi, though the details which give color to the tragedy are fictitious; its pretensions to tragedy are justified by the management of these and by the real dignity of the climaxes, which are, moreover, properly cumulative. The main defect of the drama is a lack of amplitude of material, owing to which the structure is too prominent, and the author's efforts to render it less so too clearly padding; on the other hand, advantage is not taken of all the natural opportunities of the conception, as, for example, the incident of *Jye Singh*, which is really of great relative import, but is left to appear rather episodical. The verse is iambic pentameter, easy and fluent, and managed by so capable a hand that we find it difficult to excuse the needless and wilful bad grammar occasionally. Some of the lines are euphuistically caressed out of all charm and force, as the direction of Allaooddeen to his vizier to hasten

> "——though earth
> Be fused beneath the fervor of thy quest" (p. 7).

Some of them are unmistakably fine, as,

> "Alas! they'll drag thee hence before mine eyes,
> And I shall wither in thine agony" (p. 82);

and,

> "Ye Heavens, contempt will on your thunders fall
> That ye'd no bolt for him."

'The Ode of Life' is by the author of 'The Epic of Hades,' a poem which had an unusual success some years ago, due to its sterling moral and technical, quite as much as to its imaginative, qualities, perhaps, though these were by no means insignificant. Its successor is of like substance—a dignified performance of which any poet who is still anonymous has just reason to be proud. It is very carefully composed, it occurs to us at once to say, both design and execution being elaborate and finished. It successfully avoids the wearisome continuity of a long poem of this form and nature by being divided into minor odes distinct from but related to each other, such as the odes of Infancy, of Love, of Perfect Years, and so on.

"Agatha's" are of the large class of verses the difficulty of characterizing which is not looked upon as an implication of their abstruseness. Beside them Mr. De Kay's acquire so much importance that we are reminded that the juxtaposition is unfair to him, as it almost suggests pretentiousness, which his poems are for the most part quite without. They are of considerably more merit than much of the magazine poetry of the order to which they belong, but, remembering the great names with which we began, we must not praise them too highly or we shall run the risk of faulty perspective.

JOHN DAVIS.*

JOHN DAVIS was one of the foremost of English maritime worthies in the sixteenth century. Born at Sandridge about the year 1550, he early adopted the profession of the sea, serving with great integrity as pilot, navigator, and commander; joining to his explorations the peaceful merchant voyage and the hostile cruise against the French and the Spaniards on the high seas, and equalling in courage and enterprise men like Sir Humphrey Gilbert and Ralegh. This volume, comprising nearly four hundred pages, is an appropriate memorial to a scientific navigator and a worthy man. It includes everything of special value written by Davis or written about him by others. After a general introduction of ninety-five pages, the editor gives the narratives of the three voyages made by Davis in search of the Northwest Passage, beginning with the year 1585. These are followed by Wright's account of the Earl of Cumberland's third voyage to the Azores, in which Davis forms a minor figure. Next comes the narrative of the attempt made by Cavendish to reach the Philippine Islands by the way of Magellan Straits, in which expedition Davis commanded a ship and three times failed to enter the Pacific, following the rest of the expedition back to England only to meet with undeserved reproach. His own narrative of a voyage made

*"The Voyages and Works of John Davis, the Navigator. Edited, with an Introduction and Notes, by Albert Hastings Markham. London: The Hakluyt Soc. 1880.

to the East Indies in a Dutch ship is then given, together with his last voyage to the Indies with Sir Edward Michelbourn. The most of this material is found in Hakluyt and Purchas, but the two remaining treatises are not so accessible, being reprints of "The Worlde's Hydrographical Description," 1595, and "The Seaman's Secrets," 1607. The curious title-page of the latter is shown in facsimile, and in this work Davis appears in his character as a scientific man. An appendix gives a list of interesting books relating chiefly to navigation; while Wright's map, of 1600, engraved by Mollineux, in separate covers, accompanies this volume to illustrate the voyages. Substantially, the work is a reprint.

The introduction by Captain Markham is very interesting, and his positions are generally well taken, though obvious points are dwelt upon, while others better deserving notice are passed by in silence. The treatment, therefore, is not exhaustive. In fact, the editor does not seem to appreciate the place really occupied by Davis in the line of explorers. In the East, Davis was, of course, a late voyager; but even though, in point of time, following Frobisher in the Northwest, Davis's career is the more interesting. Davis was the first Englishman, and, indeed, the first *known* navigator of the sixteenth century, to take and carry on the work done in Greenland by Zeno in the fourteenth century. Kolnus went to Greenland in 1476, and the Cortereals sailed in that direction in 1500–1, while various maps and globes show the influence of unrecorded voyages of the sixteenth century. Still, though Frobisher sighted South Greenland he did not recognize the country. He added nothing to our knowledge of it, while he corrupted the geography of the Northwest by his fabulous map of 1578. Davis, on the contrary, sailed to Greenland, steered up the west coast to the seventy-third degree of latitude, and affixed the name of his patron, Sanderson, where it remains to-day. In constructing his map he expunged every name from the west coast that had been placed there by Zeno. This was the beginning of modern progress, and the fact should be emphasized.

We are told that Davis, in harmonizing his discoveries with those of Zeno and Frobisher, "made Frobisher's strait to pass through Greenland." His agency, however, extended no farther than to the application of the legend, "M. Forbusher's Straights." Neither Davis nor Wright created the strait which occurs in the latter's map. This strait appears in one of the maps of the Ptolemy of 1482. In that, and in various succeeding editions, Greenland, by a misapprehension, is represented as lying close to Norway, Iceland appearing *twice*, once as "Thyle," and again as "Iceland," though put *west* of Greenland. The same error obtains in the "Isolario" of Bordone, 1529. These delineations of Greenland all have an island at the southern extremity, as in Wright, the space between forming a broad strait, which Wright confounded with Frobisher's supposed strait. This island, in the Ptolemies, is called "Margarester," and the latest and best map of Greenland shows a small island near Cape Farewell with a pronounced strait behind it, indicating that this delineation of the Ptolemy of 1482 may have been based upon exact information. Curiously enough, the *east* coast of Greenland on Wright is drawn according to the *west* coast of Greenland as it appears on the polar map of Mercator of 1541. Thus, Wright gives "Margarester" twice, though only once with the *name*.

Respecting Wright's map much might be said. It is of special interest for the reason that it appears to be the "new map with the augmentation of the Indies," referred to in "Twelfth Night." From a note on it in the Introduction, by Mr. Coote, it might be inferred that he first identified it, though in his paper before the Shakspere Society he refers to Mr. Mulligan as simply *supporting* his opinion. As a matter of history, however, the discovery was made many years ago by the late Mr. James Lenox, who possessed one of the three copies of the original now known. The proof of this is found on page xiii. of his Introduction to Mr. Mulligan's translation of the "De Insule," etc., of Syllacius, published in 1859 at Mr. Lenox's expense. Mr. Mulligan had nothing to do with the discovery any more than Mr. Coote, and it is surprising that the matter should come up at this late day in the form in which it is presented by the Hakluyt Society. The Society, nevertheless, has conferred a substantial benefit by producing this work again in facsimile. The New England portion, for instance, explains what Captain John Smith says in his narrative, that New England was after all "no island," though he had so seen it represented on Wright's map, the idea clearly having been borrowed from a map of Ramusio, 1558, whose drawing had been affected, though not in respect to this "island," by the map of Verrazzano, of 1529. Thus subtle are some of the influences that pervade the old cartography. This map is also drawn on the Mercator projection, showing that Wright had mastered the principle, and put it to actual service earlier than was hitherto supposed. The map contains more than 1,200 names, which the editor calls a "surprising number," and he professes to give "a list of all the names on the map, for convenience of reference," filling twelve octavo pages with them. Such a list would be valuable, but the editor skips some names which are perhaps difficult to render, while many others are badly mangled. For instance, confining observations to our own coast, the well-known "Menan" of the map is disguised in the lists as "raemen," "Costamonge" is "ervatamonge," "Lac d angolesme" appears as "I. Apdangolesine," while the Hudson, "R. de S. Antonio," is transmuted into "R. de S. Ædonia," a somewhat unfamiliar saint in this part of the world, at least. Blunders like these have done much to obscure the early history of America, and we do not expect to find them coming thick and fast from the Hakluyt Society, especially in connection with a map that is only moderately palæographic in its nomenclature. We recognize, however, the general merits of the volume, which worthily supplements the previous issues of the Society.

Die Principien der Politik: Einleitung in die staatswissenschaftliche Betrachtung der Gegenwart. Von Dr. Franz von Holtzendorff. Zweite-durchgehends verbesserte und ergänzte Auflage. (Berlin: Carl Habel. 8vo, pp. 381. 1879.)—The German term *Politik* must not be understood to correspond in any sense to our word *politics*—which, an American might justly observe, recognizes no "Principles"—nor even to the same word in its truer English sense, the sense in which an intelligent traveller in this country wondered that our people took so little interest in politics. It does not relate to the action of individuals or of parties, except incidentally, but to the life and action of the state itself. Dr. von Holtzendorff, after considering the definitions given by Bluntschli, Mohl, and others, concludes that its object is (p. 10) "the correct use and the processes of the means actually at the disposal of the state for the accomplishment of its ends, apart from the administration of justice." His treatise is in three books: first, the Essence (*Wesen*) of *Politik*, in three chapters, regarded as science and art respectively, and the two in combination; second, its Jural and Moral Principles (its relations to law and morality), in three chapters; third, its Principles as consisting in Public Aims (*Staatszwecke*), in five chapters. This last book treats of the aims of the State, first theoretical, then under the three heads of Power, Freedom, and Culture, the closing chapter setting forth the harmony of the several aims. The whole discussion is, of course, brief and general; nevertheless, it is well illustrated by examples taken from history, and an appendix contains illustrative extracts, titles of books, etc.

Perhaps the best notion we can give of the book, after this general sketch, will be to cite the several occasions on which American affairs afford illustrations to the principles under discussion; some of them are rather trifling, but all will be found instructive. In discussing the value of an official class (*Beamtenthum*), p. 73, he alludes to our failure, during the Civil War, to establish a universal obligation to serve, *Wehrpflicht*, as a contrast to the necessity which Peter the Great was under, to seek competent persons from all parts of Europe to carry out his reforms; it illustrates the truth that a permanent official class is the only substitute for a well-developed capacity for self-government. On page 81 he shows that, under the pressure of necessity at the same period, we had no time to look around for the very best system of armor-ships, but had to seize upon the first which came to hand; this is where he is speaking of the relation of the technic arts to the state. In the chapter which treats of the relation of the state to the administration of justice, the question is raised (p. 132) whether it is advisable to give the judges, as in America, authority to decide upon the constitutionality of laws. The relation of our Supreme Court to the slavery question is alluded to as illustrating the possible disadvantages, but the question is left undecided. In the same chapter President Lincoln's suspension of the habeas-corpus act, and the requirement of passes in the war, are cited as illustrations of the necessity, in extreme cases, of letting the law give way to the needs of self-preservation: "An absolute prohibition of dictatorship may, in times of excitement, cause only the final destruction of the public liberties" (p 148).

Chap. vi., upon the moral relations of the state, is one of the best, and lays down a very high standard of public morality. Nevertheless, after discussing the ameliorations of modern times in the process of warfare, the author adds that these ameliorations were only possible because the old rules of warfare were at last found not to subserve their purpose; adding that the choking of Charleston harbor and similar acts, as war measures, could only be judged in the point of view of their assisting to bring the war to a triumphant close (p. 174). Upon the subject of diplo-

matic representatives (p. 250) Von Holtzendorff notices the former practice of this country to demand Puritanic simplicity in its foreign ministers, the result of which is that they are often wholly deprived of that social influence which is so important to them; and adds that even radical periodicals are at last coming to the conclusion that the cheapest is by no means necessarily the best. So in the note to page 326 a long passage is quoted from the *Nation*, illustrating the growth of the feeling among us that radicalism needs sometimes a practical balance. The insecurity of life and property in our border States is compared (p. 259) with the similar condition of things in Italy, Greece, etc., and it is shown that the causes in the two cases are totally different—in the one case an outgrowth of bad government, in the other of an excess of individuality. The suppression of slavery is mentioned (p. 285) as a great achievement of the state in the interest of social progress; and on page 303 the characteristic American practice of the devotion of their fortunes, by private individuals, to the public service, in founding schools, hospitals, etc., is commended. At the same time the need of caution in such beneficence is expressed, lest the funds be tied down, as in Oxford, to obsolete ends and requirements. State institutions are in no such danger. He adds, in a very interesting paragraph on the next page, that the question of education by the public—and in Germany of obligatory attendance, *Schulzwang*—is no longer an open one, pointing out at the same time the various obstacles and dangers that surround the public schools, especially on theological grounds. "The oppositions of opinion in regard to the character to be given to the school are violent in proportion as 'the several denominations are bent on making the school their instrument for exercising influence upon the course of public affairs.'" So the Sunday laws, etc., are given (p. 274) as an illustration of the influence exerted by the religious views of the majority in the face of the equality of all denominations before the law. In the closing chapter, *Die Harmonie der Staatszwecke*, the influence exerted upon our national policy by the cotton interest is mentioned (p. 310) as an example of a single powerful branch of industry identifying its interests with those of the state. In the same chapter the author compares several of the principal nations in relation to the several aims of the state—public (*Machtzweck*), individual (*Freiheitszweck*), and social (*Culturzweck*). Of America he says that the individual aim predominates to such a degree as completely to turn away the wealthy class from public affairs, and effectually to have prevented any amendments of the Constitution in the period before the war. We may be allowed to doubt whether this last relation of cause and effect is correctly conceived.

Like most German books, the book is defective in aids to the reader. There is no index, and the table of contents prefixed to each chapter is very incomplete. It seems hardly to aim at a clear analysis of the chapter, but sometimes to take leading ideas or statements almost at random, so that it serves as a very inadequate guide to the matter contained in the chapter. For example, in chapter ix. are discussed the various points in which individual freedom is restricted by the state, in personal and family rights, industry and emigration; religious freedom is a principal topic in the chapter, but is passed over in the synopsis. The notes, too, at the end of the volume are curiously mixed up; in half of them either the number of the note or of the page is wrong.

Holiday Rambles. By a Wife with her Husband. Republished from the *Spectator*. (London: Macmillan & Co. 1880.)—*Loiterings in Pleasant Paths.* By Marion Harland. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1880.)—The first of these rather desultory volumes of travel consists of letters written to the London *Spectator* during a half-dozen summers by a clever and pleasantly garrulous English couple. They describe the summer vacations of a busy Londoner, who can spare but five weeks in the year to rest and recreation, and who yet manages to enjoy all the change and other pleasures of foreign and domestic travel by devoting each vacation to a separate place. Two summers are given to Switzerland and the Alps one to the Tyrol, and three to riding tours through rural England. The letters are written sometimes by the husband and sometimes by the wife, and are all readable for their simplicity and unaffected humor; but they are, like other trifles, "light as air," and perhaps they were hardly worth the dignity of permanent binding—an admission, indeed, which is made with frank modesty in the "advertisement." If they have any moral for other than Londoners it may be the suggestion that a change from the city to the same country or seaside-hotel summer after summer is scarcely recreation, and that even those to whom it is imperative to consult economy in making their annual flitting may find it both agreeable and practicable to employ their vacations in seeing places they have been accustomed to think beyond their reach.

It would be misleading to say of Marion Harland's book that it is by contrast more of the guide-book order, but it is at least the guide-book decorated with American enthusiasm, from the author's first efforts to elicit information from the "average Briton" concerning the place of Charles I.'s execution—a question invariably answered by "I really carnt say"—to the thousand memories of Christian and pagan Rome. The whole family went, and the "pleasant paths" comprise all Europe that is generally visited on such occasions. There are practical hints for the guidance of those contemplating a similar tour, and a few addresses for lodgings and apartments in various cities, provided with a thoughtfulness worthy the author of a celebrated series of cook-books. We append an anecdote. A young English girl is informed by the writer that "we were provinces till 1776, when we became a separate government." Whereupon

"The little lady's eyes cleared before a gleam that was more than the joy of discovery. It was, in a mild and decorous way, the rapture of creation. Her speech grew animated.

"'1776! And last year was 1876! Pardon me, but perhaps you never thought—I would say—has it ever occurred to you that possibly that may have been the reason why your National Exposition was called *The Centennial?*"

Some Though's concerning Education. By John Locke. With introduction and notes by the Rev. R. H. Quick, M.A. (Cambridge, England: University Press. 1880.)—Mr. Quick's editorial qualifications have already been displayed in his 'Essays on Educational Reformers,' among whom, of course, Locke was discussed in his proper place. The 'Thoughts' has, it appears, been for some time out of print in England, and has never been carefully edited. Mr. Quick has "no doubt there are American editions," besides the reprint in Barnard's 'English Pedagogy.' He is right, but the choice is limited to William Russell's comely edition (Boston, 1830), which has but few notes, and carries prudery to the extent of omitting six sections (§§ 23–28) which are among the most useful in the treatise; and to a reprint of Russell in the dingy little "Library of Education" (the forerunner in size and cheapness of the "Half-Hour Series") published in this city by J. W. Schermerhorn & Co., in 1869. The latter edition contained not only the essay "Of Study" given by Russell and (with some omissions) by Quick, but also kindred extracts ("Of Reading," "Of a Tutor's Business," "Of Knowledge, its Extent and Measure") from Locke's Journal in Lord King's Life.

The apparatus of the present volume consists of a biographical sketch of Locke and a critical appreciation of him as a guide in education and as the successor of Montaigne and the inspirer of Rousseau; notes, of which by far the most valuable are those by Dr. J. F. Payne on the sanitary doctrine of the 'Thoughts'; an appendix, and an index. Dr. Payne concludes, and it is a weighty tribute to Locke's superiority to the medical superstition of his time, that "in Locke's summary there is but one point which has to be corrected, namely, that about keeping children's feet wet." So much was he in advance in this particular that it requires an effort to read the early sections of the 'Thoughts' attentively, or to avoid thinking them commonplace. When we add to this Locke's crabbed and graceless style, it seems a pity that the difficulties of the modern reader should have been needlessly enhanced by Mr. Quick's fidelity to the capitalizing of the original text. On the other hand, his abridgment of the essay "Of Study" seems somewhat questionable; at least the brief paragraph on reading none but the best authors is unaccountably omitted. The index covers either too much ground or too little, and is, at all events, the weakest point in the book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Allan (Lieut.-Col. W.), Stonewall Jackson's Campaign in the Shenandoah Valley	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	$2 50
Bellamy (E.), Dr. Heidenhoff's Process, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Campbell (Mrs. H.), Unto the Third and Fourth Generation	(Fords, Howard & Hulbert)	1 00
Celebration of the One Hundredth Birthday Anniversary of Channing at Brooklyn, N. Y.	(Geo. H. Ellis)	
Edkins (Rev. J.), Chinese Buddhism	(Trübner & Co.)	
Lingham (G.), Science of Taste	(Edward Stanford)	
Faber (Rev. F. W.), Hymns	(Murphy & Co.)	
Famous Victory: a Tale	(Jansen, McClurg & Co.)	1 25
Finod (J. de), Thousand Flashes of French Wit, etc	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Heath (F. G.), Sylvan Spring	(Scribner & Welford)	4 50
Percy (T.), Appletons' Dictionary of New York, new ed	(D. Appleton & Co.)	30
Ratzel (Dr. F.), Die Vereinigten Staaten von Nord-Amerika, swd	(B. Westermann & Co.)	
Smith (W.) and Cheetham (Prof. S.), Dictionary of Christian Antiquities, Vol. II	(J. B. Burr Publishing Co.)	3 50
Spencer (E.), Public Life and Services of Thos. F. Bayard	(D. Appleton & Co.)	1 00
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 24, 1880.

The Week.

AS has been long anticipated by such Democrats as made any approach to being in Mr. Tilden's confidence, he has formally withdrawn from competition for the Democratic nomination in a letter addressed to the Convention at Cincinnati. He recalls his services as a private citizen in overthrowing the Tweed Ring and purifying the judiciary, and as governor of this State in breaking up the Canal Ring, reducing the taxes, and reforming the administration. He then tells the now familiar story of the manner in which he was cheated out of the Presidency; maintains that he could, if he pleased, have bought proof of the fraud from the Southern Returning Boards, and accuses Congress of "abdicating its duty" in referring the count to the Electoral Commission. Since 1876, he says, he has been "denied the immunities of private life without the powers conferred by public station," but has done all in his power to keep before the people "the supreme issue" raised by the events of that year. Now, however, he feels unequal to the toil of the struggle, and surrenders the hope which he has long cherished of making great reforms "in systems and policies" in the Federal Government, and retires to private life for good. The letter will doubtless excite much derision among his enemies, and will not make on his own party the intended impression, but it will relieve the latter of a great burden. Mr. Tilden has been singularly unfortunate in never having been able to raise up a circle of admirers and followers such as usually surround public men of his prominence, and consequently has had to rely on himself too largely to spread abroad his claims on public confidence. Moreover, he has been utterly wanting in the boldness and decision necessary to win respect as a reformer. He did render important service in overthrowing the Tweed Ring, but not until the attack on it had been begun or seemed likely to be successful. He did, too, effect important reforms in the State administration; but he always put so much appearance of craft into his good works as to keep alive more or less uncertainty about his real aims. His private financial operations, too, have often been of a nature to create, rightly or wrongly, an amount of distrust which followed him into public life and prepared people to believe his complicity in the cipher despatches. The Democrats would probably not have clung to him so long if it were not that they need $500,000 for a Presidential campaign, and felt that they were likely to get more of it from him than from anybody else.

The Democratic Convention met at Cincinnati on Tuesday and is in session as we go to press. Mr. Tilden's withdrawal, and the unpreparedness, so to say, of the party for it, have kept the galleries free from claqueurs, and promise a comparatively quiet gathering. According to a programme which has for some time been an open secret in this part of the world, the New York delegation have committed themselves to Mr. Henry B. Payne, of Ohio, as Mr. Tilden's legatee. John Kelly and the Tammany delegation were admitted to the floor on condition of their submitting in peace to the decision of the Convention as to their title, but when Mr. Kelly endeavored to enter a protest against a certain committeeman nominated by the regular delegation, he was refused a hearing by the chair and by the Convention. Finally, too, the Committee on Credentials almost unanimously turned him out of doors, as everybody had expected since the Syracuse bolt. The opening speech of Judge Hoadley, the temporary Chairman, was a skilful performance, and had, it must be acknowledged, a much closer relation to "actualities" than Senator Hoar's at Chicago. He did less than justice to President Hayes for his withdrawal of the troops from Louisiana and South Carolina, but he very properly ridiculed the Republican assumption of credit for all the blessings of our abundant harvests, and, in regard to the temporary defeat of the third term, argued forcibly that the danger lay in the Bonapartism of a party of which more than three-fifths were ready to invoke a "saviour of society." Judge Hoadley's laudation of the unit rule as preserving "those indestructible units of our indestructible Union, the States," will find an echo in the breasts of our Republican Bosses.

We think it would be right as well as generous for the promoters of the Grant movement to communicate to General Garfield the secret of the process by which General Grant was, if nominated, to prevent the Democrats from counting him out. They have said explicitly that it was not, as it was first supposed, a revision of the count by the candidate himself under the protection of a large armed force, but some plan of striking terror into the Democrats before they began the count. As well as we can make out, it was an instrumentality of a composite character, partly moral and partly physical, but it had nothing military about it, and was not dependent for its success on any bodily peculiarity of the operator. We have, in fact, every reason to believe that General Garfield could use it as well as any one, and it ought in common fairness—to say nothing of regard for the stability of our institutions—to be put into his hands.

We trust our Republican contemporaries will not, in the matter of the charges against General Garfield, protest too strenuously against "mud-throwing" in Presidential campaigns, because they cannot do so with a good grace. In 1876 they converted the canvass into a shower of mud, to the exclusion of everything else, by attacks on Tilden's private character and elaborate investigations of his private affairs. They heartily applauded the gross abuse of the machinery of Government by which a suit for taxes was begun against him in the middle of the canvass, on a charge to which thousands as well as he were open. They, in fact, carefully neglected all public questions for vilification of the opposing candidate. Now, therefore, that their own candidate appears a little vulnerable it will not do to roll their eyes and cry shame on personalities. They must stand to their mud-buckets, and give and take like men. General Garfield does not need the shield of their silence. On the contrary, he will suffer from any unusual decorum on their part. The best thing they can do for him is to roll up their sleeves and go to work in the old fashion.

The Wilmington *Every Evening*, Senator Bayard's home organ, is very angry with the *Nation* for its commendation of General Garfield's nomination, and says it will be used by "the Machine politicians" at Cincinnati as "an argument against any attempt to nominate a candidate who can command the approval and respect of independent men"—*i.e.*, a candidate of high character. They will say: "These reformers are a mere crowd of damned hypocritical Pharisees who will vote the Republican ticket whether or no, no matter how objectionable its candidates may be or how good may be that of the Democrats." But then, esteemed contemporary, you surely do not mean to confess that the only thing that will induce the Democratic Machine to nominate a respectable man is the hope of catching Independent votes? Is there no demand for such candidates among the Democratic voters themselves? Can it be true that the real favorite of the Democrats is always a bad man, and that they will sacrifice their tastes and put up a truly good man only if the Independent Republicans will agree to support him? Do you not see what powerful aid you are giving by this confession to those Republicans who say that the Democratic party is so depraved that it will be dangerous to elect any candidate it nominates, no matter how respectable, because he is sure to be overborne by the innate wickedness of the bulk of his followers?

or, in other words, that the best Democratic candidate is never anything better than a decoy duck, to enable the villains behind him to get hold of power? Why not put a first-rate man on your ticket on the simple theory that your own party likes that kind of a man, and will not come out in its full strength in support of any other?

The closing hours of the session in Congress were noticeably free from hasty and vicious legislation. Two demagogical measures from the House—one increasing arbitrarily the pay of its employees, the other interpreting the Eight-Hour Law in the sense of ten-hour pay—were suppressed in the Senate. This body declined to consider the President's veto of the Deputy-Marshals Bill, for which, indeed, it had not time. It accordingly accepted Mr. Thurman's view that immediate consideration was not required by the Constitution, and postponed action till next December. Senator Morgan, in view of the failure of his Electoral Count Bill, desired a declaratory concurrent resolution, denying the right of the President of the Senate to count the votes; but nothing came of the motion.

The decision of the Indiana Supreme Court that the amendments recently incorporated into the constitution of that State were not legally adopted, will probably have an important effect on the Presidential election. One of the amendments changed the time of voting for Presidential electors from October to November. Under the decision, however, Indiana remains an "October State," and, more than that, a doubtful October State. This makes the carrying of Ohio by either party in October less important than it would have been had Ohio remained the only October State. After Ohio has gone, let us say, Republican, as there are many reasons for supposing that she will go this year, there will still be Indiana; and if Indiana were to go Democratic by a heavy majority it would neutralize the result in Ohio. On the other hand, were both States to go solidly for either party the effect on the November voting would undoubtedly be important. Under these circumstances "carrying Indiana" will become quite as important in 1880 as it was in 1876, when, after unparalleled efforts on the part of the Executive, which included, if we remember aright, even an interference with the patronage of the Post-Office Department, it went Democratic by a slight majority. On the whole the decision is rather of advantage to Democrats than Republicans. The opinion of the court is voluminous, covering forty-five pages of "legal cap," and the *Times* urges that while it is "not impossible" that it should have been written "during the night," it is improbable. On the other hand, there seems to have been no corrupt motive for undue haste.

The opinion itself is clear and simple. The constitution of Indiana provides that amendments, after passing two legislatures, shall be submitted "to the electors of the State," and shall become a part of the constitution "if a majority of said electors shall ratify the same." The court holds that language of this kind has always been held in Indiana to mean something more than a majority of the electors voting, and that this clause itself requires "at least a majority of all the votes cast at the same election to ratify a constitutional amendment." The amendment changing the period of the Presidential election from October to November was submitted to the people on the day of the general spring election, when the result shows that the constitutional amendments did not receive a majority of all the votes cast; consequently they were not legally adopted. This result is unfortunate, as the amendments embraced other matters besides the change from October to November: for example, they imposed a residence qualification upon the suffrage, the want of which has been a crying evil in Indiana ever since it became a populous State.

The census now in progress is exciting extraordinary feelings in the breasts of some of our esteemed contemporaries. The Southern enumerators, according to Judge Tourgee's announcement in this city a few days ago, "can as easily pack a graveyard in the census as in the ballot-box"; and already a Western paper sees "the confiding, trusting nation confronted by another infamous outrage—a deliberate falsification of the census returns from the South for the purpose of retaining political power to which it is not entitled." But it seems we have a "census outrage" and "fraud" and "swindle" at the North too, because the semi-official announcement gives St. Louis not more than 375,000 inhabitants, perhaps as few as 350,000, when everybody knows that the "population reaches or exceeds 500,000." The reporters of one paper have actually discovered hundreds of families that have been omitted, and the City Council and prominent business men are urged to make an exact enumeration of their own. How preposterous the official estimate for St. Louis is, is shown from the allowance of 475,000 to Chicago; but then Chicago, too, had set its mind on half a million, and is only a little better satisfied than its rival. Cincinnati's disappointment is less keen, but it exists; and we are reminded that the suburbs have been filling up at a great rate, and that their residents should be added to the meagre total of 250,000, making, say, a round 300,000. Louisville is mortified in the extreme at being "given away" for 120,000, in place of its just allowance of 200,000. At the East, Philadelphia is not at all content with 843,000; the State census of 1875 had prepared it for perhaps a million. In Brooklyn and New York, too, there is grumbling over the carelessness of the enumeration, and even Boston's ambitious reckoning is in danger of coming to naught. It is difficult not to see in all this a conspiracy on the part of the Census Bureau, and we wish it might be abolished altogether in favor of a census by newspaper or by car-window observation—Mr. Boutwell's favorite mode—or by the unit rule. But we fear so radical a change is not practicable this time.

The week at the Stock Exchange was notable for the abundance of loanable funds, the consequent low rates for money, and the demand for investment securities. There has been a further decline in foreign exchange, and the Bank of England has reduced its posted discount to 2½ per cent., the actual rate being about 2 per cent. These considerations have had their influence on the New York money market. The $80,000,000 of gold which were imported last year arrived at a time when speculation in stocks and merchandise was "booming," and when all the gold was needed to keep up speculative prices and operations. The liquidation of speculation in the months of March, April, and May has diminished the demand for loans; and the gold imported last year, together with what has been mined in the country, now for the first time begins to be felt in the market rates for money. Last week the New York banks held about $64,500,000 specie, which is about $45,500,000 more than they held a year ago and is the largest amount ever held by them. The legal-tender notes in the banks have decreased, but they are in the country, either in bank reserves or the pockets of the people. The large addition to the metallic currency of the country in the last year—and it is hardly less than $100,000,000—has had the effect, now that general speculation is not active, of creating a demand for first-class investments, and these during the week have further advanced from 1 to 7 per cent., while purely speculative stocks have risen from 1 to 6 per cent. The foreign-trade figures show that the imports are decreasing while the exports continue large; the latter have been swollen by the shipment to the Continent of a great deal of the wheat which has been held here for several months by speculators for a rise, and which is at last sold at heavy loss. The price of silver bullion in London advanced to 52¾*d.* per oz., but the bullion value here of the "buzzard dollar" closed at $0.8971.

The Supplementary Conference of the Powers has met at Berlin, but purposes, it is said, after giving instructions to the engineers who are to examine the proposed line of frontier between Turkey and Greece, to adjourn until these officers have made their report, which will probably be in ten days or a fortnight. The reply of the Porte to the identical note was received before the Conference met, and was not, as was expected, defiant, but, on the whole, rather

submissive and conciliatory. There is reported to be a general agreement that the Greeks must have Janina, which has been the great bone of contention, and which Lord Salisbury was determined they should not have; but the Greeks are evidently of opinion that whatever the award of the Conference may be they will have to fight to make it good, and are accordingly busily putting themselves on a war-footing. Not that the Turks will formally offer any resistance, but they will probably put the Albanians up to offering it, and supply them with arms and ammunition, and allow their officers and soldiers to desert to them, as they did when the Austrians entered Bosnia.

The correspondence between the new British Ministry and Sir Henry Layard has been published, and this faithful Philo-Turk in his last despatch before leaving his post fairly gives up his game, and acknowledges, with creditable frankness and emphasis, that all his efforts to make the Turkish Government "reform" have been utterly futile, and that he sees nothing for it but either to let the Turks alone or to coerce them. The signs now are that the British Ministry mean to coerce, if necessary, in concert with other Powers if possible, but alone if they must. It remains to be seen what Russia will do in this latter contingency: there are stories of her expressing sympathy with the Turks at the present crisis. Cyprus is profiting already by the change in English politics. The Tory presumption that the Greeks were a bad lot and should be kept down has been abandoned. The Greek language—that of four-fifths of the population—has been substituted for Turkish and English in official use; the absurd restriction on the sale of land has been abolished, and so has forced labor on the roads. The remaining difficulty—the enormous amount of tribute which the Beaconsfield Government agreed to pay the Turks, and which absorbs a large part of the taxes—will doubtless be got rid of somehow, and so will the Turkish suzerainty. The island, Mr. Gladstone has announced, is to be governed in the interest of the majority of the people, and not with the view of making it "a place of arms," as Lord Beaconsfield used to say.

The charge which brought so much obloquy on Mr. Fawcett, the British Postmaster-General, and which he had afterwards to retract, that the Tory Government knew of the deficit in the Indian Budget when the great debate took place on March 12, but concealed it, turns out not to have been such a dreadful mistake after all—that is to say, there was some foundation for it, enough to put the late Ministry in a very unpleasant position now if Mr. Fawcett's heavier accusation did not make the truth seem a comparatively slight affair. In February the Indian Government sent home a glowing account of the condition of the treasury, showing that there would be surplus enough in the year's revenues not only to meet the expenses of the Afghan war, but to pay for the making of a railroad from Lahore to the frontier. They even went so far as to say that no loan would be necessary to provide for the $12,000,000 required for productive public works, and that, in fact, they could easily meet all charges of whatever nature. This showing was triumphantly produced in the House of Commons in the debate on the 12th of March, and was considered a heavy blow to the Liberals, and especially to Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Fawcett, who had been drawing very dismal pictures of the financial future of India. On the day following, however, came a telegram from the Viceroy telling the Home Government that they must diminish their weekly or fortnightly drafts, as, owing to "a constant military drain, the ultimate aggregate amount of which was quite uncertain," the balances in the treasury were becoming dangerously low. Every week afterwards confirmation of this dismal news continued to arrive, so that when Parliament was dissolved, in the third week in March, the Ministry knew that the Indian Budget they had produced with so much pride in Parliament would not hold water, and that the reported surplus probably did not exist. They kept dead silence about it, however, and went to the country with all the glory of having carried on the Afghan war without borrowing.

On the 8th of April, when the elections had begun, another telegram from Lord Lytton announced that "the outgoing from the treasury for the war was very alarming—far exceeding estimate." Had this been published it would have been a splendid justification of Mr. Gladstone; but it was not. By the time the elections were over, the full amount of the deficit had been ascertained, and was laid before the public. What Mr. Fawcett heard, and really only slightly misconstrued, was that the Ministry knew long before they went out of office that the Indian estimates were defective; but they did not know it until the day after the debate on the 12th of March. They were not guilty of as much concealment as he said they were, but they were guilty of concealment.

The Speaker of the House of Commons has delivered the Ministry from the Challemel-Lacour difficulty by refusing to allow Mr. O'Donnell to put his notice about M. Challemel-Lacour's antecedents on the paper, whereupon Mr. O'Donnell left the House in disgust. He appears to have had trouble with M. Challemel-Lacour in Paris when he went over to win French sympathy for Home-Rule, and is trying to avenge himself by a very conspicuous form of libel, in which he is protected by his privilege from judicial pursuit. The Government has brought in a bill in aid of the distressed tenants in Ireland which puts certain specified districts, in which the distress is severest, under the operation of the Land-Tenure Act, and makes eviction in them for the non-payment of rent within a limited period equivalent to "disturbance" of the tenant as defined by the act when he *did* pay his rent, and therefore entitling the tenant to compensation; that is to say, a tenant in particular parts of the country who does not pay his rent, and is evicted therefor, is put by legal presumption in the position of a tenant who can pay his rent and is evicted simply because the landlord wills it. There is no doubt that this seems on its face a high-handed measure, both because it is partial in its operation as regards territory, and because it imposes an obligation with regard to the famine on some landlords which it does not impose on others. The amount of alarm and exasperation it is likely to cause among the Conservatives may be estimated from the fact that Lord Elcho resorted to the extraordinary course of offering notice of the introduction of another bill intended to be a burlesque on it, which the Speaker rejected as an insult to Parliament. As we have not seen the text of it, we are not in a position to discuss it, but the mere telegraphic summary shows that it contains materials for very exciting debate. The Tories are rapidly developing a state of temper not unlike that of the extreme Right in the French Assembly in MacMahon's day.

The House of Commons, in opposition to Mr. Labouchere's motion that Mr. Bradlaugh be permitted to take his seat upon making an affirmation or declaration, has, by a vote of 275 to 230, denied him the privilege of taking the oath or making an affirmation, and so practically unseated him. The majority was obtained by the aid of sixty-five Liberals and Home-Rulers, on the ground, of course, of Mr. Bradlaugh's atheism, a consideration which Mr. Gladstone, who insisted that it was a constitutional and not a party question, rightly declared irrelevant. The vote is, in fact, a triumph of folly. The House is unfit to judge opinions, and is bound to provide oaths or affirmations for all non-punishable opinions. It contains many atheists already.

The Amnesty Bill has passed the French Chamber by more than a two-thirds majority, but it seemed advisable first for M. Gambetta to make a speech in favor of it, to make up for a certain hesitancy on the part of the Cabinet, as well as to admonish the Senate of the real strength of the measure. The Republican press have seized upon this incident to insist on the necessity of his taking the premiership. The election of the Communist, Trinquet, will still be annulled, but his re-election under the amnesty, if the Senate yields, as it cannot help doing, is certain.

THE PRESIDENTIAL TRUST.

SENATOR HOAR was entertained on Saturday last by his fellow-citizens at Worcester, in well-merited recognition of the ability with which he had presided over the deliberations of the Chicago Convention. In his speech, in describing the good work done by the Convention, he mentioned as its two most valuable achievements, apart from the nomination, the final repudiation of the "unit rule" and the settlement of the third-term question, and then offered the following apology for those who supported General Grant's candidacy:

"I, however, think we ought to remember and respect the great reasons which governed the actions of those of our Republican fellow citizens who favored the re-election of President Grant. We are apt in these political controversies to think too much of the question whether the selection of this or that candidate will enable this or that political leader to be in a position where his advice will be taken, and where he will have the special confidence of the Executive. That is a very trifling consideration compared with the influence and the conduct which you must expect from the incumbent of the Presidential office in regard to the great questions which determine the currents of the history of the Republic. The reason for re-electing President Grant, which may or may not have been potent in the minds of the men who led his cause at Chicago, but which surely was potent in the minds of that vast number of American people who desired his nomination, was this: That of all living men, by far, he had rendered the most illustrious service to this country. (Loud applause.) Of all men who ever lived but two, beyond all possible question, he had rendered the most illustrious service to this country, both in war and in peace (Applause), Lincoln and Washington only excepted. No man need blush, no man need repent, no man need apologize, who advised his fellow-citizens, in this great crisis of their future, to put their trust again where it had been once so well executed. (Applause.)"

Now, it may be true that the great majority of those voters, apart from the engineers of the Grant movement in the State and National Conventions, who desired his nomination were influenced by the fact that he of all living men has rendered the greatest service to his country. It may be fair, and at this juncture expedient, to make this acknowledgment. But most certainly to make it in these terms does great injustice to the bulk of those who opposed the nomination, and deprives the rejection of it by the Convention of a large part of its value and significance as a political lesson. It is true, no doubt, that the strongest motive with the opponents of General Grant was hostility to a third term for any one, but we make bold to say that this hostility would never have acquired the force and vigor which it did acquire, and would never have achieved the success which it did achieve, if it had not included hostility to a third term for General Grant arising out of the manner in which he administered the Government during his two terms. It was those who, to use the words of the New York Independents, felt the scandals of his Administration with the "sting of personal disgrace," who organized the anti-third term movement, and infused into it the determination and persistence which finally defeated the plot of the Bosses. To make light, as a political force, of the shame and misgiving which these scandals aroused, is to cast discredit on the political capacity of the American people. Nobody gave stronger or more vivid expression to it than Senator Hoar himself in his speech on the Belknap impeachment, which he has apparently forgotten. A list of General Grant's offences against the Government was published by the leading Republican paper in Chicago during the sitting of the Convention. It contained nothing but undeniable facts, and there was not one of them which did not argue unfitness for the Presidency on the part of the officer to whose charge they were laid. Had the Convention ignored or condoned them by a renomination, it would, as was well known, have ruined the party irretrievably. We are bound to assume, therefore, that the majority of the Convention did not agree with Mr. Hoar in thinking that General Grant had rendered "the most illustrious service to his country, both in war *and peace*," of all men who ever lived except Lincoln and Washington. This is an extraordinary statement to make to the young men of the country about a President who had Delano and Belknap in his cabinet, who had Shepherd for a trusted friend, and who tried to put the government of the District of Columbia into his (Shepherd's) hands after Congress had legislated him out of office for corruption; and who in a score of other scandals absolutely defied what was purest and most patriotic in public opinion, and who went out of office with the reputation, which no Republican paper ventured to gainsay, of having, more than any President since Jackson, used the public service for the gratification of personal tastes and caprices.

That General Grant rendered the country enormous service in war—the greatest ever rendered—is undeniable. That this created a presumption which fairly justified his election in 1868, is also undeniable. But nothing can be less republican or more dangerous than the doctrine that after his failure in civil life had been made manifest, any sense of gratitude for his military services could furnish any body of men with an excuse for wishing to give him another term of the Presidency. The doctrine for which all friends of good government in this and all other republics are bound to fight to the last is that no place in the public service, and least of all the highest, can or ought to be made the reward for anything but fidelity and capacity in the place bestowed, or in a similar one. The notion that any office can or ought to be used to reward a man for filling well some other office of an entirely different character, is not only unrepublican, but is not now tolerated anywhere but in a somewhat corrupt military monarchy. Office in a free government is a bundle of duties, and nothing but presumed or proved ability to discharge them can give any man a shadow of a right to it, no matter what his services to the country in any other field may have been. Proof by actual experiment that he cannot discharge them may not release his countrymen from the obligation to feel grateful to him, and to reward him in some other way; but readiness, in the teeth of such proof, to use the office to gratify him would be a serious symptom of fatal corruption.

The decision of the Chicago Convention, therefore, we insist on believing, meant that the Republican party was determined not to convert the Presidency into a peerage or estate for a successful soldier, no matter how great his fame or his merit, but to keep it, as far as the conditions of human nature and of American society would admit, what it was intended to be and *is*—a solemn trust, to be undertaken by no man who is not equal to its responsibilities, no matter what he may have done elsewhere either for the national safety or glory. In the idea to which Mr. Hoar has given his sanction the roots of all the prevailing abuses in the civil service are to be found. The curse of that service in its lower branches, and indeed of public life, is that places are used to reward Tom, Dick, and Harry for doing something which has no connection whatever with the duties of those places and which argues no special fitness for them. But thus far the spoils doctrine in its nakedness has not been applied to the Presidency. No party has yet dared to come before the country with a candidate whose unfitness for the Presidential office has been proved, or could not be denied. No matter how obscure the nominee, the party through all its organs of expression invariably maintains that he will fill the place efficiently and honorably. It was because the Republican party seemed in danger of breaking through this most rational and honorable tradition that the opponents of the third term were able to make such a vigorous and successful resistance to General Grant's nomination. Its supporters did not venture to refer to the history of his civil administration in support of his claims. They had to go back to the battlefields of the Rebellion to find reasons for giving him once more a great civil office in which he had been thoroughly tried and found wanting; or, in other words, resort to the old argument by which the Bonapartists justified the Eighteenth Brumaire. The conflict which ended in General Garfield's nomination was full of valuable lessons in government. It did settle two very important questions which Senator Hoar has pointed out—the unit-rule question and the third-term question. But it settled also, as it seems to us, a third and more important one still, which

he has either overlooked or underestimated, inasmuch as it decided that a man who has filled an office badly ought not to have it again, no matter how great or good he may be.

GENERAL GARFIELD AND THE CRÉDIT MOBILIER.

IN concluding our article on the Republican nominee last week we alluded to certain charges, having an unpleasant aspect, which it would not do for his political friends to ignore. Of these by far the worst-looking was that which associated his name with the Crédit-Mobilier swindle as a holder of stock in that concern, and in which he was accused of a disingenuous attempt to free himself from his proper share of responsibility in the matter by pretending that the dividend which he received from the stock was a small loan of money from Oakes Ames. The Republican papers have touched upon the matter in such a way as to show that they would feel much more comfortable if there were no such charge to meet. We have, therefore, made a careful examination of all the evidence against Mr. Garfield elicited by the Poland Committee during the celebrated investigation of 1873, with a view of giving our readers a correct idea of its character and of the probable conclusions to be drawn from it.

It will be remembered that the investigation originated from the putting of some one hundred and eighty shares of stock in the hands of Mr. Ames as trustee, for the purpose of "placing it where it would do most good." This was done some time in the year 1867. Mr. Ames thereupon applied to a dozen or more of his personal friends in Congress to invest small sums in it on terms as liberal as the investors could honestly expect. Some paid in cash, and to those who had not the cash to spare he offered to hold the stock until the dividends should pay for it. The general fact that some of the stock had been held by members of Congress leaked out during the Presidential campaign of 1872, and on the opening of the session of Congress in December of that year Speaker Blaine, whose name had been prominently mentioned in connection with the matter, moved the appointment of a committee of investigation. We are now concerned only with such of the evidence taken by the committee as relates to Mr. Garfield, of which the following is a summary made up from the report of the committee.

Among the first papers presented was a rough memorandum submitted by Mr. McComb, containing names of about a dozen members of Congress supposed to have invested in the stock. The name "Garfield" appears on the paper, but no indication of the number of shares or any other particulars. On his opening examination, December 17, 1872, Mr. Oakes Ames says of Garfield: "I agreed to get ten shares of stock for him, and hold it until he could pay for it." He added that Mr. Garfield never took his stock and never paid for it, and he had no recollection of ever having paid him any dividend. He had, however, given him (Mr. Garfield) some $300 or $400, which he called a loan. (It will be remembered that at the time this evidence was given nearly five years had elapsed since the supposed transaction.) The next day Mr. Ames repeated, in the most unqualified manner, that Mr. Garfield had never paid for any stock or received any dividend.

On January 22 he told a somewhat different story. In December, 1867, or January, 1868, Mr. Garfield agreed to take stock. In the following June Mr. Ames sold the bonds belonging to his stock for $776, and received a cash dividend of $600, which, after deducting $47 interest, left a balance of $329 due to each holder of ten shares. This sum he paid Mr. Garfield, and that, he said, was the sole transaction between them. He did not know how the sum was paid, but supposed it was paid in money. When asked whether he had made any statement to Mr. Garfield of what he was paying the money for, he replied: "I presume I did; I think I did with all of them; that is my impression." He "supposed" Mr. Garfield understood this to be the balance of his dividend. He remembered no conversation in the transaction, and never delivered any certificate. Dividends in Union Pacific stock had been declared on these shares, but Mr. Garfield had never asked for any of them. He "presumed" the $329 was paid by a check on the sergeant-at-arms.

On January 29 he said that he had never offered to pay Mr. Garfield any more dividends, but still considered the 10 shares of stock as belonging to him. He also said, that in conversation with Mr. Garfield since the investigation commenced the latter argued that there was still $2,400 due him on his shares, namely, $1,000 Crédit-Mobilier stock, $1,000 in Union Pacific stock, and $400 in stocks and bonds; and in support of his statement submitted the following memorandum in Mr. Garfield's handwriting:

1,000
1,400
2,400

He found this little piece of paper on his table a few days after the conversation, and thought that, as there was a conflict of testimony, it might be worth preserving.

Except this scrap of paper, Mr. Ames's recollection was not, up to this point, supported by any documentary evidence whatever. He had produced no original paper, memorandum, entry, or check of any kind, by himself or any one else, showing that Mr. Garfield had ever agreed to take the stock, or received the dividend on it. He stated the circumstances entirely from memory, and, when pressed for particulars, said that he had forgotten them. According to his own testimony his memory was of little value as evidence: "People ask me about things that happened a year ago, and I cannot tell whether it was ten years ago or one." Allusions to this defect of memory were very frequent during his examination.

On February 11 the case took a new turn by the production of Mr. Ames's celebrated memorandum-book, showing his dealings with each Congressional subscriber to the stock. The following is the only entry bearing on our present enquiry:

GARFIELD.

10 shares Crédit M.,	$1,000 00
7 mos. 10 days,	43 36
	1,043 36
80 p. c. dividend at .97,	776 00
	267 36
Interest to June 20,	3 64
	271 00

1,000 C. M.
1,000 U. P.

This is a calculation showing that on June 20 Mr. Garfield still owed $271 on his stock, which, being deducted from the dividend of $600 declared about the same time, leaves the balance of $329, which Mr. Ames asserted he had paid. But it will be seen that the memorandum gives no evidence of this payment. When pressed for the last time to state how it was understood that the payment was on account of the dividend, he replied: "I supposed it was like all the rest; but when Mr. Garfield says he mistook it for a loan, that he always understood it to be a loan, that I did not make any explanation to him, and did not make any statement to him, I may be mistaken. I am a man of few words, and I may not have made myself understood to him."

This terminates the case for the plaintiff. It does not appear that the defendant was present either in person or by counsel; at least, in our examination of the testimony we have found no instance in which the witness was cross-examined, either by Mr. Garfield or on his behalf. The latter, however, made a brief statement to the committee, and afterwards privately printed an examination of the testimony. This has the appearance of a straightforward and satisfactory explanation of his apparent connection with the affair. Weak points of the evidence are not picked out for refutation, and strong ones ignored, as is common in such cases, but the strongest points are presented *verbatim*, followed by explanations of their bearing or origin. When we look into the matter we find the conflict of

testimony to be less than it appears at first sight; and, except on a single point, there is little difficulty in forming a quite satisfactory judgment of the essential facts.

We first call to mind that Mr. Ames held the stock as trustee, and therefore could derive no personal benefit from it. Hence he could afford to be liberal in disposing of it. The smallness of the amount at his disposal shows that the object was rather to associate influential names with the enterprise, in order to give it respectability, than to secure any favorable legislation. In the event of an exposure it was evidently desirable to have the best possible reputations at risk, and therefore very natural to offer stock to men of the right kind on very liberal terms. About the end of 1867 Mr. Garfield was approached, both by George Francis Train and Mr. Ames, with offers of ten shares of the stock at par, with the assurance that it would pay good dividends. He neither positively declined nor accepted, but held the matter under advisement. Some time during the next few months Mr. Garfield, having exhausted his funds by a journey to Europe, borrowed three hundred dollars from Mr. Ames. Whether this loan, which he admits having received, is really identical with the dividend of three hundred and twenty-nine dollars which Mr. Ames professed to have paid him, may be an open question, but the preponderance of probability seems to be in the affirmative, for the simple reason that it was very natural that Mr. Ames's treacherous memory should have been slightly at fault after the lapse of five years. We might pertinently ask whether one can correctly be said to remember a payment when he cannot recall a single one of the attendant circumstances. Mr. Ames produced three checks for three hundred and twenty-nine dollars which he had drawn on the Sergeant-at-Arms. One or two of these had initials on them indicating whom they were for, but the one he supposed to be Mr. Garfield's had no mark whatever connecting that gentleman with it; nor could Mr. Ames say whether he had drawn the money himself or given the check to Mr. Garfield, which seems to us almost equivalent to saying that he did not remember anything at all about it. Mr. Garfield says that when Mr. Ames lent him the money the latter said that if he took the stock they could settle both matters together, so that it was easy for the transactions to have been associated in Mr. Ames's mind. He also says that when he repaid this loan he took no receipt, as he had given none, but verbally declined the proposal to take the offered stock. Nor is there anything improbable in the supposition that Mr. Ames may have tendered this check, and that Mr. Garfield, being in want of the money, may have accepted it as a loan in case he finally declined the stock, and a dividend in case he took it. However this might have been, both agree that there was no further communication between them on the subject, and that Mr. Ames never paid or offered to pay him subsequent dividends, and never tendered him any evidence of ownership.

This last fact seems conclusive of the main question, because it proves that Mr. Garfield never considered himself the owner of the stock. It is highly improbable that he allowed Mr. Ames to hold for him stocks and moneys of a cash value of one or two thousand dollars for four years without a scrap of evidence to prove his claim in case of Mr. Ames's death, without once asking for a dollar of the dividends, and without making any attempt to realize upon a dangerous investment. To add to the improbability of the case, he had, in the meantime, built himself a house, a proceeding which usually impels men of slender means to search diligently for all moneys to which they are entitled. In addition to all this, if Mr. Garfield held the stock, knowing it to be disreputable, he had an additional motive for disconnecting his name from it; so that the plaintiff's case implies, not only that he denied himself his money in this inexplicable manner, but that he did so under peril of exposure.

We consider the admitted conduct of both parties during the four years alluded to, from 1868 to 1872, as sufficiently refuting the uncertain and vacillating testimony of Mr. Ames as to what Mr. Garfield agreed to do. No doubt he held the ten shares of stock for Mr. Garfield; he was very desirous that the name and goodwill of that gentleman should be secured, and he had no reasons for otherwise disposing of the stock. The transaction, entirely verbal in its form, was one in which there was room for infinite misunderstanding on both sides, and it is quite possible that Mr. Ames might have forgotten any verbal refusal of the stock. At the same time, his failure to tender either dividends or evidences of ownership lends color to the suspicion that he no more looked upon Mr. Garfield as owner than the latter did himself. His apparent statement that Mr. Garfield, after he had been implicated by the testimony, claimed $2,400 due him, is so preposterous that we need not quote Mr. Garfield's explanation of the mistake.

At the same time it is to be remembered that the Congressional Committee, which contained such Republicans as Mr. Poland, Mr. Banks, and Mr. McCrary, did find that Mr. Garfield agreed to take the stock, and received the dividend of $329; in other words, they believed Mr. Ames's story, and did not believe Mr. Garfield's denial. But the evidence on which they based their conclusion is before the world, and they have no such judicial authority as to make their finding anything more than a very disagreeable fact for Mr. Garfield's friends and a very useful one for his enemies. We must say for our own part that until now we had overlooked the long interval which elapsed between the alleged distribution of the stock and payment of the dividend and the investigation. We are satisfied that Mr. Ames's admitted failure during all that period of four years either to attempt to deliver the stock or to pay any subsequent dividends on it, and Mr. Garfield's admitted failure to ask for either stock or dividends, though confessedly in great need of money, give Mr. Garfield's version of the transaction the strongest kind of corroboration, and, taken in connection with what is known of his life and character, would be sufficient, if he were not a Presidential candidate, to clear him in the eyes of all reasonable men of every imputation arising out of it.

THE JEW QUESTION IN GERMANY.

THE Jew question, or the agitation against the Jews, which has been carried on in Germany for the last year or two, and which has been taken up with renewed vigor since the well-known historian Treitschke in the beginning of the year added the weight of his name to the attacks on the Jews, presents interesting illustrations of the religious, political, and especially of the social, condition of Germany. What is most characteristic of the discussion is, that the religious side of the question is the least prominent and least important of all. Although the elements of hostility to the Jews come mainly from Pietist and Ultramontane circles, it is safe to say that religious bigotry, though there is not a little of it involved, gives the agitation only a small part of its undoubtedly great significance. Indeed, what religious hatred there is seems to be directed against the Jews not because they are Jews but because they have ceased to be Jews or anything else. The Jews who cling to their old faith are left unmolested; but those who have ceased to be believing Jews, and have not become believing Christians, are vehemently accused of infidelity and atheism. It is unbearable to a sincere Lutheran or Catholic that men of Jewish blood, not content with equality and toleration, should join the infidels of pure German blood in undermining Christian dogmas.

The political side of the question is connected with the reactionary policy which has had the upper hand in Germany for the last three or four years. When the Liberals, after having completed the unity of Germany by a series of legislative enactments not less essential for the purpose than the events of 1866 and 1870, ceased to serve the purposes of the imperious Chancellor, one of the chief weapons employed against them became this agitation against the Jews. Another weapon, akin to this one, was the economical reaction on the part of professorial "Socialists" against the principles of freedom and individuality maintained principally by the Liberals. The Jews belong almost to a man to the National-Liberal and Fortschritt parties—largely to the latter, the more advanced of the two;

and it was an easy and efficient way of discrediting these parties with the populace to charge them with being under the control of the Jews. Lasker, Bamberger, and Oppenheim, three of the most eminent and most useful of the National-Liberals, are Jews—that is, of Jewish descent; it is needless to say that it is quite immaterial in this controversy whether a man be still an orthodox Jew or only of Jewish blood. That the Jew question has not been abandoned as a political weapon is shown by the invective of Bismarck's organ against the "Hamburg Jews and usurers" in connection with the recent, and by no means abandoned, attack of the Chancellor on the commercial independence of Hamburg.

But it is on the social side that the agitation has its greatest interest and significance. The main charge against the Jews, and the one which is based not only on prejudice and interest but on facts, is that they are obtaining and abusing an influence in Germany out of all proportion to their number. In the exaggerated language of Marr, the most rabid assailant of the Jews, a struggle of nationalities is pending; "Jewism" is fighting and conquering "Germanism." Indeed this word "Germanism" (*Deutschthum*) has become an efficient catchword in more than one of the controversies of the day; it is a favorite question-begging epithet of the Wagnerians in musical quarrels. Of course such talk as this of Marr's—and how much of it there is, one cannot easily conceive without glancing over the wearisome dulness of numberless pamphlets and newspaper articles—is not worth attention except in so far as an extreme position indicates most clearly the general drift of a current of thought. But even Treitschke, whose ability and learning cannot be denied, whatever may be thought of his consistency or independence of thought, says that there is danger that "centuries of German culture will be followed by an era of mixed German-Jew culture." The basis of all which is, of course, that remarkable success of the Jews in so many of the most important departments of activity, which it has already become commonplace to point out. Especially in Germany their success has been so signal that jealousy on the part of the pure Germans would seem to be not without foundation. The Jews form only about two per cent. of the population of Germany, yet they furnish seventy professors to German universities; their prominence in politics has already been noted; they are by all odds the best business men in Germany; and two most important occupations, journalism and banking, it is complained, have been almost monopolized by them.

Part of this success is due to causes which have produced the same results in other parts of the world. To use language with which the doctrine of evolution has made us familiar, the struggle for existence has been, up to the present generation, made so hard for the Jews as to render it only natural that when the obstructions in their way were removed they should exhibit remarkable abilities and achieve remarkable success. Moreover, they are, on the average, much richer than the German population, which goes to account for the disproportionately large number of them in all the higher walks of life. But in addition to such general causes as these there has been at work in Germany a cause which shows that there is some leaven of truth in the talk about the contest of Germanism and Jewism—namely, the difference in the national or race character of Jews and Germans—a difference which cannot be pointed out in every, perhaps not in any, individual, but whose existence is one of the most important factors in history. The Germans are as a nation slow, laborious, methodical; they have not to anything like the degree the Jews have the qualities of keen foresight, quick determination, and sudden adaptation to altered circumstances which are demanded in so many departments of modern life. It is in the departments where these qualities are needed that the Jews have won their remarkable successes. That precisely these should be connected with some of the most disagreeable phenomena of our time is not the fault of the Jews, for the same phenomena appear in other countries where the "Jewish question" does not exist. The two occupations for whose monopoly and abuse the Jews are especially attacked, journalism and banking or financiering, are patent illustrations of the truth of these remarks. One of the great charges against the Jews is that they control the German press. As a matter of fact—and the fact is very significant—it is only the news-gatherers, the correspondents, the feuilletonists who are Jews. On almost all the larger papers the responsible editors and the writers of the heavy leaders are pure Germans, and it is well known that it always takes a German daily two or three days at least to make up its mind and publish its leader on any public event. Still more characteristic is the other employment the Jews are said to monopolize—banking, brokering, and kindred branches. The most vehement and oft-repeated attacks on the Jews are directed against them as the usurers, the stock-exchange gamblers, the poisoners of all legitimate enterprise. Without attempting to discuss the merits of the question, it is sufficient to say that stock exchanges and business speculation are not confined to Germany. The essential point here is that the acknowledged superiority of the Jews in this sort of work is due to the presence in Jews and the absence in Germans of the qualities already mentioned.

That this success of the Jews has in some cases led to more or less vulgarly disagreeable manifestations on their part, and that especially their activity as bankers and brokers has not been without its dark side, it would be useless to deny. That these circumstances have produced a widely diffused, vague feeling of dislike and distrust is equally undeniable. But it is absurd to say with Treitschke, whom we continue to quote as the most respectable of the enemies of the Jews, that "the Jews are our [the Germans'] calamity"; still more absurd is it to speak of an inevitable conflict of races, of the ever-existing breach between Orient and Occident. The Jews possess race characteristics, and the importance and bearing of these we have endeavored to point out. But they will not continue to form a separate nation or race. Gradually they will become amalgamated with the population surrounding them. It is one of the most remarkable phenomena of the century that the Jews, after having tenaciously clung to their race identity during fifteen hundred years of persecution, are losing it in half a century of tolerance. This is explained partly by the mere fact of toleration, the abolition of their legal disabilities which established their equality with other men, and which, it may be remarked, was not completed in Germany till 1848. Another circumstance, quite as important as this fact of toleration, is the general weakening of religious belief in all circles; nowadays a Jew, in order to remove the barrier of religious difference and to come on to common ground with large numbers of his fellows, does not need to turn Christian—he simply ceases to be a Jew. Certain it is that for these or other reasons the process of amalgamation is going on with great rapidity, and in a generation or two the Jews as a separate race will have disappeared. And this is happening not only with acquiescence but with eagerness on the part of the Jews, who desire nothing more than to be "wholly and truly German." Moreover, the admixture of their blood with the German will be the reverse of harmful to the latter nation. A little Jewish enterprise and venturesomeness will be as beneficial to the somewhat phlegmatically slow and orderly Germans as the characteristic German qualities have been beneficial in our American life. The only effect of the present agitation will be the highly deplorable one of stimulating prejudice and bigotry among the Germans, of increasing clannishness and carelessness for German opinion among the Jews, and of retarding and rendering more difficult the amalgamation which must come sooner or later in any event.

WAS GENERAL McCLELLAN A GREAT SOLDIER?

OF Mr. George Ticknor Curtis's articles on "McClellan's Last Service to the Republic," in the April, May, and June numbers of the *North American Review*, grave, earnest, and apparently well-reasoned as they are, it is not easy to speak with respect. Belief in General McClellan, in his genius, his vigor, his wrongs, was once a cult with many people in this country. They held it altogether the fault of the Government, and in no sense or degree his fault, that he did not crush the Confederate

army and capture Richmond in the second year of the war. With the fuller knowledge and more careful thought which time has brought, the number of the true believers has dwindled, but Mr. Curtis's articles show that the race is not extinct.

The questions which Mr. Curtis discusses are not now of great importance. The world knows that McClellan did not succeed, and there is so much fighting going on all the time, and so many generals make great names in every quarter of a century, that an enquiry into the causes of the admitted non-success of General A. or General B. provokes only a languid interest when a very few years have passed. We take it to be the settled opinion of those most competent to judge, that General McClellan was a good but not a great soldier; that he was a very efficient organizer, a fair but not a brilliant strategist; that he was so careful of his men that he never exposed them to great reverses, and so wanting in decision, vigor, and dash that he never led them to great victories. Indeed, he never led them, in the proper sense of the word, at all. From Williamsburg to the Antietam it was always the same, either total absence from the field or total failure to make his presence felt there. Mr. Curtis's reasoning is based upon a series of assumptions, some of which are at variance with established facts, and the rest are not only not known to be true, but are probably not true. His leading postulate is that McClellan was a soldier of the purest patriotism, the most elevated character, and the most consummate ability. Whatever he did was grandly successful; whatever good thing he failed to do was made impossible by the wickedness or folly of others. He was so great that Lincoln and Halleck and Stanton did not dare to leave him in command, because if they did victory was sure to perch upon his banners and to make him too formidable as a soldier, while as a citizen the rare wisdom of his Harrison's Landing letter would have raised him to too high a pinnacle.

With the political or personal reasons which may have contributed to General McClellan's removal we do not propose to occupy ourselves. The interesting question, and the one which we have ample knowledge for discussing, is this: Had McClellan, in the year and more during which he had held the command of the Army of the Potomac, proved himself a fit instrument for putting down the rebellion? If he had not, or if he had so far failed to do so as to make Mr. Lincoln gravely doubt his capacity, we may lay aside the consideration of the personal and political jealousies of the time. No doubt they existed, as they do among all peoples, especially in periods of great excitement and trial; but we incline to give great weight, in seeking for the cause of McClellan's displacement, to the expressive language of our homely President: "He has got the 'slows,' Mr. Blair."

We have stated what we consider to be the real question, but shall discuss it only incidentally, as we proceed with our examination of Mr. Curtis's fitness for the task which he has undertaken. The inveterateness of his prejudices and his want of the judicial quality of mind are strikingly shown by his constantly speaking of McClellan as gaining the battle of the Antietam, while he declares that the Confederates were "barely checked" at Gettysburg. The truth is that at the Antietam we, with a large army, got a little, and only a very little, the better of Lee with a small army; and that at Gettysburg, with nearly equal forces, the Army of Northern Virginia received a blow from which it never recovered. So with the question of supplies. It was always impossible, Mr. Curtis thinks, for McClellan to do anything till every requisition was filled, while he seems to think that Lee was always ready for anything, no matter how far from his base he might be, nor how much fighting he might have done. Again, incredible as it may appear, Mr. Curtis reproduces the utterly exploded story that Lee's forces before Richmond, at the commencement of the Seven Days, amounted to two hundred thousand men, and the scarcely less absurd theory that McClellan "saved" his army, at that time, "from a vastly superior force of the enemy," and that Lee, at the Antietam, had about ten thousand more men than we. The truth is that Lee had less men than we on the Peninsula, and that to allow him two men to our three at the Antietam is a liberal estimate; and, it may be remarked parenthetically, it was distinctly and unequivocally McClellan's own fault that he did not win a great victory in the last-named action.

It is easy to use strong language, but strong language amounts to little unless supported by accurate knowledge and clear thought. Mr. Curtis, writing in 1880, speaks of the Crimean War as "one of the most gigantic wars of modern Europe, and declares that in that war McClellan saw the science of war "applied on the grandest scale, and in the most exact methods, by the armies of three nations." This shows a hopeless case, and it is no wonder that a military critic who can write such sentences should be ready to declare, as he does, that McClellan, when he was displaced, was "straining every nerve to overtake and defeat the Confederate forces," and that he was then "on the very eve of a great success." There is nothing in McClellan's history to justify such claims, and we who fought under him, while we recognize in him the possession of many valuable qualities, know that there is not. How far he might have improved if he had been continued in command it is impossible to say. Undoubtedly he would have done better than Burnside did, or than Hooker did. He was far from being rash, but he was equally far from being enterprising. He was never ready to do anything. He could almost never bring himself to the point of attacking. In the battle of the Antietam, the solitary instance in which he attacked in force, he lost his opportunity, and crippled the flower of his army by his failure to make Burnside obey his orders on the left. The commander who moved his great army up the Peninsula till the spires of Richmond were in sight, and spent the best part of a month in covering its front with defensive lines; who declared that he should be in perfect readiness to move forward and take Richmond as soon as McCall arrived and the ground would admit the passage of artillery, and who waited for days and days after McCall had arrived and the ground had become hard; who then received the attack instead of making it, and got beaten with a fraction of his army instead of winning a victory with the whole; who failed to crush Lee's inferior army when he had him between his own great army and the Potomac; and who did not get within striking distance of him again for seven weeks of fine autumn weather, may have been unfortunate, may have had enemies, may have been ill-treated, but his career had been such that there was ground for grave doubts of his capacity to lead a great army to victory.

These articles will not benefit General McClellan with those who are familiar with his history.

M. DE FALLOUX.

PARIS, June 8, 1880.

THE Ultramontane party unfortunately still continue to confound their cause with that of the French Catholic Church, and in a lawful way have now undertaken a campaign of meetings and conferences to protest against the ecclesiastical policy of the Government. By multiplying these public meetings and appealing to the active devotion of their friends, according to the English method, they are striving to influence national opinion in their favor. These demonstrations have no connection with tumultuous manifestations in the streets, and the Ultramontanes do not in any way infringe the law by so doing. The first and most important of these meetings was the annual session of the Catholic Committee held in Paris last month. After the usual business was despatched, a system of resistance was organized. This time the members of the Committee felt it was useless to ask for the concurrence of the state in their efforts to strengthen church privileges. Such an idea is, however, the fundamental doctrine which inevitably becomes apparent in the speeches even of the cleverest orators, although now proclaimed with infinite caution. The Catholic Committees have confirmed and encouraged the determination to rouse popular feeling in every district by means of meetings; some have already taken place in the provinces, and they have just been inaugurated in Paris with a certain brilliancy, since they have procured us the reappearance in public of the most clever leader of the Catholic party, M. de Falloux. This is looked upon as quite an event by the party, and such it is if we take precedents into account.

You know that M. de Falloux is the Minister of Public Instruction who, in 1850, caused the passage of the law to which Catholicism owes the authority it exercises over primary instruction; and to his party his presence alone was worth an eloquent speech. He evoked frantic applause by merely saying, "I am the law of 1850." His speech, however, did not answer the general expectation. The orator appeared much aged and worn. As frequently happens with his party, he confused the question of religion *per se* with that of the political situation of Catholicism in France. He developed some fine ideas on the importance of preserving religious faith in a nation, and the beauty and utility of teaching children the catechism. Such a defence of religion is in its place at a theological conference intended to contend against philosophical doctrines which aim at the suppression of religion by urging materialism as the only means of emancipating humanity. Religion is entirely outside the subject of contention between the Republican Government and Ultramontanism, for it touches solely on the legal position of the Church. I ad-

mit it is natural that the latter should think that the modern state exceeds all just bounds in seeking to put the institutions of France in entire accord with its secular character, and it is not surprising that the Church should remonstrate against the right of doing so; but it is not admissible for its defenders to compare all restriction of its privileges with a blasphemous attack against its faith, and affirm that the civil power declares war on God when it withdraws any favor from the Church.

The chief interest of the Rue de Grenelle meeting was in the speaker rather than in the speech, and the burst of applause which greeted him shows the harmony existing between him, formerly a Liberal Catholic, and the most ardent faction of Ultramontanism. This is a fresh proof of the obliteration of all former divisions in contemporary Catholicism. To speak the truth, M. de Falloux has never been a Liberal Catholic from principle, but only from policy. If we wish to know him thoroughly, we must read the very interesting fragment of his 'Memoirs'* published last year just after the Bishop of Orléans's death. There we find the ruling idea of his political life. He dwells at greatest length on that episode in his career which describes his entry into the Ministry of 1849. To overcome his repugnance to taking office, the chief leaders of the Catholic party had to show him what a useful servant of the Church he might be in such a high post. He only accepted it as a representative of the Catholic party, and his sole thought was to further their interests. As he himself said to the patrons of his candidature, "Because the priests send me, I accept the Ministry if you promise to support and vote with me the law of educational liberty; if not, I decline." M. de Falloux made his obeisance to the Pope: "My consolation and hope are," he wrote, "to render some passing services to the Church, and to meet with some opportunity of proving my personal devotion to your Holiness."

In these 'Memoirs' we find a rather pretty anecdote about M. Guizot, who favored M. de Falloux's election to the French Academy from political motives. A friend of Louis Philippe's celebrated minister said to him, "Read the History of Pope Pius V. [a practical Ultramontane], and you will see if a Protestant can vote for M. de Falloux." "As I am resolved to vote for him," replied M. Guizot, "I shall not read his books." We who did read them remember the famous saying: "Tolerance is the virtue of ages without faith"; from which we may infer that when public opinion is favorable, intolerance is most desirable. At the conference the other day we find the same thought in this significant sentence: "When a government frankly takes up the tutelage of good, the Church is ready to second it; but when governments abdicate partially or totally this protection of right, then the Church demands nothing but the liberty of appealing to individuals." It is too evident that this liberty is a last expedient; the ideal is the protection of the Church by the state. The orator has thus once more revealed to us the real politics of his party: to modern society he opposes the old society, the priestly power of the "ancien régime." It is of some consequence to remember this at the moment when outwardly the Ultramontane party lay claim to liberal principles. Such is the result of the meeting held on May 28. We think it excellent.

É.

THE INNER LIFE OF GUIZOT.—II.

PARIS, May 30, 1880.

M. GUIZOT had a thoroughly conservative mind. He had not desired the Revolution of 1830, though he had blamed the unfortunate measures which were the cause of it. He had taken the conservative side after 1830; and after the death of Casimir-Périer, who had first pronounced the "Quos ego" in the revolutionary tempest of Paris, he entered the ministry with the Duc de Broglie, M. Thiers, and Marshal Soult.

"It is easier," wrote M. Guizot a few days afterwards to his friend Barante, "to rebuild Lisbon on a burning and trembling soil than to give firmness to a shaken society. M. Périer has rendered us an immense service. He has stopped the material disorder; but the political disorder, the intellectual disorder, are still around us, and they must be conquered. . . . Let it be understood in Europe that we are playing the great, perhaps the last *partie* of European order, of European security, and that it is necessary that all honest and sensible men should *mettre au jeu* for us."

There is much illusion in these words, perhaps an honorable illusion. Guizot considered history a little too much as a game of chance between the good and the evil spirit; he believed to the end that the fate of Europe had been hanging on the great game played in France between the Conservative and Monarchical party and the Revolution. He did not sufficiently understand the new forces introduced into the civilized world by science, by industry, by trade, by the development of a rich democracy. He was a Calvinist in politics as well as in religion; he believed in the natural and innate depravity of the people as well as in the total depravity of man, and fancied that the office of government was to protect nations against their bad instincts, to replace the rule of the unthinking multitudes by the rule of reason and of a conscious will. The tendency which Guizot represented in French politics was the tendency which leads the Tories in England and the conservatives in all countries; it was one of the two necessary factors of civilization, one of the two poles between which oscillates, and will perpetually oscillate, the human mind. He was, in truth, a pessimist, and there are times when the pessimists are necessary ministers; there are times also when the optimists are in the ascendant. Cavour used to say, "Il faut de la bonne humeur en politique"; and his "bonne humeur," which he maintained even after Novara and the greatest disasters, certainly proved beneficial to Italy. Men, after all, do not choose their temper, their character, any more than they choose the color of their hair. All we have a right to expect from them, to demand from them, is sincerity. Guizot was sincere, and never doubted that he was in the right; he believed in himself, he believed in the doctrines which he defended through his whole life. He was also a man of action; he said often, "I love power, for I love a struggle."

Guizot lost his second wife soon after he became minister. He gave himself up entirely to politics. The cabinet fell in 1836, and M. Thiers formed a new administration, in which the Duc de Broglie and M. Guizot had no place. M. Guizot went to Normandy and bought a small estate called the Val-Richer, which has now become famous. He was soon called back to Paris. M. Thiers had undertaken to make an armed intervention in Spain against the Carlist party. Louis Philippe would not consent to it, and Thiers was obliged to resign. The new ministry was formed under the presidency of M. Molé, who called for M. Guizot, but did not offer a place to the Duc de Broglie. A few days afterwards his eldest son, François, who was already twenty-one years old, died. The ministry was soon displaced, and M. Guizot returned to the Val-Richer. The loss of power was nothing to him; he felt very acutely the loss of his son. During the three years which followed, the French parliament was torn by continued dissensions. Guizot finally entered into a coalition against M. Molé, for which he has been often reproached. A new administration united the various heads of the coalition, but there was no vitality in its administration, and it did not last long. Guizot left the cabinet and was sent as ambassador to London. The Eastern Question was threatening the peace of Europe, and it was generally believed in France that M. Guizot would have much influence with the English Government. He left for London in 1840. M. Thiers was the head of a new cabinet, and it is well known how Thiers supported Mehemet Ali in Egypt, and how Lord Palmerston formed a coalition against France. M. Guizot remained ignorant to the last of the designs of Lord Palmerston. He was not a diplomat. He had a certain sort of *naïveté* which helped Lord Palmerston. He professed a love of peace which was very sincere; but a diplomat, while he speaks of peace, must always give the impression that there is something to which peace must at times be sacrificed. Guizot was very much *enguirlandé* in London, to use a favorite Russian expression. He had become such a favorite that he did not see, through the clouds of homage which surrounded him, the nets of diplomacy forming under his feet. He awoke, as it were, from a dream when Lord Palmerston, having signed his treaties, turned round to him and said bluntly: "You must give up your protégé in Egypt, or else you will have war, and not only war with England, but with Europe." Mayfair and the Lord Mayor's dinners, the silver of Mansion House, the visits to Windsor, the noise of Epsom, the tranquil splendor of Sion House and so many other places have intoxicated many strong heads. Albion has long been a more dangerous siren than the Burg of Vienna, the Palace of St. Petersburg, the frivolous Tuileries. The perfume of a true, a thinking, as well as a brilliant aristocracy is dangerous to a man born in a democracy. There was no plebeian vanity in Guizot; he was by nature equal to the greatest men of the time. His great mistake in England lay in the fact that he believed that Great Britain ought to be naturally friendly to France, to a new constitutional government established under the greatest difficulties. He believed that the "entente cordiale" (it was the word of the time) *was* "cordiale." He really thought that nations can be friendly and disinterested and unselfish—a mistake

* 'The Bishop of Orléans. By the Comte de Falloux, of the French Academy.' Paris. 1879.

all the more remarkable because he would not have imagined in any individual nation those qualities which he supposed would come into play in their mutual relations. He attributed to the English nation and to the English aristocracy virtues which he denied to the French people. It did not occur to him that Lord Palmerston would think of the French as he did himself. By a very curious phenomenon, which it would be difficult to explain, he became an optimist in England while he was a pessimist in France. It must be confessed that England has singular and almost all-powerful attractions for a man of intellect. You find in England the most solidly-established, the most compact, the most brilliant as well as most intellectual society in the world. Guizot, who was so well versed in the history of England, enjoyed keenly every incident of his new life.

When Thiers fell, on account of the determination of Louis Philippe not to engage in a war with England, Guizot was recalled and was made the president of the new Council. He took the Foreign Office and he became the directing spirit of the new administration. "From 1832 to 1839," he wrote, "I contributed, I believe, more than anybody to the maintenance or re-establishment of domestic order; in 1840 and 1841 I shall have attained the same result for the peace of the world." Guizot probably judged aright when he thought that the question of Egypt was not worth a great European war. He became the apostle of peace, but the merit of the pacific policy must be shared between him and King Louis Philippe. Nobody knew better than Louis Philippe the great forces which were at work in Europe. He had seen the French Revolution, the wars of the Empire, he had seen France twice invaded; he knew that Europe would not allow France to recommence a career of conquest. His prophetic prudence surrounded Paris with fortifications at a time when hardly anybody could foresee that Paris would go through the horrors of a siege. Louis Philippe believed that the only propagandism which was left to France was the propagandism of liberal and constitutional ideas. Guizot became his trusty minister, and there was soon established between the King and his servant one of those intellectual friendships which are so beneficial to nations. The King and Guizot understood and trusted each other; they had the same aim—peace and the pacific development of constitutional ideas in Europe. Their dream was a noble dream; and at this distance we can, now that Europe has become a great camp, be just to these two apostles of "peace at any price."

Guizot's state of mind during this new period of his life is well shown in these lines:

"The fine words of the Gospel, 'They rest from their labors and their works do follow them,' are out of place in a representative government. Those who are a part of it do not rest, and their works follow them not. It is true that the Gospel only alludes to those who are dead, and very rightly. Repose and justice are only for the dead. The more, however, I have advanced in public life the more its unpleasantness, its misgivings, its troubles, have become indifferent to me. The only true sorrows are those of private life, of family life. There only our souls receive wounds, which time heals, but which leave us weaker and weaker and less able to receive new ones."

Madame de Witt's book gives no details about the politics of the time. It shows us M. Guizot only in his private life, and makes long extracts from his correspondence with his children:

"Neither the preoccupations of business, nor the excitement of the struggle, nor the triumphs of vanity have ever absorbed me completely. I have never felt truly and completely happy except through my affections and in the midst of my affections; and if all the rest succeeded, it would be but little to me if my affections were not satisfied. Life is in the heart, and the heart is in the family. I am more sure of it than anybody, for I have known and experienced all the rest."

When he wrote these lines M. Guizot was perhaps the most prominent statesman in Europe. Lord Aberdeen had become his intimate friend. King Louis Philippe, the Napoleon of peace, was almost the arbiter of Europe—it seemed as if his power was established for ever. He was consulted in all the great affairs of the world, and M. Guizot stood by him in the position of a necessary and unchangeable minister. In this Olympus of power Guizot preserved a great simplicity of heart. He read sometimes the *devoirs* of his son Guillaume: "Guillaume has committed a barbarism." He chose gowns for his daughters. He often warned them against the misfortunes which Providence keeps in store for all:

"You will probably not always have the large existence you have now. Embarrassments, turns of fortune, are possible, and will perhaps not be spared you. Keep yourselves always above such misfortunes. They are very light, very small, compared with those which touch our souls, and which wound us in other places than our furniture and our clothes. You must accept and bear the changes of fortune not only with courage and dignity, but tranquilly, gaily, like the scratches of life, which are not real wounds. I have spent my youth and more than my youth surrounded with the best and most perfect models of this kind."

The time was fast approaching when this philosophy would become necessary not only to the children of M. Guizot, but to himself. He was not prepared for the Revolution of 1848, and it remained to the end his belief that if Louis Philippe had attempted an armed resistance against the Revolution it would have been successful, and that the King had on his side the opinion of the immense majority of the French people. Louis Philippe was old, he had no longer the energy which he had shown in 1832 and in 1834; he allowed an insolent and unscrupulous minority to tear the crown from his head and to throw France again on the hazardous road of revolutions.

THE "AGAMEMNON" AT OXFORD.

LONDON, June 7, 1880.

EVERYTHING that touches the life of the two great universities vibrates through England. The University College trouble at Oxford was made a national affair, and all the journals were full of sage and obvious reflections on the unwisdom of the whole proceeding. "Hazing" at one of our great American schools may serve to point a moral in a pointless time, but it is very doubtful whether, in the high tide of political revolution, the pranks of our college boys could provoke as much comment in America as the "screwing out" in Oxford has done in England. Now that this excitement has died out, and the difficulty has been settled in a very simple way, the amateur theatricals of the Oxford students have been occupying the attention of the press as no college amateur theatricals could ever have done in America, and it must be admitted *pour cause*. It will be some time before our undergraduates will give themselves the trouble of learning a play of Æschylus by heart; and, after all, it would be impossible for us in the most favorable circumstances to assemble so sympathetic an audience as gathered last Thursday night to witness the performance of the "Agamemnon" of Æschylus in the original Greek. It was not my fortune to be present on that occasion, when Robert Browning was one of the listeners, and gratified listeners, if report is correct. It is not reasonable to suppose that this admirable genius is yet able to interpret every line of his own rendering, and some ray of light struck out unwittingly by the youthful actors may have helped him here and there to penetrate the more than Æschylean darkness of his own version. The performance was received so rapturously that it had to be repeated, and only special influence gained me a seat even at the second representation on Friday. Every place was taken. The hall of Balliol College was filled to its utmost capacity; the audience being composed of women in much larger measure than one unfamiliar with the smaller sex would have deemed natural. Some malicious person suggested that this large attendance of ladies was due to sympathy with *Klytaimnestra;* which is charitably to be interpreted of the handsome young actor who played the part, rather than of the grand criminal of the tragedy. At all events, whether the ladies had worked up the play by means of a crib or found the full analysis of the programme sufficient to keep them abreast of the situation, they were by no means the least interested part of the audience, and I saw little restlessness among them during the two hours which the performance lasted. Indeed, the attention was very much closer than I have seen at more pretentious exhibitions, such as that of the "Antigone" in German before a German audience, with all the parade of pseudo-archæological reproduction.

And here I may say that there was no attempt at any such half-imitation of the antique conditions of scenic art. It was understood that Alma-Tadema had given the young men some hints as to the costumes; and the undue prominence given to some of the classical advisers may have led some of the audience to expect more than was reasonable, or, indeed, desirable. The simple truth was that these young Oxford scholars desired to give some concrete expression of their admiration of the marvellous play, and, as we all are apt to break out into declamation of any passage of poetry that pleases us, so they undertook to show that any adumbration of such a masterpiece could not fail to produce its measure of effect; and they succeeded. The "Agamemnon," divorced from the trilogy to which it belongs and delivered in a pronunciation which to un-English ears is harsh and unnatural in the extreme; the conception of the parts, so far as there was any distinct conception, intensely modern; the chorus a mob (and fifteen disorderly persons can constitute a mob); the stage arrangements necessarily awkward and incongruous,—for all that the performance was worth coming many miles to see, and every lover of Æschylus who was present will always be grateful to the young actors

for a representation which proved so conclusively the indestructible vitality of myth and poem, and which started so many trains of thought that otherwise might have never been set in motion. The modest disclaimer of the programme, repeated in the *Standard* by one of the Oxford authorities, ought, then, to disarm criticism, and if in this notice I should seem to go into schoolmasterish details, it is certainly not with any intention of discrediting the actors, whose appearance alone would commend them to the kindliness of the gruffest of critics. No foreigner could help envying England such sons—handsome, tall, lithe, vigorous young fellows. What if *Agamemnon* is more like a Lifeguardsman than like the King of Men? Is he not a champion runner? What if *Klytaimnestra's* face suggests Ethel Newcome rather than the great queen with a sea of thought and passion in brain and heart from which we may well expect full many a purple dye? We are not on the shores of the sea now, but on the banks of the Isis; and if the stride betrays not the man merely, but the long-distance runner, who will not be glad to find that Greek and gymnastics are not divorced? And *Kassandra*, clearly the prima donna of the piece, called out at the close with stormy applause—is she not, according to the newspapers, a distinguished performer over hurdles, and might she not have cleared at a bound "the great net of Ate"?

All this is healthy and joyous, and reconciles one with much, except, as I said before, the English pronunciation of Greek. Some years ago an apparently strong movement was made to introduce into England a more rational pronunciation of Greek and Latin, and to judge by the printed manifestos the danger lay rather in going too far than in stopping short of the needful reform. But the reigning pronunciation—indeed, so far as I can judge, the exclusive pronunciation in practice—is the English. The movement has failed for the present owing to the lack of co-operation on the part of the schools which train for the universities. Rather than be unintelligible the university professor sacrifices his own ideal. In our country the reform in Greek pronunciation has spread even more widely than the reform in Latin, and for months and years together I have not heard an American scholar pronounce Greek in the English fashion. I was, therefore, not a little curious as to the consistency with which the method was applied. Is *α* (long) always pronounced as our *a* in *fate* everywhere, before double consonants, in crasis and the like? That is certainly the theory, and it must be admitted that some of the actors were consistent where my ears would have thanked them for being a little irregular; but the temptation was sometimes too strong, and a familiar word like *τί* was uniformly pronounced with as much length and fulness *tis* as the perpetually recurring *οὐ*.

Of course, with English training in verse-writing the iambics were delivered with perfect stress, and yet not with so much sledge-hammer *ictus* as one hears in America. The anapæsts were not so well done as I should have expected in so simple a rhythm; and as for the more elaborate choral movements, it was fairly evident that much was left to the individual ear. The arrangers of the piece had solved the question as to the distribution of the chorus among the *choreutai* to suit themselves, and I must confess that I could not discern any principle according to which they chanted or declaimed, nor am I sufficiently musical to pronounce on the merits of the score composed by Mr. Parratt. If I dared, I should say it was of the mild ecclesiastical order. But it was easy enough to discover that the new metric which is based on musical relations had not penetrated to Oxford. The stress was good or bad simply as the *choreutes* caught the movement or not; and so I noticed transpositions which were fatal to the rhythm, and which would have been impossible if there had been any clear conception of the movement. And yet, while I object theoretically to the breaking-up of the chorus, I must concede practically that the passages where the chorus declaimed in unison were far the least effective, and I preferred the dramatic business in which the individuals disported themselves, to the measured delivery which might have been suggested by the chorus of policemen in the "Pirates of Penzance." The intense individualization of the chorus marred the piece from the antique point of view, but the nods and shrugs and side-conferences may have rendered it more lively for the non-Hellenic public—and, in fact, critics have been found to praise this part of the performance, perhaps out of a secret rancor against the difficulties of the text. It was certainly rather amusing to watch the approach of the actors to any of the desperate places. With great uniformity they would gather themselves up as if taking a stiff piece of timber, and go over it with especial vehemence. Of course it would be wrong to make too much of the process by which the unity of the chorus was broken up, for the true reason was doubtless the necessity of cutting up the piece into shorter lengths for the *choreutai*, conjoined with the difficulty of getting the whole chorus set to music. There was, at any rate, no little cutting, and the whispered report that the handsome *Klytaimnestra* was not part-perfect seemed to be confirmed by the omission of some of the most famous passages in her rôle. However well trained the young men at Oxford may be in Greek versification, they are hardly equal to improvising iambics under such excitement, and so when *Klytaimnestra* greeted her lord with a few verses of the long speech 855–913, *Agamemnon* went on to state, with a flagrant disregard of facts, that she had spun out her discourse to a length commensurate with his absence. But such little misadventures only heightened the effect by contrast. It was a glimpse of humor, which we poor moderns crave so much everywhere that we often interpret it into passages of antique poetry where humor can hardly have lurked. Such an incongruity as that to which I have alluded would have passed unnoticed by any one who was not following the play with the text in head or in hand; but, owing to the narrowness of the stage, poor *Agamemnon* and *Kassandra* had to appear at the side entrance, at which the outline of the chariot was not too clearly discernible, so that they looked very much as if they had been discovered in a closet, and the great king, "the sacker of Troy," responded to the salutation of the chorus from a very uneasy perch.

I have already gone into too much detail, and now forbear to enter upon an elaborate characteristic of the acting. Those who were present at the first performance assure me that the second was much better, which my observation of amateur acting would have led me to expect. The subordinate personages require very little notice. *Aigisthos* was the ordinary stage-villain, with no subtlety to redeem the ungrateful part. As for *Klytaimnestra*, it was hard to make out what conception the actor had formed of the rôle, and the acting seemed to be a resultant of conflicting views. It was not good, but it was a puzzle, and a puzzle is always interesting, as our cousins seem to have found out in the case of the famous 14, 15, which meets one here at every turn. At last it seemed that the actor had composed his features after a Medusa mask, and had taken the cue of his part from the famous passage 1497 foll. *Klytaimnestra* was not a woman, but a mere screen of the *δριμὺς ἀλάστωρ*. I will not stop to criticise this conception, as even distinguished commentators have often failed to recognize the finer lines of Æschylus's characterization, and I do not propose to engage in a study of the Æschylean *Klytaimnestra* at the close of a letter already too long. Enough that with this conception of the part was blended the inconsistent "feline" notion, and the action towards the close was of the melodramatic order. *Kassandra*, who had a part of the widest range to play, was frankly and, I may say, refreshingly modern, and, being modern, carried off the honors. For, after all, the hold that the great poets of antiquity have on the popular mind is due to their truth to the unchangeably human. A deeper knowledge of their art is vouchsafed only to those who make it a special study. But to all, whether Hellenists or non-Hellenists, this undertaking to bring such a work as the "Agamemnon" nearer to us as an actual power is grateful and memorable, for such a performance serves to bridge a chasm which ought never to have been formed, and by its defects as well as by its excellences shows that the study of antiquity is far more alive than we should judge it to be from the recent utterances of certain theorists. Perhaps, as we have borrowed "athleticism" from English schools and universities, so this performance of the "Agamemnon" may incite some of our young Grecians to a similar effort to make Greek life more truly our own.

V.

Notes.

THE twelfth annual session of the American Philological Association will be held at Philadelphia, in the rooms of the American Philosophical Society, on Tuesday, July 13.——The second number of the *American Journal of Philology* (Macmillan) is diversified and interesting. Prof. F. D. Allen's acute "Etymological and Grammatical Notes" on Latin and Greek words whose derivation or construction presents peculiar difficulties; Mr. B. F. O'Connor's "Principles of Orthography of French Verbs ending in *eler* and *eter*," with full lists; and Mr. Samuel Garner's note on "The so-called dubitative subjunctive, *je ne sache pas*," may be instanced as specially helpful to teachers of languages.——The seventeenth volume of Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society is chiefly distinguished by its obituary notices, which include the names of Caleb Cushing, Emory Washburn, Jacob Bigelow, E. B. Bigelow, George S Hillard, Richard Frothingham, and Lorenzo Sabine. Some of these are very elaborate. Of Mr. Cushing we read that "his collection of

flowers was one of the best ever made in Essex County, or indeed in the State," and that an intimate associate "never heard him mention the landscape, or any of the beauties of nature, with any enthusiasm." The Holmes papers, the journals of Thomas Wallcut and Charles Turner, John Eliot's letters, and the orderly book of Col. Hutchinson are the most important reproductions; Prof. Franklin B. Dexter's "Influence of the English Universities in the Development of New England" the weightiest original essay. Numerous fac-similes of maps, etc., adorn the volume. ——The *Harvard Register* sends up a flag of distress in its last number, for June. Its failure would be so manifestly a detriment to the university that we cannot believe it will be allowed to go down. The editor and publisher is Mr. Moses King, Cambridge.——The proceedings at the Brooklyn celebration of the hundredth anniversary of Channing's birthday have been printed in a handsome volume, to which is prefixed a heliotype portrait (Boston: George H. Ellis). The appendix is occupied with a number of sympathetic letters, of which the longest and most important, by Mr. Fretwell, of London, gives "direct reports by competent persons in every European country on the influence exercised by Channing on their respective peoples."——Percy's 'Pocket Dictionary of Coney Island' (New York: F. Leypoldt), after exhausting the alphabet, gives suitable hints about bathing and swimming and costumes, and even about the summer stars. Maps, time-tables, and a local calendar complete the serviceableness of this handy guide.——Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends us a characteristically fine imperial photograph of the late Rev. Henry A. Boardman, D.D., author of numerous religious works.——We have received the Calendar of the University of Tokio for the departments of Law, Science, and Literature, and vol. ii. of the Memoirs of the Science Department—"On Mines and Mining in Japan." From the Calendar we learn that 23 graduates have been sent abroad—viz., 9 to this country, 10 to England, and 4 to France. In the mining memoir it is curious to observe the "Chinese question" raised apropos of free mining, which, it is alleged, would end in Japan's "being swamped by a Chinese immigration" and "its national existence seriously jeopardized; and this the more," it is frankly added, "because a comparison between the Japanese and the Chinese workman does scarcely result to the advantage of the former."——The third number of the new Vapereau (F. W. Christern), ending with the biographical notice of the Belgian artist Dillens, makes M. Challemel-Lacour's so-called convent-plundering a military occupation by authority during the war with Prussia, and his massacre of Mobiles a baseless fabrication. As showing the forwardness of the Dictionary before going to press, we observe that the deaths neither of Cham nor of M. Chevalier are mentioned. The Comte de Chambord has the most extended notice of all, Jeff. Davis among our countrymen. The editing of the American biographies leaves something to be desired. It is said of Chief-Justice Chase in 1868 that "La *plattform* de New York lui préféra M. Horatio Seymour comme candidat des démocrats." Mr. Cushing is represented to have been Mr. Chase's successor, and to have been obliged by his enemies to resign his high office. The grand opening of Mr. G. W. Childs's *Public Ledger* building, in 1867, we are told was "almost a national event."

—The conclusion of Mr. Howells's "The Undiscovered Country" is the "feature" of the July *Atlantic*, as it is, indeed, considerably the best instalment of the story itself; it rises into the region of human interest, picks up various loose ends, and vivifies them with some dramatic intensity, rounds out the figure of Boynton a little laboriously but satisfactorily upon the whole, and contains "the gem" of the novel in the Shaker's announcement to Ford of the impolicy of the latter's love-making under the circumstances. "Incidents of the Capture of Richmond" are narrated in a graphic paper by the late General George F. Shepley, who was military governor of the Confederate capital after Weitzel entered it. Mr. J. Brander Matthews in an article on "A French Comic Dramatist" will introduce many readers, we may hope, to M. Eugène Labiche, recently "discovered" by M. Augier, and elected to the French Academy on the latter's recommendation, it may almost be said. The "Records" of the late Mr. Hunt are continued without variation in quality and importance; Mr. Aldrich's "The Stillwater Tragedy" gets as far as the eighteenth chapter; Mr. White contributes a second paper on the plot and personages of "Lear," which is interesting and even valuable; the "Reminiscences of Washington" relate to Van Buren's Administration; and the "solid" article of the number is perhaps Mr. Frederick G. Mather's on "Confederation in Canada," which, however, permits itself this remark: "Although Joseph Cook considers an elective judiciary one of the best features in his Ultimate America, still it is a serious question whether a series of wise appointments would not be better." The reviews are not of great importance; neither is the poetry nor the "Contributor's Club."

—"An Open Look at the Political Situation," which, whatever may be objected to details of it—and such assumptions as that France is "the oldest and greatest of the European nations" do not beget confidence—is for the most part a thoughtful discourse, is perhaps the most important article in the July *Lippincott's*; not all the "Independents" whose course it criticises will accept its conclusions, probably, but few of them will fail to recognize the fact that the publication of such papers is an important auxiliary of the cause they are supposed to have at heart. "A Forgotten American Worthy" sets forth the "decided claims to the distinction of being the Father of American Letters" of Joel Barlow, born at Reading, Conn., March 24, 1754, in an entertaining manner, and is not sensibly hurt by its attempt to prove too much. M. B. C. True controverts the arguments of the spelling reformers in a brief but vivacious article, which would, however, be better, in the sense of being more persuasive at least, if it omitted such allusions as, "nor is the spirit of the Pharisee confined to Professor March." "Ouida" has a characteristic Italian story called "Pipistrello," which some readers will be likely to find pathetic and others too predeterminedly affecting. The concluding paper of the series "Through the Yellowstone Park to Fort Custer" is given, and the third "Studies in the Slums," by Helen Campbell. Chapters xix.-xxi. of the excellent serial "Adam and Eve," some not unusual verses and "magazinish" illustrated articles, "Our Monthly Gossip," and the reviews, which are sparse and slight, complete the number.

—"Does Vivisection Pay?" is not the title we should have selected for Mr. Albert J. Leffingwell's paper in *Scribner's* on the abuses of vivisection. He does, to be sure, maintain that it has done almost nothing for therapeutics, which we believe to be an indefensible thesis; but he ends by defending vivisection as properly conducted, under restrictions which he would like to see enforced by law. The strongest point he makes is the uselessness, and therefore cruelty, of demonstrating again and again in class-room experiments what has already been incontrovertibly established by original research. Mr. Grant's third paper on "The Dominion of Canada" continues worthily, and perhaps closes, a series which we have already praised as it deserved. It has throughout been extremely well illustrated. Mr. Ernest Ingersoll writes in his usual graphic and entertaining manner, and writes freshly, of Denver, "the metropolis of the Rocky Mountains." Gen. McClellan's correct and orderly account of a Sicilian tour from Palermo to Syracuse is noticeable for nothing more than his suggestive criticism of the fatal delay of the Athenians under Nicias in following up the victory of the first landing. A timely paper on Coney Island, by Mr. Wm. H. Bishop; a biographic sketch of the life of Björnson, by Prof. Boyesen, reinforced by, perhaps, as much as reinforcing what seems a speaking likeness of the poet; a lively picture of a Florida praise-meeting, "In the M. E. African," by Isabella W. Johnson; and the second of Mr. Brownell's papers on "The Younger Painters of America," the engravings for which have a rare beauty, add to the attractiveness of the current number of *Scribner's*.

—The first instalment of "Washington Square," the new story by Mr. Henry James, jr., will be first turned to in the July *Harper's*. As the title imports, the scene is laid in this city forty years ago, and the only "European" who as yet looms up is a young American who has been in the Navy, has "travelled all over the world, lived abroad, amused himself." The heroine is already interesting, if only by contrast with the contemporaneous subjects of Mr. James's analysis hitherto. We remark, as blemishes in the "temporal" if not the local color, that Mr. Arthur Townsend in one breath mentions Minnesota ten years before Congress gave that Territory a boundary and a name, and "Excelsior" two years before the publication of the volume of poems containing it. Dr. J. W. Draper writes clearly and instructively of "Franklin's Place in the Science of the Last Century," a place which he finds subordinate but honorable enough, considering that "his electrical discoveries, brilliant as they were, were only embellishments of his life." It is a little singular that Dr. Draper makes no allusion to Rumford, who unquestionably outranks Franklin in any scientific comparison, and of whom the latter's sentiment, "What signifies philosophy that does not apply to some use?" was as characteristic as it was of Franklin or of the age in which they both lived. Mrs. Rebecca Harding Davis's "By-paths in the Mountains" deals with that extraordinary region of mountain landscape lying in West Virginia about the headwaters of the Cheat and Potomac Rivers, where one may find the qualities of the unbroken wilderness combined

with surprisingly good and cheap hotels. To have turned thither part of the stream of Northern summer restlessness will be a public benefit; and Mrs. Davis has only begun to reveal what she knows of the Alleghanies. The other illustrated articles comprise Mr. A. A. Hayes, jr.'s, "Santa Fé Trail," Mr. Thomas W. Knox's humorous "Summer Clubs on Great South Bay," Miss Oakey's "William Morris Hunt"—with a capital likeness, and several specimens of his work—and Mrs. Oliphant's British-matronly "Queen Victoria," of which the curious portraits supplement not badly those which accompany an historical paper on "Princes and Potentates in 1840."

—An esteemed correspondent and competent critic writes us as follows:

"You seem in your last number (p. 451) to commend the 'keen-sightedness' of Mr. Edwin Arnold in not 'allowing for a moment the *nothingness* which some would find in the idea of Nirvâna.' It appears to me, however, that he would have given evidence of a keener sight by a directly contrary allowance. *Nirvâna* is a Sanskrit word which signifies 'extinction,' nothing more and nothing less; and the whole history and relations of Indian Buddhism show that this is what Buddha meant by the term. He is oppressed by a sense of the painfulness of existence, and the exceeding painfulness of the weary and never-ending series of existences to which every being is liable; and he sets out to discover a way of release —and finds it. The difference between annihilation and Nirvâna, at the best, is the difference between 0 and 1 — 1, or any other mathematical expression of which the nullity is hidden from sight by a crowd of signs which really cancel one another. M. Barth, whose recent brief account of the 'Religions of India' (I rejoice to see that it has just been translated into English) is the best and soundest that has yet appeared, says: 'If there is a conclusion that wears the aspect of having been that of Buddhism in all ages, which results from all that it affirms and all that it ignores, it is that the "Way" leads to total extinction, and that perfection consists in ceasing to be.' There is a great deal in the morality and practices of Buddhism that is worthy of our highest admiration; but, in the midst of our appreciation of it, we should never lose sight of the fact that its fundamental philosophy is frankly atheistic and pessimistic, and its highest good annihilation."

—The change from the old to the new management of the *Pall Mall Gazette* has had an observable effect on the social no less than the political parts of that newspaper. In a late number the "Decay of Revenge" is discussed, and the *Pall Mall* suggests that this passion, once considered so fundamental and permanent, is actually dying out. Revenge was necessary in the early stages of society, when every one's hand was against his neighbor, for self-preservation, and it still is so in countries where "law has no force," "from Texas to Queensland." The importance of Revenge in primitive societies as a means of redressing injuries has been for a long time accepted as a fact by all enquirers into early institutions; and if civilized justice be really a substitute for it, necessarily the redress of private wrongs by private means must die out as civilized justice takes the place of the barbarous *lex talionis*. But the *Pall Mall* goes much farther than this, and suggests that the passion of revenge itself—the desire to be avenged for a wrong—is dying out. That vengeance is sweet, was once a truism; now it is hardly any longer true. Except in words, people do not contrive elaborate schemes of vengeance upon one another, and people really have no longer any "enemies." Modern life is so rapid that "the bare idea of an enemy is ridiculous," and recalls the melodrama. We should be very glad if we could take this optimist view of the future of the passion of revenge, which leads the *Pall Mall* to believe that "revenge will soon be as extinct as witchcraft." In the field of politics and journalism, however, which cover so large a part of human activity, we fail to see the evidences of the caducity of revenge which our contemporary thinks so universal. When the "favorite son" of one State on the nomination of a "favorite son" of another whom he does not like for the Presidency, stays quietly at home, and refuses absolutely to make "the greatest effort of his life," and thus imperils his election, is he not instigated by the same simple desire for revenge that impels the primitive man to knock his enemy's second cousin on the head with a club, because his enemy's brother has scalped his uncle? When the New York bolting delegates came back from Chicago after having helped to beat Grant, did they not seek the seclusion of their homes with very much the feeling with which the Australian blackfellow takes to the bush—to escape the avenging pursuit of the rival whose house he has laid waste? The *Pall Mall* suggests that one reason why revenge is passing away is that people are aware that if they injured a man in earnest, merely because he had wronged them, "they would suffer from a reaction of pity," and tells the story of the savage who was entitled by the local custom to administer personal chastisement to one who had robbed him. On seeing the blood flow, a "reaction of pity" set in," and the castigator burst into tears, embraced the thief, and rubbed noses with him. But when Senator Logan and Mr. Green B. Raum administer the punishment recognized by local custom as the fit reward of any "workers" who deserted them on the eve of the Springfield Convention, by depriving them of the support they derive from any Government employment they may have, there is no danger that there will be any "reaction of pity," or rubbing of noses, or even tears. So, too, when relations between an influential newspaper and its rival are not altogether satisfactory, is not revenge the name of the passion which induces one to omit all mention of the name of the other from its columns? Is there any reaction of pity when one editor accuses another of wilful murder or arson, or of inflating his circulation by improper means? Taking the brightest view we can of the future, we can hardly believe that revenge is an extinct passion.

—A recent monograph 'On Comets and Ultra-Neptunian Planets,' by Professor George Forbes, of Anderson College, Glasgow, will meet with much the same reception among conservative astronomers that Le Verrier's confident prediction of a trans-Uranian planet did in 1846. Most mathematical astronomers rest in one of two beliefs—either that there is no planetary body beyond Neptune, or that if there is one, we can get no pronounced theoretical evidence of its existence before the coming century. So it is not difficult to imagine the unpreparedness of the astronomical mind for the reception of anything like the propositions set forth in this memoir, although the question of possible outer planets is dealt with from a standpoint entirely independent of the ordinary method of exterior perturbation. The object of Professor Forbes's communication to the Royal Society of Edinburgh is, first, to show reasons for a belief in the existence of *two* planets, whose orbits are greater than that of Neptune, and, secondly, to indicate the probable positions of these planets at the present time. His method of research depends upon the theory of the introduction of comets from the interstellar spaces, as permanent members of the solar system; the comets, approaching the sun in orbits mostly parabolic, suffer, in many cases, a reduction of velocity by planetary perturbation, and so are thrown into elliptical orbits whose aphelia are somewhere near the orbit of the perturbing planet. Professor Forbes tabulates the aphelion distances of a large number of comets, and remarks four groups of these distances; the average of the first inner group being about equal to the distance of Jupiter from the sun, and the mean of the second group about that of Neptune. A very natural inference suggests itself immediately—there are, exterior to Neptune, two planets, at such distances from the sun as to correspond to the general aphelion distances of the comets in groups the third and the fourth. The radii of these two orbits are, therefore, indicated, and the planets must be somewhere in these orbits at distances from the sun of one hundred and three hundred astronomical units; and Kepler's Third Law at once gives their periods of revolution about the sun as one thousand and five thousand years, respectively. Even if the outer of these two planets really exists, it is so enormously distant that we may summarily abandon all hope of ever seeing it under ordinary conditions of telescopic vision, unless it should happen to be of exceptionally great diameter. But on the most reasonable conditions which we may assume, the inner of the two supposable planets should be quite within the reach of a few instruments already in existence.

—It is this planet with which Professor Forbes associates six comets; and the differences of longitude of the several comets and the planet at the epochs when he supposes them to have been perturbed by this planet are, in all cases save one, so small as to command especial note. The planet whose orbit he strikes through these aphelia was in longitude 92° in 1638 A.D. So that, as its distance involves a motion of one degree in 2.96 years, it is now in longitude 174°. We have space to present here only his second or "ecliptic" hypothesis with regard to inclination of the planet's orbit; its latitude is therefore zero, and thus the position becomes—

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text{Right ascension}=11\text{h. }40\text{m.}\\ \text{North Polar distance}=87^\circ\end{array}\right\}\ \text{epoch, 1880.}$$

Professor Forbes has very conscientiously put his new method to a trial which we must not neglect: taking the second or Neptune group of comets, and not permitting himself a knowledge of the position of Neptune at any epoch, and assuming a mean distance of Neptune *from a conspectus of the aphelia of the comets in that group*, he got with little labor a position of Neptune only three degrees in error, therein approximating the accuracy of the magnificent researches of Adams and Le Verrier by the perturbations of Uranus.

FISHER'S HISTORICAL DISCUSSIONS.*

FROM a dozen years of diligent literary labor Professor Fisher has gathered a volume of miscellaneous essays and addresses which not only will be sure of a welcome in this permanent form from those who have already seen them, but will be read with interest by the wider circle to which many of them are now addressed for the first time. For while these papers furnish ample evidence of accurate learning and sound historical training, they are at the same time in some respects a significant contribution to our current theological literature. The discussions cover a wide range, and the easy handling which marks them throughout shows that the writer is equally at home in the broad domain of general church history and in the narrower field of New England controversial divinity. Indeed, the distinctive merit of several of the more striking of these essays is due largely to the fact that Professor Fisher's habitual grasp of a subject in its broader historical relations enables him easily to avoid the provincial treatment that renders most theological discussion in this country such dreary and profitless reading. As professor in a leading Congregational seminary he is never disloyal to his position, yet a cursory glance at these pages can leave no one in doubt that the undercurrent of his sympathy is always in harmony with the most catholic estimate of truth.

The papers in this volume fall, by a very natural arrangement, into three groups. The first comprises several which relate to the history, polity, and dogmas of the Church of Rome; the second a series of discussions bearing upon New England theology; while the third is made up of essays and addresses connected with theism and Christian evidences. The volume also contains several essays which do not come under any of these heads. Naturally enough, it is with the papers which relate to Romanism in its manifold and varied aspects that the wide reading of Professor Fisher finds most adequate room for display, and we are inclined to think that for many of his readers these will prove the most instructive in the volume. As a teacher of ecclesiastical history Professor Fisher could not help becoming a careful and interested student of the most imposing phenomenon which Christianity presents; yet he has studied with the temper of a scholar, not of a partisan, and his considerate judgment and careful research give his conclusions a real value. The growth of the Papacy is traced in the curious transformation by which the old Roman spirit and religion were reproduced in Latin Christianity, and in the establishment of the temporal kingdom; and the two momentous revolutions through which it has recently passed, the abrogation of its civil state and the new definition of papal infallibility by the Vatican Council, are impartially considered in their actual course and in their probable results. If we are compelled to regard the paper read before the Evangelical Alliance as the least satisfactory of the series, it is not from any fault of the writer, but rather from the utter impossibility of defining the medley of discordant opinions which pass under the name of Protestantism. When Romanism is compared with Protestantism in its effects upon modern civilization, the Romanist may fairly ask what Protestantism is meant—whether it is the Protestantism of Luther and Calvin, or the Protestantism of Descartes and Lessing? Would Professor Fisher maintain that even the Evangelical Alliance was intellectually superior to the Vatican Council?

But if the author's learning is most fully displayed in the first series of these papers, it is in the second series that his personal leanings are most clearly indicated, and it is in these, we fancy, that the distinctive significance of this volume will be most fully recognized. These papers, though always marked by the writer's characteristic urbanity of tone, are naturally more controversial in their character, and have a flavor of conviction which lends, at times, an animation to the style which the purely historical discussions are apt to lack. The author, it is true, contends with the difficulty of dealing with questions which, for the most part, possess but a limited interest for the present generation, but even the dry bones of New Haven divinity are quickened by his vigorous defence of a venerated teacher. The most striking essays in this series are the estimates of Edwards and Channing, the two names in the religious annals of New England that have more than local fame, and the only two that seem likely to be remembered. The contrast between these representatives of antagonistic creeds gives Professor Fisher an opportunity, of which he skilfully avails himself, to trace the historical development of the only original school of religious thought which this country has yet produced. In such a review he is always at his best, and we should be at a loss where to look for a more lucid and impartial estimate of a movement which, for many reasons, has been misrepresented and misunderstood. The important modifications which the old New England Calvinism had undergone, and the precise antagonisms out of which the Unitarian revolt arose, are presented with a fairness and distinctness that give these papers a permanent value. President Edwards is a writer whose praise has been repeated by many who could boast no very discriminating acquaintance with his views. The paper of Professor Fisher is a valuable contribution to a correct understanding of Edwards's philosophical opinions. While his rare dialectical power is, of course, fully recognized, the incompleteness of his theory is frankly conceded. The sketch of Channing is not less instructive. His rare moral and spiritual endowments receive a most appreciative recognition, while, at the same time, his intellectual force is fairly and accurately gauged. The judicious verdict of Professor Fisher might serve as a wholesome corrective of the exaggerated estimates of Channing as a thinker which the recent celebrations of his birth called forth.

There are other essays in this volume which deserve notice, and among them we might mention the exceedingly acute and able discussion of the relation of the Church of England to other Protestant churches, a paper which presents the ability of Professor Fisher as a controversialist in the most favorable light; but we are inclined to think that for the most discerning readers its chief interest will arise, not so much from the intrinsic merit of the papers taken separately as from a certain tone which pervades them as a whole. Coming from any quarter these essays would deserve attention, but coming as they do from an instructor in one of our foremost theological schools it is impossible not to read them between the lines. While the personal opinions of the author are not obtruded, they are allowed to color his discussion of many topics in a way that cannot be mistaken. From the natural bent of his mind, as well as from the influence of his historical training, Professor Fisher is conservative, yet these essays are marked by a constant freedom of touch which shows that he is conservative in no narrow or partisan sense. His evident sympathies are with historical Christianity in its largest aspects, and his habitual disposition to look on both sides of a truth manifests itself in a reluctance to accept some statements which have been regarded, in his own communion at least, as tests of orthodoxy. He avows that, had he the genius of Landor, he would like to compose an imaginary conversation between John Calvin and John Wesley, for the purpose of showing how insignificant was the real difference between them. In his essay upon Edwards he refers, with evident approbation, to the maxim of Mozley, that when moral truth is contradicted by logic there is a flaw in the logic; a maxim which, we need hardly say, a Calvinist of the old school would reject with contempt. The brief but very interesting sketch of the history of the doctrine of Future Punishment has a mildness of accent which would hardly have satisfied the generation that listened with composure to the famous sermon of Edwards upon sinners in the hands of an angry God. But still more significant is the frank admission, made in the essay upon Channing, that at the time when the Unitarian movement arose in New England the doctrine of the Trinity, as formulated by its great defenders, had been set aside and derided by the party then claiming the name of orthodox, and that even the notions of Moses Stuart on this subject would have been regarded with astonishment by the Nicene Fathers. These statements are in strict accordance with the truth, and when we call to mind the bitter controversy that divided the best men of New England for two generations, we can but feel a profound regret that scholars as wise, as learned, and as liberal as the author of these essays did not shape the counsels of the Congregational churches sixty years ago.

* 'Discussions in History and Theology. By George P. Fisher, D.D., LL.D., Professor of Ecclesiastical History in Yale College.' New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1880.

HELLENICA.*

NO matter where we stand, if we look at work of the Greeks we see proportion and subordination—never too much of any one thing, for there can be too much even of "enterprise." Nothing better recalls the mind to a right discrimination between what is higher and what is lower than the influence of the Greeks, and the tendency of our social life to the uninspiring dead-level of business interests is best counteracted by an appreciation of what the Greeks have to teach us. That these essays aim to help towards this end may be gathered from the following passage in Mr. Abbott's admirable preface:

* 'Hellenica: A Collection of Essays on Greek Poetry, Philosophy, History, and Religion. Edited by Evelyn Abbott, M.A., LL.D., Fellow and tutor of Balliol College, Oxford.' London: Rivingtons; New York: Pott, Young & Co. 1880.

"In many respects modern civilization contrasts favorably with ancient; it is, for instance, a trite thing to point out the care taken in modern times of the criminal and the idiot. On the other hand, it is possible that this gain has not been without some accompanying loss. While we are anxious to hide and relieve the degradation to which human nature can sink, we tend to become less careful of the elevation to which it can rise; we put feeling in the place of thought, and throw away half our birthright. . . . If a whole country could unite in one effort to appropriate in any real manner the best that has been thought and written on the great interests of life, we should indeed make a great stride forward; but we should also find that the brightest hope of the future is not far removed from the truest interpretation of the past."

The book contains nine essays, which come mainly from Oxford and Cambridge, and the first five give enough of what is covered by lectures lately delivered at Oxford to throw valuable light on the instruction now offered there. Still, their chief claim to our attention lies in the importance of the subjects chosen and in the scholarly way in which they are treated. Mr. Ernest Myers and the editor, Mr. Evelyn Abbott, treat of Æschylus and of Sophocles. Mr. Myers strains the attention perhaps unduly, because Æschylus offers too wide a field for systematic treatment in so limited a space. The points dwelt upon are, however, many of them new, and all of them are treated from a fresh point of view. This is especially true of the account of Aristophanes as a critic of Æschylus and Euripides, and in general of Mr. Myers's discriminating "criticism of criticism." All scholars have been ready to fasten upon the "words on horseback" and the silent heroes of the Æschylean stage, forgetting that silence at the right time is one of the ways of manifesting a lofty character. That these characteristics of Æschylus never violated the rules of harmony and proportion Mr. Myers successfully maintains. What Mr. Abbott says on the "Theology and Ethics of Sophocles" makes it plain that he feels a deep enthusiasm for his author, though it is nowhere embodied in such figurative language as that of Mr. Myers's peroration upon Æschylus. This enthusiasm he shows by the complete absence of any attempt to read his own views into the poetry of Sophocles. Mr. Abbott does not insist on finding a systematized theology or a clearly defined code of morals, but is content to show how the loftiness and the purity of Sophocles transfused the material which he took from Greek mythology.

The next three essays are devoted to Philosophy. Mr. Nettleship deals with the theory of education in Plato's 'Republic,' Mr. Bradley discusses Aristotle's conception of the State, and Mr. Courtney tells of Epicurus. The interest in political theories now felt in America ought to make the first two essays welcome. No doubt many serious minds are nowadays inclined to smile at the notion of discussing Plato's scheme of an ideal state. This is, at least in part, because the matchless art of Plato's style is thought by many votaries of Kant and Hegel to savor too much of the world for it to be a fitting vehicle of "pure thought." Mr. Nettleship pleads for a more thoughtful consideration of Plato's scheme for education with conviction backed by arguments and by results, which are irresistible. The views on the possible service of music in modern education, and on the best means of humanizing classical teaching, which grow out of Mr. Nettleship's careful study of the 'Republic,' ought to awaken a keen interest in Platonic thought. Mr. Bradley confines his survey of Aristotle's conception of the State to the points essential to every conception of the State. Aristotle's account of the man who is "by nature a slave," and of the essential baseness of manual labor, finds no defence beyond what is afforded by the clear proof that it agrees with the rest of his theories. But this, of course, makes it plain that these opinions in Aristotle are not to be compared with modern class-prejudice. Aristotle hardly respected manual labor less, but he certainly prized the dignity of citizenship more than we, and therefore his perfect citizen was to do no work with his hands. On all these points Mr. Bradley is easily followed; but when he defines the end which the State realizes, the argument becomes harder to follow without a familiarity with Aristotle. This is unavoidable in dealing with the central point in the theory of one who, because he was the first to aim at a full and accurate terminology, is somewhat wavering in the use of his own formulæ. In his short account of Epicurus Mr. Courtney does full justice to the charm of character which endeared Epicurus to his disciples, but no mercy is shown to a system which in the same breath warns against "all culture" and exhorts all men to use their intelligence in rejecting "superstition."

Three of the four remaining essays are on Greek historians: Mr. Jebb writes on "The Speeches of Thucydides," Mr. Strachan-Davidson on Polybius, and Mr. Dakyns on Xenophon. The last essay, on "Greek Oracles," is by Mr. Frederick Myers. After reading Mr. Jebb's essay there is little left to learn about the historical value of the Speeches in Thucydides. The question is not summarily disposed of according to a preconceived theory, but the circumstances of the historian, the bearing of the speech upon the war, and the personal importance of the speaker are all considered. No one who wishes to understand Thucydides can afford to lose the help which Mr. Jebb's essay certainly affords. Mr. Davidson's account of Polybius makes interesting what otherwise would have remained, to most, forbidding ground. The personal traits of Polybius and the interesting features in his work are most effectively given, without any attempt to overrate either him or his writings. A dull historian Polybius will ever be, since his keen struggle for accuracy in detail seems to have made him incapable of a broad and effective presentation of his facts. The account of Xenophon by Mr. Dakyns shows the fullest knowledge of the author and a just appreciation of him, but the interest of the reader is dulled by frequent excursions into various fields of speculation, which seem doubly irrelevant in speaking of so simple a character. Yet after reading this essay the many-sidedness of Xenophon's literary activity is vividly impressed upon the mind, and this arouses the desire to read again much that has become unfamiliar. The discussion of "Greek Oracles" by Mr. Myers shows the most varied reading and a great store of material, but the whole is hardly put together with sufficient care. The first of the three parts gives an interesting statement of the rise and decay of the influence of oracles, yet in the detailed treatment of the two parts following, this connecting thread is lost under the mass of illustrations which, though interesting, still fail of their effect because not systematized.

This book is a welcome proof that the scholars of England have much to say on subjects for enlightenment in which we have been accustomed to look to Germany. Professor Hillebrand has frankly admitted that the leadership in speculative thought has again found its way to England, and here is a sign that the same may be true in classical scholarship, since Mr. Abbott promises other volumes like this one in case the public interested proves large enough. Certainly such scholarly essays cannot be too numerous, nor will their effect be less because they give evidence of a non-German capacity for excellent literary workmanship.

A Guide to Modern English History. By William Cory. Part I. 1815–1830. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1880.)—This book, according to the author's preface, "has grown out of an attempt made some years ago to give some account of English politics to a foreign guest who was at the time reading history for an examination at one of the inns of court." This guest, the author adds, "was not a Christian nor an European." What he was is not stated, but he was probably a Hindu. At any rate, he was a person who required a good deal of exposition, and in preparing the book for publication Mr. Cory found it "inconvenient to adhere to the plan of adapting statements to so remote a mind." He thought it best, nevertheless, to explain many terms the meaning of which in ordinary books is taken for granted. The result of Mr. Cory's attempt to avoid the two extremes of explaining too much and explaining too little, is rather peculiar, as a few extracts will show.

The historian of a modern period always has a certain difficulty in establishing a starting-point. He cannot give any clear idea of the beginning of his period without a little retrospect to show how it is connected with what went before. This must have been peculiarly difficult in the case of Mr. Cory's attempt upon the "remote" mind of his guest; but in the volume before us he plunges *in medias res*, in this brief but comprehensive way:

"In 1792 there had been one nation thoroughly in earnest about war; this was the French people, asserting its right to be a republic. Some years after this republican people had proved untrue to itself and unreasonably obedient to a soldier, the hateful tyranny of its master grew to such excess that it made all other monarchies, even the worst, comparatively acceptable, and by the stress of invasion the two kindred peoples of the Spanish Peninsula, Spain and Portugal, were beaten and warmed into hearty combativeness. The same provocation drove the great hordes of Russia into wholesome patriotism. And then a fourth people, greater than these three, but divided and bound, was at last able to combine, though imperfectly, and avenge itself on the French oppressor. This fourth people was the German. There were two great German States, Prussia and Austria. Prussia then held in subjection a portion of an alien country. Poland and Austria then led and eclipsed the ancient and robust nation of Hungary. Except Portugal, there was not one of these nations which had not at one time or another served the French tyrant as an accomplice."

This is a very good specimen of Mr. Cory's historical style when he

is dealing with minds not "remote." It is immediately followed by an illustration of his method of treating subjects as to which he feels that thorough explanation is necessary: "There was besides Portugal one European state which had never been brought so low. This was the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, which was called by diplomatists Angleterre, and is generally denoted by the name which corresponds to Angleterre—England."

Mr. Cory's general review of the events which make up the history of "Angleterre" from 1815 to 1830 does not differ very materially from that given by other liberal historians. It is only his criticisms of men and his reflections upon facts which are original. His account of Wellington's character is worth preserving for its picturesque force of statement: "He was probably the greatest man that ever was sincerely content to serve. During his fifty years of conspicuous public life he accepted every opportunity of serving the state as naturally as a horse takes food, and he conformed to all law and all social obligation, just as if he had no self-love" (p. 10). In his ninth chapter he undertakes to give some account of the literary and scientific development of England during the early years of this century. Of Coleridge he says that "had his fragmentary books been read, or his uncouth monologues listened to, by men of his own age concerned in affairs, he would have seemed to them, not without cause, a solemn mountebank." Of Bentham he makes the curious statement that "he was innocently vain, but he wasted no time on vain men," citing in a note, apparently in proof of this, the fact that he once befriended a clergyman who had been prosecuted and impoverished, though there is nothing to show that the clergyman was not a vain man too. The Waverley Novels Mr. Cory calls "Mr. Scott's heroic legends of North Britain," and adds: "This book 'Waverley' was the first of a set of books which must be acknowledged at least as a set-off to the supposed signs of the age."

Who Mr. Cory is we do not know, but we cannot help believing that this book is really written by the "guest"—the possessor of the "remote" mind referred to in the preface. There is in the style a certain Anglo-Indian quality which suggests an authorship neither Christian nor European. As the work of a Hindu law student it would be quite a remarkable performance; if it was really written by an Englishman, it may serve as an awful example of the danger of intercourse with persons of remote minds.

Our Common School System. By Gail Hamilton. (Boston: Estes & Lauriat.)—The animated and vigorous discussions which have recently been carried on in New York and Massachusetts regarding the sphere and methods of public education have suggested to Gail Hamilton a new employment for her peculiar powers. Our common-school system was tempting game to a woman who heartily believes that the platform formula of the need of thorough, radical, and complete reform applies to everything excepting the civil service. She has snipped industriously at newspapers and school-reports; she has listened attentively to what female teachers have told her; and with this preparation she has made a volume of unfair quotation and trivial story, unrelieved by instructive comment, which contributes hardly anything to the solution of educational problems. She first sweeps away the high, normal, and industrial schools, because they are a means of perverting the public money to private gain, and do not secure the objects they have in view. She then takes up the system of superintendence, which aims at uniformity of organization and method, and assails all men and things concerned in the work—committees, supervisory boards, superintendents, reports, examinations, instructions, suggestions, which in her view show only an arrogant interference of incompetent and highly-paid men with able and underpaid women who know much more about proper educational methods than any other persons not directly engaged in teaching can ever know. She cites various acts and remarks of the men, and various instances of trial and grit among the women, to prove the aggressive silliness of the former and the oppressed wisdom of the latter. Through the main part of the volume the changes are rung on this long-drawn antithesis between persecuted women and impertinent, interloping men. The efforts of those who have studied education abroad and who seek to introduce foreign methods meet with her especial scorn; half-illiterate Belgium, and particularly the great countries, Austria, Germany, and France, accustomed as they are to centralization and peopled by inferior citizens, can give no lessons in education to a nation of such enlightenment as our own. The conclusion of the whole matter seems to be that the village school of old times, in which the teacher was entrusted with the theory of instruction and discipline, and was held accountable by the parents, who took a direct interest in school work, is the true model for a democratic community to adopt.

There is enough in our school system which is unsatisfactory, and it is easy for so practised a hand to find fault. The system is unnecessarily expensive, tends too much to an experimental adoption of foreign methods unfitted to our communities, involves too much machinery, is directed to some erroneous ends, and fails of some desirable results. The questions involved are practical, and require in any one who attempts to deal with them direct knowledge and experience. There is not a practical hint in this book, for the suggestion of the fitness and effectiveness of the village school reads like an extract from the elder Shandy's manuscript. Mr. C. F. Adams's recent pamphlet, which may not have had the circulation it deserved, is of infinitely more value than all Gail Hamilton has to say. The question of state support of the higher education, likewise, is a practical one to the solution of which Gail Hamilton's remarks do not contribute in the least. It may be that the views of Governor Robinson and President Eliot will prevail and the present system be abolished, in accordance with the democratic tendency to limit public patronage to the absolute necessities of the state and refuse it to the higher ends of civilization, and to reckon the ability of the citizen to read, write, and cipher as the sole advantage that the state receives from education for which the state should pay. This view, however, is not likely to prevail in the communities which support the schools, until the means of replacing them by endowed academies, more numerous and cheap than those we now have, has been more thoroughly considered and the practical effects of the change been better known by experiment. Simply to restate the theory as Gail Hamilton does, shows only her adherence to that party, and does not remove any difficulties in the way.

This book, of course, does not confine itself to any one line of diatribe. It has a sting for a great many fancied tender spots. Perhaps the most curious of these thrusts, by the way, is the vigorous rejection of Harvard's efforts for female education because Harvard turns out such a poor lot of graduates, whose conduct she declares is "horrible, hateful, monstrous, not to be told," and is a standing rebuke to New England for being shocked "because two or three senators appeared inebriated on the floor of the Senate." She is unwilling to be unjust, however, and mingles praise with censure. She awards the highest honor to President Eliot for that speech in which, "under the divine afflatus," he said that an accurate and refined use of the mother-tongue was the only essential part of the education of a gentleman or lady. Indeed, she seems to be the more pleased because afterward "the man relapsed into himself," and was not disposed to insist on his words. She says that she shall "watch President Eliot from this time forth," in hope of a new descent of the divine lightning. This episode is a fair illustration of the temper, sobriety, and instructiveness of the book.

Popular Romances of the Middle Ages. By Sir George W. Cox, M.A., Bart., and Eustace Hinton Jones. First American from the second English edition. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1880. 8vo, pp. viii.–514.)—The great mediæval romances, after centuries of neglect, have become a part and parcel of our own literature and art. The 'Idyls of the King,' Wagner's Trilogy, Schnorr's Nibelung frescoes, and Bornier's 'La Fille de Roland' prove sufficiently that some knowledge of the popular epics of the Middle Ages is necessary for the enjoyment of many modern productions. Until recently this knowledge had to be gleaned from dry analyses scattered through literary histories, or found in the unsatisfactory works of Ellis, Weber, and others. A great advance in the popularization of these romances was made by Ludlow in his 'Popular Epics of the Middle Ages of the Norse-German and Carlovingian Cycles' (London: 1865), but the author's object was not purely literary, and his analyses, although they afford a good idea of the contents of the original, have no independent interest. In 1871, Messrs. Cox and Jones published a selection from the Arthurian and Carlovingian cycles, with a few non-cyclical romances, under the title of 'Popular Romances of the Middle Ages.' This was followed the next year by 'Tales from the Teutonic Lands,' containing selections from the Norse-German cycle, and four Icelandic sagas. These two works have now been combined into the one under notice.

Our authors' object differs materially from that of Ellis, Weber, and Ludlow. They have not given specimens or analyses, but have endeavored, chiefly by condensation, to present the romances themselves in an attractive literary form. Those who have read Ludlow to learn the contents of the 'Chanson de Roland' will read with delight Mr. Jones's vigorous paraphrase, and know what the poem really is. We cannot

praise too highly the manner in which the authors have performed their difficult task (the brunt of which has been borne by Mr. Jones). They have condensed with great skill, their English is racy, vigorous, and poetic, while the spirit of the originals has been admirably preserved. The range of the book is very wide, embracing the three great cycles of mediæval romance. From that of Charlemagne but two romances are given: Roland and Oiger the Dane. The other two are more fully represented: the Arthurian by King Arthur and his knights, Merlin, and Sir Tristrem; and the Norse-German cycle by the Stories of the Volsungs, the Nibelung Story, Walter of Aquitaine, Hugdietrich and Hildeburg, and Gudrun. Besides these, four independent romances peculiarly English are given: Bevis of Hamtoun, Guy of Warwick, Havelok, and Beowulf; and four Icelandic sagas: Grettir the Strong, Frithjof, Gunnlaug, and Burnt Njal. It is much to be regretted that just now, when the interest in comparative mythology and popular tales is so great, the American edition should have omitted the introductions of the two volumes from which it is made up. In consequence of this omission some of the entries in the index read curiously enough, as: "Beggars in Mythology," "Snakes in Mythology," "Wanderers in Mythology"; while for some of the references there is no paging, as: "Æschere," "Boots," "Hæring," "Healer," "Hermes," "Hermes, rod of," "Heroes, bondage of," "Meleagros," "Modrain," etc.

The Watering Places and Mineral Springs of Germany, Austria, and Switzerland. A Popular Medical Guide. By Edward Gutmann, M.D. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880. 12mo, pp. xii.-331.)—The first part of this little manual contains notes upon the selection of watering places, and upon the leading routes by which the American tourist may reach them, with a description of the general features of life at a spa. In the second part a rapid account is given of the chief watering places in the countries named. Karlsbad, "the queen of the European spas"; Ischl, "the gem of the Austrian"; Baden-Baden, "the glory," and Ems, "the gem," respectively, of the German spas; and about ninety other places in Central Europe that are more or less famous for their mineral waters, are briefly described. A popular account of the composition and uses of the different waters, alkaline, saline, sulphur, ferrated, and others, follows. The fourth and last part of the book treats succinctly of the best-known health resorts in various parts of Europe and in Madeira, especially of those suited for consumptive patients; besides which there are "Balneological Notes" upon mud-baths, kumys and grape cures, and other eccentricities of therapeutics, of which the peat and the pine-needle baths may be mentioned as the most curious. The book is intelligently written in the main, though physicians must take exception to the statement (pp. 21, 36) that "bathing-gowns prevent the water from coming in close contact with the skin, whereby it loses much of its efficacy." The book would have been yet more serviceable if the author had not omitted all notice of the French spas, even upon the colored map which indicates the watering places.

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Page 54, col. ii, line 16 from bottom. For "John A." read "John J."
Page 145, col. i, line 9 from bottom. For "Syracuse" read "Utica"
Page 148, col. i, line 31 from bottom For "1866" read "1868."
Page 156, col. i, line 14 from bottom. For "Ludovici" read "Ludovisi."
Page 349, col. ii, line 4. For "1854" read "1875."

REGISTER OF BOOKS RECEIVED

DURING THE HALF YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1880.

Theology, Metaphysics, and Ethics.

Adkins (Rev. E.), The Ages to Come.....(Authors' Publishing Co.)
Allies (Rev. T. W.), A Life's Decision.....(Scribner & Welford) $3 00
Armstrong (Rev. G. D.), Sacraments of the New Testament...(A. C. Armstrong & Son) 2 50
Bedell (Rev. G. T.), The Pastor: Pastoral Theology.....(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 2 00
Bible Commentary: John; Acts.....(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 5 00
Bigandet (Rev. P.), Life or Legend of Gaudama, 3d ed., 2 vols.....(Trübner & Co.)
Brown (Miss E. E.), Thoughts that Breathe: from Dean Stanley.....(D. Lothrop & Co.) 1 00
Bryant (W. M.), Hegel's Philosophy of Art.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Burnz (Eliza B.), The Liberal Hymn-book.....(Burnz & Co.)
Caird (Rev. J.), Introduction to the Philosophy of Religion.....(Macmillan & Co.) 3 00
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